

**B.A., First Year
History, Paper - II**

**WESTERN WORLD
(MID 15th CENTURY TO 1870)**



मध्यप्रदेश भोज (मुक्त) विश्वविद्यालय – भोपाल

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SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

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INTRODUCTION

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Western world became modernised in mind and soul with the emergence of Renaissance in fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. This movement spread new knowledge, spirit of enquiry, opposition to superstitions and interest in science, art and literature among the people of Europe. This new knowledge made the emergence of Reformation Movement which confronted the Catholic superstitions and corruptions. During the change from Feudalism to early Capitalism the term Absolutism was commonly applied in blend with some European rulers. Besides political change, economic revolution of the Modern West such as Mercantilism became a dominant system in Europe from 16th to 18th Century. Colonialism slowly inspired the nation states to extend their empire with absolute control which led to the process of imperialism. The European imperial powers set up various industries in their colonies to get more profits. This paved the way for the industrialisation of the colonies. Seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are also the period of revolutions in Western World. The Revolution of 1688 was really a unique Revolution, not only in the history of England but also in the history of Europe. American Revolution also called War of American Independence which culminated with the winning of political independence by 13 Great Britain's North American colonies and forming of the United States of America between 1775 to 1783. The French Revolution of 1789 brought a drastic change in the socio-economic and political life of the people of France. Rise of Napoleon to power in France is a Romance in the history of world. He changed many things in Europe and brought liberty and equality which gave a severe blow to the old conservative dynasties who now unitedly crushed the power of Napoleon and assembled at Vienna to restore the old system of monarchy. But the impact of Napoleonic system of administration continued in France and Europe. France saw other two revolutions like July and February revolution in 1830 and 1848 respectively. We see another issue which is known as the Eastern Question was of the political and economic instability in the Ottoman Empire from the late 18th to early 20th centuries and the subsequent strategic competition and political considerations of the European Great powers in light of this.

Due to the approach of modern age, common people started demanding their rights, liberty, equality and freedom that led to the rise of Liberalism or Liberal Movement. In England, the "Glorious revolution" of 1688 recognized the supremacy of parliament in Britain. Later on England had a series of parliamentary reforms like the Reform Act of 1832, 1867 etc. Liberalism had its influence on America. The Civil War was a turning point in the history of America. After the French revolution of 1848 and the American Civil war, the history of unification of Italy and Germany are considered as the most important events in the history of the modern world. Unification of Germany was achieved, however, not by popular uprisings but by the calculated exertion

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of power by Prussia under the leadership of Bismarck. The influence of the French Revolution, reforms by Napoleon Bonaparte, the revolutionary ideas of Mazzini and Garibaldi and the statesmanship of Emmanuel II and Cavour developed nationalism in Italy which resulted into unification of Italy. Thus the Western World during Mid 15th Century to 1870 was the history of rise of leaders, revolutions, liberalism and nationalism.

Harekrushna Behera

UNIT 1 THE BEGINNING OF MODERN ERA – RENAISSANCE, DECLINE OF FEUDALISM, REFORMATION AND COUNTER REFORMATION, RISE OF THE ABSOLUTE STATE – SPAIN, FRANCE AND BRITAIN

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Western world became modernised in mind and soul with the emergence of Renaissance in fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The Renaissance stood for

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humanism, the sympathetic and devoted study of mankind, instead of the theological devotion of the Middle Age. This movement could be regarded for the turning away from the medieval traditions of asceticism and theology towards an interest in man's life on this earth. The renaissance also brought medieval feudalism to a close and initiated modern age in Europe. As a result of Renaissance, new knowledge, spirit of enquirer, opposition to superstitions and interest in science, art and literature advanced among the people of Europe. This new knowledge made the emergence of Reformation Movement which confronted the Catholic superstitions and corruptions. In the sixteenth century the Roman church undertook to reform itself which is known as the Counter Reformation. This reform movement, extending into the following century, raised the moral and educational standards of the clergy. During the change from Feudalism to early Capitalism the term Absolutism was commonly applied in blend with some European rulers. But the rulers delineated as total could particularly be found in the seventeenth and eighteenth century. The Age of Absolutism was typically thought in the first place the rule of Louis XIV (1643–1715) and closes with the French Revolution (1789).

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Know the events which led to the modern age of western world
- Understand the concept of renaissance, reformation and absolutism
- Compare reformation and counter reformation
- Describe the causes of renaissance and reformation
- Examine the rise of absolute states in France, Britain and Spain

1.2 RENAISSANCE

The Renaissance commonly alludes to a period in European history roughly somewhere in the range of 1400 and 1600. Renaissance is a collective term used to include all the intellectual changes that were in evidence at the close of the Middle Ages and at the beginning of modern times. The term 'Renaissance' means rebirth or revival. The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries are known as period of Renaissance when many educated men turned from religious and philosophical speculation to the study of ancient Greek and Roman writers and challenged the religious and philosophical teachings of medieval Church. They were not satisfied with the study of the medieval translations of the famous writers of ancient Greece and took to the study of the original Greek works of Plato, Aristotle and others. They also searched the monasteries for old Latin manuscripts and translated many hitherto unknown work from Greek antiquity to Latin. In short, these writers tried to induce classical learning into the mainstream of the western thought. It may be observed that in this period there was not only revival of interest in Greek literature but also in classical architecture and sculpture. As the scholars of the Renaissance period took keen

interest in the individual, they are also known as humanists. They emphasised the worth of man and tried to project the individual as a free agent. The Renaissance spirit can be best summed up in the words of Leon Batilista Alberti, “Men can do all things if they will”.

Many historians, including U.K.-based historian and writer Robert Wilde, prefer to think of the Renaissance as primarily an intellectual and cultural movement rather than a historical period. Wilde said that interpreting the Renaissance as a time period, though convenient for historians, “masks the long roots of the Renaissance.”

1.2.1 Meaning of Renaissance

Renaissance signifies “rebirth” or “revival”. The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries are known as time of renaissance. It may be observed that the Renaissance was not merely a revival of the learning of ancient times but it was much more than that. A spirit of inquiry developed a spirit of freedom in thought and action prevailed all around. Men were no more willing to accept without question the teachings, customs and superstitions of the past. In short, people developed a critical attitude towards medieval institutions.

The Renaissance was a spirit of inquiry which opened unlimited vistas of newness in the realms of thought and action. Renaissance was a turning point in the history of western civilisation and is often described as a bridge between the medieval period and the modern times in Europe. In any case, renaissance was not just a recovery of old learning. It built up the soul of enquiry and opportunity of thought. Men were not any more consented to acknowledge any lessons, customs and odd notion of the past beyond a shadow of a doubt. It is vital that Renaissance was not begun in all places of Europe at the same time. Renaissance created with a little gathering of taught individuals in Italy and spread to France, Germany and England and so forth. Renaissance was a defining moment throughout the entire existence of western progress. It is regularly depicted as a scaffold between the medieval and the modern period in Europe.

1.2.2 Characteristics of Renaissance

- The characteristics of Renaissance were humanism, nationalism, a new approach to life, and a new spirit in art, architecture, literature and learning, the growth of the vernaculars, and scientific investigation.
- The Renaissance represented humanism, the thoughtful and gave investigation of humankind, rather than the religious dedication of the Middle Age. The Renaissance researchers were known as “comedians” and their subjects of study, came to be known as the “humanities.” Petrarch is viewed as the Father of Humanism. This development could be respected for the getting some distance from the archaic conventions of plainness and philosophy towards an interest in man’s life on this planet.

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- The ascent of the reasonable soul and of logical examination offered ascend to another way to deal with life. While the archaic methodology was one of outright similarity and submission, the new methodology depended on explanation. It laid accentuation on the significance of basic assessment and assessment of thoughts and standards.
- A few Renaissance researchers, for example, Francis Bacon and Leonardo da Vinci, were the results of this incredible development. These researchers were enlivened by the Greeks and the Romans who had driven more extravagant and more full lives than what was known in Western Europe during the past 1,000 years. These researchers assisted Europe with making monster strides in the fields of writing, workmanship and engineering, painting, music and science, during the Renaissance time frame.

1.2.3 Factors of Renaissance

There were many factors responsible for the emergence of renaissance.

1. **Downfall of Feudalism:** The above all else factor of renaissance was the decrease of feudalism. The medieval way basically vanished from western European nations by the 1500 A.D. The decline of feudalism greatly contributed to the rise of Renaissance. Feudalism began to decline by the close of the thirteenth century in France and Italy and in West European countries by 1500 AD. Due to the rise of middle class comprising of traders, businessman, the feudalism declined. These middle classes provided the kings necessary money for the maintenance of armies and thereby enabled them to reduce their dependence on the feudal lords. Further, due to the development of trade and commerce during this period, there was great increase in prices which greatly, benefited the craftsmen, merchants and cultivators. As the feudal lords could not increase their cents, they were forced to borrow to maintain themselves. As the feudal lords were notable to repay the debts, they were often obliged to sell of their lands. This gave a serious set back to feudalism and manorial life. All this paved the way for the Renaissance.
2. **Impacts of Crusades:** The crusades – the wars between the Christians and Muslims which were fought between 11th and 14th century and which ultimately resulted in the victory of the Muslims also provided an impetus to Renaissance. As a result of the crusades, the western scholars came in contact with the East which was more civilised and polished than the Christians. A number of western scholars went to the universities of Cairo, Kufa and Cardona etc. and learnt many new ideas, which they subsequently spread in Europe.
3. **Downfall in the Influence of Church:** The church dominated the medieval society. However the Church suffered a setback in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. A number of strong monarchs confronted the temporal power of the Church. For instance, in 1296

A.D. King Phillip IV of France got the pope arrested and made him a prisoner. This gave a serious blow to the power and prestige of the pope. Even Church lost faith of common people due to rise of various rituals. The people gave importance on present rather than future.

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4. **Contribution of Progressive Rulers and Nobles:** Some reformist rulers, popes and aristocrats embraced a ton of measures to support in the guiding of the Renaissance. Rulers like Francis-I of France, Henry VIII of England, Charles V of Spain, Christian II of Denmark and so forth offered support to researchers and caused the restoration of Greco-Roman works of art. Besides, popes like Nicholas-V and Leo X and so on empowered the investigation of old Greek and Roman traditional and disparaged old style workmanship, design, music and so forth To put it plainly, certain lords, popes and aristocrats disparaged abstract men, craftsmen and researchers and consequently contributed towards Renaissance.
5. **Geographical Discovery:** Geographical voyage was a potent factor of Renaissance. The invention of mariners' compass encouraged the sea emergence users. It enabled them to know the exact direction in which they were sailing. The notions about the shape and size of the world in vogue were also confronted. Later on with the discovery of telescope people were able to scan the sky and started the study of astronomy. They also got knowledge on the real position of earth in the solar system. All this knowledge went against the Church and contributed a lot in the weakening of the authority of the ecclesiastical system.
6. **Economic Prosperity:** There was remarkable progress in trade and commerce during 12th and 13th centuries. This greatly helped in the growth of wealth and prosperity of the people in Europe. So a wealthy class of traders, bankers and manufactures emerged. This class patronized artists and scholars. The class also provided security and protection to the artists and encouraged them to produce outstanding works, which helped in the emergence of renaissance.
7. **Invention of Printing Press:** The invention of printing machine was responsible for Renaissance. In 1454 printing machine printed letters and printed books. William Caxton brought this machine to England in 1477 A.D. With the march of time; printing machines were established in Italy, France, Belgium and other European countries. Thus books could be published very easily with a short span of time. People could easily get books and learnt many things. This galvanized Renaissance.
8. **Fall of Constantinople:** The fundamental driver of Renaissance was the fall of Constantinople. Since remote past, the city of Constantinople was one of the foremost centres of learning. It was a meeting ground of western and eastern cultures throughout the Middle ages, when Europe had forgotten its classical learning. The Christian scholars at Constantinople studied the ancient literature, philosophy

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and sciences of the classical Greece. In their custody were preserved the manuscripts of the olden days in great many number. Side by side, they also knew the philosophy, science and mathematics of the East, Constantinople was ruled by Christian emperors.

Under their protection, the learned Christians held the traditions of ancient learning both of the East and the West through centuries of time. They did not allow a rational knowledge to die under theological dogmas. So, when the medieval beliefs kept the whole of Europe in the darkness, of ignorance, at an extreme end of that continent, the city of Constantinople kept the light of knowledge, burning.

In 1453 AD, Muhammad II, the Sultan of Ottoman empire, invaded Constantinople. The Christian army could not defend the city and perished to the last man. The emperor Constantine – XI died. The fall of Constantinople in 1453 saw the end of the Byzantine empire. The city ceased to be a centre of Christian faith and learning. The Muslim Turks let loose a hell of fanaticism on that ancient city. Christians were massacred. Their Churches were destroyed. Ancient libraries, schools and sacred institutions were ravaged. The Christian rulers, soldiers, scholars, priests, traders and ordinary dwellers were all subjected to barbarous oppression.

After all, the fall of Constantinople was a political incident but its results were marked on the mental spheres of Medieval Europe. When the Turks fell upon the city in their fanatical fury, thousands of scholars, priests and learned Christians at once abandoned the city and fled for Europe. They also took away with them the countless volumes of precious manuscripts. Those refugees were men of real and rational learning, when they spread over Europe and especially entered into Italian cities, there was already a desire among the people of learn Greek literature and classics. Their wisdom and learning carried an appeal to all. They quickly began to draw hundreds of pupils. Their teachings paved path for the spread of the new learning in Europe. Mathematics, science, geography, philosophy and other advanced subjects began to replace the old subjects of theology and dogma. In an age when human mind was hungry for knowledge, the scholars of Constantinople supplied intellectual, food to satisfy that hunger. They met one of the greatest needs of the European society at a very appropriate hour.

1.2.4 Italy: The Birthplace of Renaissance

Renaissance first began in Italy where masterpieces of literature, architecture, sculpture, painting, music and science were first produced which became a source of perennial inspiration to others. In subsequent years, Italy took the lead in ushering Renaissance on account of number of factors.

Firstly, Italy was the seat of the glorious Romans and all the historical remains and no relics of the great Roman Empire lay scattered there which naturally, attracted the scholars and artists.

Secondly, due to the fall of Constantinople, large number of Greek scholars and thinkers migrated to Italy along with their original manuscripts and art treasures.

Thirdly, the enormous wealth which Italy had accumulated as a result of trade with the East also greatly contributed to renaissance.

Fourthly, the newly established contact of Europeans with the Asians on account of crusades and geographical explorations greatly broadened their vision and reoriented their lifestyle which provided an impetus to Renaissance.

1.2.5 Impact of Renaissance in Different Field

The Renaissance movement grew and spread creating splendid and lasting effects in the various fields of arts. Ancient masterpieces were rediscovered and new works were produced.

- **Literature:** During the medieval age, all the important writing was done in Latin, which was the language of the Church. The cultured people, generally looked down upon the European vernaculars. However in the 13th century, Dante wrote *The Divine Comedy* in Italian rather than Latin. This great Italian poet is regarded as the link between the medieval and the modern world, since his works dealt with love among humans, patriotism and love of nature. Dante's example was soon followed by others. Thus Petrarch wrote a series of love sonnets to "Laura". He roused the interest of the people in the great works of Virgil, Cicero, Livy and others. Boccaccio wrote "his racy stories in Italian", the *Decameron*. Machiavelli wrote his historical works and his *Prince* as a guide for rulers. Ariosto wrote a popular poem 'Orlando Furioso', while Tasso composed his epic *Jerusalem Delivered*.

A great contribution was made to German literature by Martin Luther. He offered a translation of the Bible. Spanish literature flourished with the works of several genius minds such as Cervantes who is known by his immortal *Don Quixote* which made fun of medieval feudalism and decadent chivalry. Lope de Vega composed about 1800 dramas, while Calderon wrote an allegorical poem.

Portuguese literature reached its height in the *Lusiads* of Camoens, a patriotic epic dealing with the wonderful voyages and exploits of Vasco da Gama.

In the 16th century, French literature was enriched by "Gargantua" a series of daring, fanciful and humorous tales written by Francis Rabelais. The 17th century witnessed the golden age of French literature, which was enriched by the works of Corneille, Racine, Moliere, Madame de Sevigne and La Fontaine.

Desiderius Erasmus was the greatest Renaissance scholar in Holland whose work *Praise of Folly* blamed the church of being responsible for ignorance.

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In England Sir Thomas More's *Utopia* appeared in English in 1551. English literature flowered through Geoffrey Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, Milton's *Paradise Lost*, Cranmer's *Book of Common Prayers*, Edmund Spenser's graceful *Faerie Queen*, the plays of Ben Johnson and Christopher Marlowe, the essays of Francis Bacon, and the dramas of the immortal Shakespeare.

- **Architecture:** The spirit of revival was evident in the field of art too. Renaissance architecture underwent a change under architects like Alberti, Manetti, Brunelleschi Bramante and Michael Angelo. Some of the distinctive features of Renaissance architecture were round Roman arches, rows of Greek columns, Oriental domes and Islamic decoration. Gothic architecture with its pointed arches and flying buttresses was discarded. The Doric, Ionic and Corinthian styles of ancient Greece were revived. The lofty, rearing Gothic was replaced by the plain line of the Greek temple or the gentle, elegant curve of the Roman dome. The great cities of Europe were adorned with great churches and cathedrals like St. Paul's at London, St. Peter's at Rome, and St. Mark's at Venice, fine palaces such as the Medici and the Farnese Palaces, as well as beautiful villas like that of Pope Julius III.

The highest expression of Renaissance architecture was reached under the direction of great architects like Raphael and Michelangelo by designing the vast basilica of St. Peter, in Rome and also under Leonardo Da Vinci through his beautifully designed buildings at Milan, Pavia and other cities.

In France, kings like Francis I admired the classical style in building, resulting in public structures such as the celebrated palace of the Louvre which now houses one of the world's largest art collections.

In Spain classical architecture received encouragement after 1550, from King Philip II, while in England, the famous architect Inigo Jones designed the classical banquet house in Whitehall in 1619. Sir Christopher Wren later erected the majestic St. Paul's cathedral in London, thus making the new architecture popular.

- **Sculpture:** Humanism was reflected in Italian sculpture in the 14th century. The Medici of Florence fostered a special interest in classical models and also promoted the scientific study of sculpture. Lorenzo Ghiberti was the first great apostle of the "New sculpture" in the 15th century. His marvellous bronze doors on the baptistery in Florence were regarded as "worthy of being placed at the entrance of paradise". Donatello created the lifelike statue of 'St. Mark' in Venice, among his other achievements, while Cellini fashioned the statue of 'Perseus and the slain Medusa'. Della Robbia was famous for his classical purity and simplicity of style. He founded a school of sculptors in glazed terra-cotta. Michelangelo, great sculptor, painter and architect had many achievements to his credit, among which his statue of 'David' at Florence, is a masterpiece of classical dignity.

During the 16th century, the “new sculpture” spread in Western Europe, as Italian sculptors were invited by Henry VII to England, as well as by Francis I to France. The tomb of Ferdinand and Isabella in Spain was carved on classical lines.

- **Painting:** The adjustment in artistic creation was much more striking than in figure. Prior to the sixteenth century, the majority of the artistic creations were frescoes that are pictures made straightforwardly on mortar dividers, or on wooden boards. Anyway in the sixteenth century, easel painting, segregated pictures on material, wood or different materials progressed, while the craft of oil painting was dominated. Painting couldn't be enlivened by traditional agnostic models, which had died.

Consequently it was more unique, and completely Christian. Four of the world's most noteworthy painters specifically Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Raphael and Titian thrived in Italy during the sixteenth century.

Leonardo da Vinci, was a logical painter who deliberately contemplated the human body and the issues of point of view and dominated the estimations of light, shade and shading. Among his notable works is the “Mona Lisa” presently in the Louver at Paris, and “The Last Supper” a fresco in Milan. Leonardo was in reality an adaptable virtuoso. Doing the work of a specialist, he developed a waterway in north Italy just as fortresses around Milan. He was likewise a performer, scholar, author and a shrewd skilled workers, who could be considered as the ideal of the Renaissance Age. He can be considered to have been the “finished” man, keen on all parts of culture.

Michelangelo was a painter of the principal rank whose roof frescoes in the Sistine sanctuary of the Vatican are well known wonders. His most phenomenal artistic creation is his stupendous fresco of ‘The Last Judgment’ in a similar house of prayer. He was likewise an inimitable stone worker, an incredible designer, a prominent specialist and a beguiling artist.

Sanzio Raphael got undying through his “heavenly” representations. In this way his Sistine ‘Madonna’ is viewed as a milestone in picture painting, inferable from its exact appeal and excellence of sythesis.

The central delegate of the Venetian school of painting, was Tiziano Vecelli, likewise known Titian, the authority painter for the city of Venice. The photos of this school were popular for brilliant mosaic shading designs. Different craftsmen having a place with this school were the Bellinis, Mantegna, Giorgione and Tintoretto who got celebrated for their mainstream splendid shaded representations and scenes.

The “new work of art” before long spread from Italy to turn into the legacy of all Western Europe. Francis I took Italian painters to France

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where they prepared French painters. Philip II empowered composition in Spain where Velasquez, Rubens, Van Dyck and Murillo separated themselves. Holbein and Durer painted grandly in Germany. Anyway Durer developed more acclaimed as an etcher and wood carver, whose most prominent etchings were “The Knight and Death” and “St. Jerome in His Study”.

- **Music:** The golden age of Renaissance music began in the 16th century, when the crude musical instruments of the Middle Age took on modern forms and sweeter tones. The harsh rebeck was replaced by the violin, which rose in prominence, while the harpsichord foretold the piano. The Roman school of music produced the master composer Palestrina who is rightly called the “father of modern church music”. His style was officially recognized by the Council of Trent (1545-63) other great musicians were Josquin Des Prez, Adrian Willaert and Giovanni Gabrieli of Venice.

In England some of the great composers were William Byrd, Thomas Morley and John Wilbye, while in Germany Orlandus de Lassus created several compositions.

- **Science:** The spirits of inquiry made by the Renaissance development prompted extraordinary advancement in science. Researchers, for example, Peter Abelard, Albertus Magus, Thomas Aquinas and Roger Bacon during the middle age itself put together their contentions with respect to reason. In the thirteenth century, Roger Bacon established the frameworks of present day science, by demanding the exploratory technique, and found the employments of black powder and the amplifying focal point.

Nicholas Copernicus of Poland upset the possibility of humankind by demonstrating that the earth moves round the sun. Subsequently his investigation of development of sublime bodies demonstrated that the hypothesis of Ptolemy, the Greek stargazer of Egypt was mistaken, for Ptolemy had expressed that the earth is the middle round which the sun and different bodies move. The Copernican hypothesis was maintained by the Italian cosmologist Galileo, and the German space expert John Kepler.

John Kepler developed the Copernican hypothesis by indicating that the planets go round the Sun in a circular circle, as opposed to in a circle as insisted by Copernicus at first.

Galileo promoted the Copernican hypothesis, for which he was rebuffed by the congregation. In any case, he made significant advances in material science through tests and perceptions. By tossing loads from the inclining pinnacle of Pisa, he found that the speed of a falling body relies on the distance it falls, instead of upon its weight. A swinging light in the church of Pisa assisted him with finding the laws of the Pendulum. He additionally culminated the telescope and concocted a thermometer.

Sir Isaac Newton found the laws of attractive energy, administering the developments of the planets round the sun, as likewise that of the moon round the earth.

The time of Renaissance additionally saw a few creations and disclosures, for example, that of the print machine which was vital. The development of the print machine with mobile sorts during the fifteenth century extraordinarily helped the dissemination of information. The revelation of the employments of black powder stopped feudalism by giving the Kings of Europe an instrument for annihilating the baronial palaces and for bringing the manorial rulers under their influence. The creation of the sailor's compass helped in the advancement of unfamiliar exchange. Hence the establishments of present day science were immovably laid in the age of the Renaissance.

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1.2.6 Consequences of the Renaissance

The Renaissance led to significant results.

- It brought about a transition from the medieval to the modern age. This period witnessed the end of the old and reactionary medieval spirit, and the beginning of the new spirit of science, reason and experimentation.
- The hands of the monarchy were strengthened. People in Europe were tired of feudal anarchy. They looked up to the monarchy to ensure peace and order, political stability and economic prosperity.
- The culture of the Christian people was enriched. However, the Renaissance weakened the church, which could not occupy the position of unquestioned authority, it had possessed during the medieval period.
- The Renaissance gave a great impetus to art, architecture, learning and literature which reached tremendous heights. It also created a reverence for antiquity and a great respect for the ancient Greek and Roman classics.
- Further, the Renaissance led to the creation of humanism, and gave a stimulus to the growth of vernacular literature. As a result, the Italian, French, German, Spanish and English languages blossomed at that time.
- The Protestant Reformation movement was also strengthened by the Renaissance. It resulted in far-reaching scientific inventions and geographical discoveries. The study of history was made more critical and scientific owing to the development of a more critical spirit demanding accuracy and the discovery of many historical manuscripts.

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Check Your Progress

1. Mention the period of renaissance.
2. What does Renaissance signify?
3. What were the characteristics of renaissance?

1.3 DECLINE OF FEUDALISM

The feudalism was a characteristic feature of European society during the Middle Ages and was widespread during the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The term feudalism has been derived from the word 'feud' which means fief. Fief was kind of remuneration or fee, which the landlord granted to the vassal or dependent in return for the service, the vassal rendered to him. In other words, feudalism is applied to a mode of socio-political organisation, which arose in medieval Europe usually through the medium of land tenure. It can be defined as a decentralised structure of society in which authority of the government lies with the feudal lords.

1.3.1 Origin

After the fall of the Roman Empire, anarchy and disorder prevailed in Western Europe. Besides, there was constant danger of invasion by the outsiders. Their life, liberty and property became insecure. For safety, they needed the protection of someone who had a number of fighting men under him and who had a castle to shelter them. So, those having a lot of lands made bargains with rich nobles. They gave their lands to the lords and received back only the use of them plus protection. Those who had no much land to bargain, they gave up their freedom and became farm labourers. Thus, there grew up relationship between the strong and the weak or between the lord and the vassal.

On the other hand, the Roman administrative system itself was responsible for the rise of feudalism. The Roman emperors had divided their vast empire into provinces, which were under the control of the nobles. After the decline of the empire, they become independent rulers. Later on, they become the feudal landlords. After the death of Charlemagne, the empire disintegrated and his followers became the rulers of different provinces.

In the opinion of Beach, "When Europe was drowning in the sea of anarchy and confusion; feudalism came into existence as a political organisation". Another aspect was that the various foreign invasions contributed much to the rise of feudalism. Because the weak rulers in order to defend their kingdom took the help of army commanders. In lieu of their services, the army commanders were allotted lands and they were later respected as feudal lords.

1.3.2 Growth

In the first place, feudalism held that God had given the country to the king who was its lord. The king could give this land to nobles called vassals. These

nobles were lords of their territory or fief and could handover a part of their fiefs to lesser lords and have vassals of their own. The feudal lord enjoyed absolute power over his land and could tax inhabitants residing on that land. Likewise, the sub-vassals enjoyed similar power over inhabitants living on territory under their control and acted as little king over them. The lords as well as vassals had certain rights and duties. The lord was obliged to protect the life and property of his subjects, to ensure him justice in feudal court, to treat the wife and children of his vassal well and lastly to take his vassal's consent if a castle had to be built on his fief.

The vassals were required to pay homage to their feudal lords and remain faithful to them. Their duties were as follows:

1. To pay feudal dues to the lords.
2. He promised to render military assistance to the lords in times of emergency.
3. To pay land tax and other taxes to the lords.
4. In case, the lord was captured by the enemies, he agreed to pay ransom to the enemies to set him free.
5. To pay gifts and money to the lords at the time of the succession of the lords and the marriages celebrated in the lord's family.
6. When a vassal inherited some property, he paid some lumps to his chief as a token of his gratitude.
7. When a minor succeeded a vassal, the lord was to be accepted as his guardian.
8. If the vassal failed to discharge his obligations, the lords had the right to confiscate his property.
9. Every vassal was obliged to offer hospitality to the lord whenever he passed through the vassal's territory.

1.3.3 Homage and Investiture

The feudal relationship started with two ceremonies known as the Homage and the Investiture. In the first, a man knelt down before his lord with both his palms folded and stretched forward. The lord then clasped the hands of the vassal who now promised to obey the lord and serve him according to the contract. It was called oath of fidelity. As a symbolic gesture, the lord placed in the hands of his subjects a little earth or some leaves or a flag and that work was called Investiture.

Every lord could hold courts for his tenants and the vassal was duty bound to assist the lord in his court. He was also expected to bring all his disputes before the lord's court. The feudal lords considered themselves as superior than the rest of the community. They lived a luxurious life and found finances through taxation, extortions and robbery. Most of the common people worked as serfs and tilled the lands of the lords. They had to pay a major portion of the products of their industry to the lords.

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1.3.4 Characteristics

The feudalism was hierarchical with king at the top and the peasants at the bottom. In between these stood the Dukes, Barons and Knights. All land belonged to the king who was the supreme lord. The king shared it with the lords who become his vassals and were absolute master of their fiefs. These lords who were known as dukes and earls further shared their land with lesser lords called barons or sub-tenants who further divided it if it suited their interests. The lowest categories of the feudal lords were the Knights who had no vassals of their own. At the bottom of the hierarchy were the serfs or the land slaves who did not own any land but were tied to the land till they tilled. This division of land was known as sub-infeudation. Thus, the feudalism was pyramidal in nature with the serfs at the bottom and the king at the top forming the apex of the hierarchical structure. Land provided the essential link among men at different levels.

- **The Feudal Lords:** In the absence of a strong Central government, the lords were all powerful. They administered justice through the manorial court, imposed taxes with their fiefs and maintained a garrison of soldiers. There was no uniform or recognised law except the law of the Church. Customs and traditions were used as a reference point in all secular matters. Society was essentially rigid in nature and men were bound to the class in which they were born.
- **Knights:** Feudalism gave rise to a class of brave individuals known as the Knights. The Knights agreed to solve one powerful noble or the other and received from him a small estate. As every knight had to take up the profession of fighting on horseback, he required training from a young age. On reaching manhood, a squire might become a knight. Only the sons of richer nobles were admitted to this degree. Before receiving knighthood, the young man had to go through a ceremony of initiation. At that time, he put on a dress of three colours – Red, White and Black.

The red stood for the blood, he was to shed for the oppressed and the Church. The white signified that he was pure and clean. The black would remind him of death. When everything was over, he knelt before the lord who gave him what was called “*accolade*” means a stroke on the shoulder and declared him to have been dubbed a knight. However, no body was a born knight. One had to acquire the courage and the quality of a knight in order to become a knight. A Knight was not only to be a brave fighter but also to be an ideal person. Kindness to the weak, respect to women, charity to the poor, help to the needy and gentleness towards friends and duty towards all become qualities of a Knight.

- **Manorial System:** The lords lived on manors (vast estate including the lord’s castle, the dwelling houses of the subjects, cultivable lands, Church, etc.) The peasants worked on farms for them. It was the

peasants who stood at the bottom of the ladder in the feudal society. The peasants were divided into freeholders, villains and serfs.

The freeholders received land from the lord, they paid the tax to the lord and managed the land as their own.

The villains were the peasants who received the land from the lord on the condition of paying a part of the produce of the land and would work on lord's field for a fixed number of days.

The serfs formed the lowest category. They received land for their use on the condition that they would pay a part of the produce of the land to their lord and would also work on lord's land. Besides, cultivating the lord's land, they had to perform any other duty that the lords assigned them. The main duties of serfs were as follows:

1. The serfs paid his share of manor land either in cash or in kind.
2. During harvest season, he had to work overtime.
3. They had to pay surplus taxes imposed by their lords.
4. They had to pay 1/10th of their income to the Church.
5. They had to work as bonded labourers in building bridges, roads, etc.
6. He was required to do manual work on the land of the lord.

The serfs had no freedom. They had only hard works to do as their duty to the lords. The lords exercised their governmental power over the peasants. In the centre of the manor, the lord had his manor house or castle often on a high hill surrounded by a wide ditch or moat. Over the moat, there was a bridge which could be drawn up in times of danger. The castle was used for giving protection to people. Inside the castle, the lord had his dwelling house and the Court. Each lord had several forts or castles.

The lord had officers called bailiffs and Stewards to supervise the works of the manors. The manor was a self-contained little economic world in itself. It supplied everything that its people needed. The most important feature of the whole system was that it created a wide gulf between lords and the serfs.

1.3.5 Merits of Feudalism

- The feudalism helped in maintaining law and order on the one hand and providing security of life and property on the other. At a time when people were not ripe for a centralised empire, it provided law and order. It even provided social and economic security to the lowest sections of society.
- It contributed to the developments of virtues like loyalty, bravery, generosity, humility and courtesy. Relations between lord and vassal rested on high regard for truth and promised word.
- The vassals showed every possible courtesy to the lords and served them with loyalty and humility. On their part, the lords showed love and generosity towards vassals.

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- Feudalism set social and moral trends. The feudal lords showed to the rest of the world how to wear clothes, how to eat, and numerous other things. These customs bred veneration for women and they were extended every possible respect. As a result, women came to occupy high place in their families.
- Feudalism rested on the principle that government was a contract which enjoined upon the lord and his vassal certain rights and duties. It also asserted that the king was bound by feudal laws. This principle proved greatly helpful to the middle classes in latter period in checking royal absolutism.
- Feudalism paved the way for the emergence of states in modern times. In course of time, some feudal lords managed to get upper hand of their rivals and expanded their domain. They began to enforce stricter obedience on their vassals as well as people within their territory. Thus, strong kingdoms and principalities were established.
- The feudal society acted as a mutual insurance society during danger. The feudal lords protected their lands and the country from the invasions of barbaric and uncivilised invaders.
- Feudalism served as a check for the growth of tyranny of one man. The king could not govern without the consent of his lords. Each feudal lord tried to excel others in war methods. The result was that war methods reached considerable perfection.

1.3.6 Demerits of Feudalism

- Feudalism flourished throughout Europe during the medieval period. But with the passage of time, the system too degenerated. Though it served the needs of time, it suffered from serious shortcomings. It hampered the growth of a strong Central government. Some of the feudal lords grew so powerful that they hardly bothered about the king. They maintained their own armies and minted their own money.
- Feudalism perpetuated class distinction because the fiefs were not granted on the basis of merit but on hereditary basis.
- Feudalism led to frequent wars. These wars took place between the king and the rebellious tenants as well as between the lords themselves. As a result of these wars, the common people and peasants suffered a great deal. Often, their crops were destroyed, their houses burnt and castle slaughtered. These wars continued to be a regular feature till powerful kings emerged.
- Feudalism neglected the growth of education, literature, fine arts and other activities. The only one reason was that the greatest premium was given to the fighting spirit of the Knights.
- Under feudalism, society was sharply divided between the rich and the poor. On the one hand were the feudal lords whereas on the other were the serfs and the peasants. The lords exploited the serfs for their selfish gains and led a life of pomp and show. The luxurious life of the

feudal lords and the miserable condition of the common people created revolutionary feelings among the people against the feudalism.

- Due to feudalism, the society was divided into different classes of people like high and low, rich and poor, exploiters and exploited etc. which came into conflict with one another.
- Feudalism created rivalry between the king and the Pope. Like the feudal lords, the Church also confronted the supremacy of the king. The conflict between the two resulted in many battles and the feudalism became responsible for the conflicts between the kings and the Church. It was an age of ignorance and superstition. In fact, it was a dark age in the medieval period.

1.3.7 Reasons for Decline

The feudalism which flourished between eleventh and thirteenth centuries began to decline towards the close of the thirteenth century in France and Italy. However, in other parts of Europe, it continued to thrive for some time and ultimately disappeared only by 1500 AD.

The main factors which contributed to the decline of feudalism were as follows:

- Feudalism contained in itself the seeds of its destruction. In the course of time when the feudal lords began to assert themselves too much, the kings who headed the feudal hierarchy, thought of bringing them under control. In this task, they received full support from the newly emerged middle classes and freemen who were not under the control of the lords. The middle classes consisting of traders and businessmen provided the king with money with which they began to maintain independent armies.
- The discovery of gunpowder and weapons like cannons also greatly helped the kings to reduce the lords to subjection and reduced their dependence on them.
- The liberation of the serfs due to enormous growth in trade and commerce also greatly contributed to the decline of feudalism. With the growth of trade and commerce, a number of new cities and towns grew which provided new opportunities for work. The serfs got an opportunity to free themselves of the feudal lords by taking up work in the new towns.
- The crusades or the Holy wars also greatly contributed to the decline of the feudalism. As a result of these wars, the Europeans learnt the use of gunpowder from the Muslims. The discovery of gunpowder greatly undermined the importance of the feudal castles. As a result, it was no more possible for the feudal lords to take shelter in these castles and defy the authority of the king.
- The crusades also contributed to the decline of feudalism in another way. During the crusade, a large number of feudal lords lost their lives

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which gave a series set back to the feudalism. Some of the feudal lords who returned alive from the crusades were forced to sell charter of liberties to towns which they once controlled. As a result, a large number of serfs attained freedom.

- The crusades contributed to the decline of feudalism in another way too. They opened up trade between Europe and cities of Constantinople and Alexandria. As a result, commerce and industry in Europe received a fillip and a number of important cities advanced. The merchants and artisans residing in these cities wished to free themselves from the control of feudal over lords. Therefore, they either purchased freedom or obtained it by force.
- The scarcity of labour force in Europe as a result of “Black Death” enhanced the bargaining powers of the serfs and rendered feudalism weak.
- Gradually, strong national government began to emerge with the result that the people began to be protected. They now did not feel the necessity of having feudal lords.
- The introduction of the printing press with the consequent spread of education created distaste for military service and brought feudalism almost to a close.
- The renaissance and reformation movement brought feudalism to a close and initiated modern age in Europe. With these defects, feudalism continued to exist long after its useful purpose was over. A time came at last when the discontent against the feudal order burst into open revolutions.

1.3.8 Conclusion

One of the important developments of the middle ages in Europe was the emergence of feudalism. It was an obvious consequence of troubled and uncertain times and its growth and development was facilitated by the constant pressure of warfare and by the absence of a strong Central government. It is the manorial system in which landlords exercise over the unfree peasantry a variety of powers. It had its origin in the Dark Age, but it took a definite shape during the middle ages. It had a socio-economic base as well as political frame. History of medieval Europe is incomplete without a reference to feudalism. It first appeared in France. It is also in that country that it saw its perfection. In due course, it appeared in other countries of Europe. As a system, it differed from country to country in many respects. But at the same time, some of its basic characteristic remained more or less similar everywhere. It had its birth in France and it also heard its death knell in that very country at the time of the French revolution.

Check Your Progress

4. Define the term feudalism.
5. What was feudalism?

1.4 REFORMATION AND COUNTER REFORMATION

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Since the beginning of the modern era, some revolutionary changes occurred in the life of the people of Europe and Renaissance brought about a revolution in their religious life. So far, people were controlled by religion. The Pope of Rome was the head of the Roman Catholics and Cardinals, Archbishops, Bishops and Priests, all were his subordinates. The organisation of Church was quite strong. People of Europe accepted the words of the priest like speechless animals. No one had the power and courage to act contrary to the will of religious authorities because they considered them to be the representatives of God and their orders, the command of God.

But with the commencement of modern era, the situation began to change. The spirit of enquirer advanced among the people due to the result of Renaissance. Various books were translated in the Vernacular literature, the study of which not only devolutionist their mental attitudes but also freed them from mental bondage to the priests. The translation of Bible injected a new vigour into the people and the superstitions about Church began to collapse. The people also began to oppose the luxurious and licentious life of the priests. Hence, the Reformation Movement broke out. This movement is the name of the opposition which continued in Europe since the fifteenth century, the chief aim of which was to mitigate the influence of the Pope, to establish the national Church and to provide independent religious thinking to the people. H.A.L. Fisher, a prominent historian writes about it, “The name ‘Reformation’ is generally given to that religious revolution of the 16th century which culminated in the separation of many nations of Europe from the Church of Rome.”

1.4.1 Meaning of Reformation

Cheville throwing light on the meaning of this movement writes, “It was, in fact, a dual movement having for its objects the renovation of the moral life of Christendom and the repudiation of the Papal claims to ecclesiastical supremacy.”

A.J. Grant also writes in this connection that as a result of this movement the rebirth of the religious life of people took place in Europe and it got a political shape due to opposition to the rights of the Pope.

Some historians opine that in the beginning of the 16th century a large number of Christians became the opponents of the Roman Catholic Church due to rise of the spirit of enquirer. They wanted to reform the institution of Church completely. This effort for reformation led to the outbreak of Reformation movement and some new sects emerged in the Christian religion; all these taken together are called the Reformation Movement.

During the Medieval period, the power of the Church was unlimited and it went on acting irrationally under the intoxication of power. The Pope was conservative and evils and superstitions prevailed among the followers of the Roman Catholic Church. The continued evil practices and atrocities of the

religious authorities forced the people to oppose the church. Their protests against these evils also came to be known as Protestant Reformation Movement.

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1.4.2 Causes of the Reformation Movement

The following causes contributed to the upsurge of Reformation Movement:

1. **Corrupt Life of Pope and his Subordinates:** Earlier, the life of the Pope and the priests was quite simple and they devoted themselves to the religious contemplation. The Roman Catholic religion spread through the entire Europe but by the end of the 15th century and the first half of the sixteenth century, the life of the priests became quite corrupt. They did not possess any moral quality in them. The excess of money which they possessed had made their life luxurious. Now, they devoted most of their time to comforts and luxuries instead of religious contemplation. The Pope besides being a religious head was also the ruler of Rome. He involved himself in political matters. It affected the people otherwise.

The Pope and his subordinates considered themselves the representatives of God and hence they held themselves responsible only to God. The main duty of the Pope was to safeguard the Christendom and he was increasing his power day by day in order to perform his duty properly. He used to maintain a vast army in order to punish his opponents. His spies wandered here and there who used to keep an eye on the activities of the people and the kings. In case, any Christian ruler acted contrary to canons of Christianity, he was at once excommunicated. The Pope also had the power to dethrone a ruler.

The Pope incorporated some new rules in Roman Catholic religious books for his own benefit and led a sensual life. All Popes, Alexander VI (1492-1503), Julius II (1503-1513) and Leo X (1513-1521) failed to bring about any reform in the contemporary system. On the other hand, the Pope Leo X created some new problems on the issue of repair of the Church of St. Peter at Rome. He resorted to some foul and objectionable methods for the collection of money. He created some new posts in the Church and sold them at high premiums. The contemporary scholars like Erasmus and John Wyclif condemned and criticised the unfair practices prevalent in the Church and persons like Martin Luther raised their voice against the foul practices of the Church. A Professor of History writes that the opposition of Martin Luther proved fatal for the rights of Pope in Germany. It was a protest against the autocratic views of the religious authorities, wastage of money by Pope and their immoral acts.

2. **Renaissance:** In the beginning of the modern era, as a result of Renaissance, new knowledge, spirit of enquirer, opposition to superstitions and interest in science, art and literature advanced among the people of Europe. Various authors and scholars wrote and condemned the Church for the evils it represented. Besides 'In Praise

of Folly’, Broughton also wrote ‘Letters of An Obscure Man’. He criticised Church and demanded reforms in the ecclesiastical system. Martin Luther’s translation of Bible invoked a new spirit among the people. The new knowledge advanced among the people of Europe, which made the emergence of Reformation inevitable. A prominent historian writes, “Their writings did much to rouse contempt for the ignorance of the monks and the worldliness of the clergy. Popular respect for the Catholic Church was thus undermined.”

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3. **Blind Faith in Religion Perished:** Like other religions of Europe and other countries in the beginning, a Roman Catholic religion was simple and sacred. There were no evils in it. But various evils and foul practices had come to be associated with the Church in the Medieval Age. The clergy began to lead a life of sensual pleasures; hence it had become necessary that some new traditions should be established in place of the old ones. In fact, all the good and pious principles gradually turned into evil and needed reforms sooner or later. The same principle is applicable in the case of Christianity. The comfortable and luxurious life of the Pope and his subordinates had hurt the religious feelings of the people. Pope’s selling of posts and his accumulation of wealth through unfair and foul means forced the people to raise their voices against all these evils. Even the powerful monarchs were afraid of the power of the Pope but they were quite fed up with the ways of the Pope; hence they supported the opposition of Church by the people. The Renaissance which was the result of expansion of education, made the blind faith vanish into thin air and ultimately the Reformation Movement was ushered in Europe.
4. **Rise of Nationalism:** The Pope was considered to be the representative of God on earth in the Christian world. The other religious authorities such as Cardinals, Archbishops and priests also considered themselves to be belonging to the same category. Moreover, they considered themselves responsible only to God and none else. Hence, as a result of the Renaissance, the spirit of nationalism emerged and all the people began to wish that they should remain faithful to the nation. So, it was natural that they did not like the interference of the clergy in the political sphere. Besides this, they considered that the corrupt life and religious conservatism was the greatest hurdle in their spiritual development. Butcher writes about it, “They decided to free themselves from the vexatious Papal interference both in the religious as well as in the political field.”
5. **Economic Reasons:** The Roman Catholic Church had amassed huge wealth by the end of the 15th century because every Christian used to pay one-tenth of his income to the Church in the form of Tithes. Besides, the priests used to get enough money for the performance of religious rites, and as offerings and gifts. The Pope and the priests also imposed some taxes on the general masses for their own selfish ends. Appointments on clerical posts were made on the basis of bargaining

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and the highest bidder was given the post. Too much wealth had created a lot of corruption among the clergy. Comparatively, the people and rulers of the Modern era needed more wealth than those of the medieval age. Hence, they began to criticise and condemn the authorities of the Church. They wished that the accumulated wealth in the Churches should be spent for the good of the general masses but the clerics were altogether against it and they did not discharge their religious duties properly. Hence, the Reformation Movement spread in Europe.

- 6. Political Causes:** Although Reformation began as a religious movement, it had political and literary significance. The Roman Catholic Church was very well organised and nobody had the power to disobey the command of the Pope. Hence, Western Europe was united from the religious point of view. The Pope had the right to impose taxes on the people. The Tithe and Repentance Tax were the popular taxes which the Pope used to impose on his followers. These taxes were released by the rulers and deposited in the treasury of the Pope.

Since the beginning of the 16th century, besides religious power, the political power of the Pope had also increased. Actually, by this time the Church had become a state within the state. The officers of the Church had vast fiefs which were exempt from revenue. The Church had its own courts where the religious issues were settled. The Pope and the clerics were free from the control of the monarchs. With the beginning of the 16th century, powerful monarchies had emerged which helped the rise of nationalism in Europe. People began to think that the Church was an impediment to the rise of nationalism because the Pope had control over all the Churches of the country. All Archbishops and Bishops were his followers. They did not care for their king. The powerful rulers wanted to establish their sway over the Church. They wished to end the interference of the Pope in the affairs of the state. They also wanted to stop the payment to the Pope and to capture the wealth of the Pope so that their economic resources might increase. For this, they had the full support and cooperation of the patriots of the country. In 1378, the Papal Authority was divided into two parts—one Pope used to live in Rome but the other lived in Avignon. Both used to condemn each other. It hurt the prestige of the Pope and his honour decreased. The mutual feud of the Popes encouraged the powerful monarchs to violate the orders of the Pope. Thus, the Reformation in Germany flourished easily.

- 7. Immediate Cause:** The Pope had enhanced his expenditure too much, for which he wanted to increase the sources of his income. He resorted to the sale of letters of indulgence. The practice of repentance was prevalent in Church since long but the person concerned was not required to pay anything for it. But now through the sale of indulgence, the Pope assured the people of salvation. It shattered the faith of

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Christians and they began to oppose the acts of the Pope. Martin Luther led this opposition. He was born in a poor family. His father was a miner but he educated his son properly well and he was appointed Professor of Theology in the University of Brandenburg. Martin Luther began to educate people that no person could get rid of his sins by way of purchasing the indulgence. Wealth was not the way to attain salvation. It was necessary for a man that he should repent for his previous sins, promise not to commit any more sins, resort to the service of humanity, exercise renunciation and penance, only then he would be able to attain salvation. Martin Luther's opposition had the desired effect and it affected the sale of indulgence letters otherwise. The Pope felt very much annoyed with Martin Luther and wanted to punish him but Luther enjoyed a lot of public support, hence the Pope had to give up his idea of punishing him.

To sum up, it may quote that the sale of indulgence was the immediate cause of reformation. Martin Luther condemned this practice in his ninety-five principles and thus began a movement against the sin. However, the political, economic and religious reasons also cannot be rejected.

1.4.3 Martin Luther and Reformation Movement in Germany



Martin Luther
credit-wikipedia

Since the fourteenth century, people began to oppose the rights of the Pope. First of all, John Wycliffe, an English priest forth putting the shortcomings of the Church before the people. Later on, being inspired by the preaching of Wycliffe, John Hasse of Bohemia preached the principles of John Wycliffe in Prague University. But these opponents of Pope failed to achieve enough success as the circumstances were against them; however, their preaching changed the outlook of the people to some extent. Soon the current

of reforms swept through Germany, which was led by Martin Luther. Although his predecessors could not succeed in their mission of reforming the religion, he succeeded in his aim and the Protestant religion was established in Europe. His thoughts later on came to be known as Lutheranism.

Why Lutheranism Emerged in Germany

Reformation was a small event in the beginning but soon the social and political conditions of Germany became very intricate due to the international relations of the big countries of Europe. Luther attained success in this conflict and he was helped in his mission by conspiracies, politics, jealousies, diplomacy and internal and external wars which occurred in the ensuing century. Charles V, the ruler of Spain, was elected the Emperor of Holy Roman Empire also in 1519. Neither was he a great emperor nor an efficient diplomat and commander. He was a staunch opponent of Protestantism. No doubt, he was an emperor of a large territory but his empire was divided into various

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small states. There were seventeen states in Netherlands only and each of them had its separate constitution. It was his greatest problem to unite all of them into a single unit. He wanted to establish peace and unity even during the Reformation Movement. The patriots of Germany also had the same feelings. The Emperor expected that soon the movement of Martin Luther would come to an end. He also hoped to crush the Reformation through conference but he could not succeed.

The political condition of Germany was quite favourable for such movement. The position of the Emperor was not very strong in Germany. In fact, it was not an empire. It was merely confederation of various small states which had no against any country without the approval of powerful German states, which was a very difficult task. Besides, the discontent was increasing against the Pope in Germany. Thus, the Germans Realized that Luther had directed them to the right path. The reformation received a great impetus on all these small states. Heville writes that Germany was only an empire by name. In fact, it was a confederation of various small states which did not have any indifference from the Pope.

In the beginning, the Emperor Charles V paid no heed to the crushing of the reformation movement. Hence, the feeling of reformation was strengthened and the influence of the Roman Catholic religion declined in Germany and the nearby regions. Humanism flourished too much in Germany and its leader hurt Catholicism to a great extent.

The rise of Martin Luther injected new life into the rise of Reformation. He not only opposed the corruption prevalent in the Church but also roused the reformative zeal among the people. His speeches and writings awoke the people from slumber and they decided to cast away the yoke of dogmas and superstitions in order to develop the Christianity.

Early Career of Martin Luther

Martin Luther was born in AD 1483 in a small village in Saxony in a family of a farmer. After completing his elementary and intermediate education, he got education of Law and Theology in the University of Erfurt. In AD 1505, he became a monk of Augustan Sect but in 1508 he was appointed Professor of Theology and Philosophy in Brandenburg University. While going through Theology, he deeply studied Bible and Realized that various practices prevalent in Church went against religion. For resolving his doubts, he made a journey to Rome but he was sad to see various evils of the Church there, and proclaimed 'nearer the Rome worst the Christianity'.

However, so far he did not oppose Catholicism and continued to be a popular and successful teacher of theology. In 1517, a most significant event took place which forced Martin Luther to raise a standard of revolt against Roman Catholicism. At this time, the agents of Pope were selling letters of indulgence for renovation of the Church of St. Peter in Rome. Tetzl, one of the representatives of the Pope also came to Germany. He preached openly that it was the way to get pardon of God by paying money. The theory was that the higher the sin, the greater the money. Martin Luther failed to digest all this that

was going on in the Church. He raised his voice against the corruption rampant in the Church. Thus, the protest against the authority of the Pope emerged and Protestantism came into being and their religion was called Protestant.

Germans supported Luther and welcomed his views. But some Catholics being the followers of the Pope considered him as their enemy and tried to put hurdles in his way. The Pope of Rome became very much annoyed with him and declared him an enemy of Catholicism. Luther became so much angry with this declaration that he burnt the order of the Pope in public in the market of Brandenburg and declared revolution against the Pope. Pope wanted to punish Martin Luther and Emperor Charles V tried to lead Luther astray from the path of reforms, but he refused saying, "Here I stand, I cannot do otherwise, God help me." Charles V declared Martin Luther an atheist and removed the safety measures of empire from him. Luther escaped to Saxony where Frederick gave him shelter. It annoyed Charles V all the more but he could not take any action against Martin Luther, being entangled in various political problems. Soon the Reformation Movement started by Martin Luther took a national form.

Spread of Lutheranism

In the beginning, Martin Luther had only opposed the sale of indulgences but immediately the opposition took a fierce turn. Martin Luther confronted the Pope by accusations and in 1520 Pope Leo X excommunicated him. Martin Luther published a book and condemned the Pope in a very scientific way on the basis of logic. The book opened the eyes of the people and after having known the reality, they became the supporters of Martin Luther and his principles.

The growth and rise of Protestant religion gave birth to bloody battles between the Roman Catholics and the Protestants. Martin Luther had to run here and there for the safety of his life and ultimately he died in 1546 when Europe was busy in religious wars. According to his own thinking, Martin Luther propounded the following principles in the religious sphere:

1. Luther did not consider the external show such as fasts, repentance, pilgrimages etc. fit for getting salvation.
2. Luther opposed the sale of indulgences because it was not the way of attaining salvation. He used to say, "Faith was the bridge, if he had faith, he could be saved despite his inherent and desperate wickedness."
3. Luther considered all Christians like priests after baptism was done. Hence, he desired, the priests should also be permitted to marry.
4. Luther was against too much of religious ceremonies and Coloured only a few like birth, repentance and death.
5. Martin Luther believed that God loved both, the world and the heaven. Hence, there was no need to escape from the world. Man can attain salvation by doing service to humanity and performing his duties sincerely.

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6. Luther was against the religious authority and believed in the establishment of a national Church. He intended to establish the rule of Bible in place of that of the Pope.
7. Luther wanted to expand his ideas through peaceful means without disturbing the peace of the continent.

Diet of Worms

The Pope wanted to punish Martin Luther for which he sought the cooperation of some rulers. The Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire declared Martin Luther an atheist but Luther burnt the declaration in public. Hence, Charles V summoned the Diet of Worms in order to punish Martin Luther. He was himself present in this conference and refused to give up his faith because he was acting strictly according to religion. His property was confiscated and his books were banned but he was saved by his large number of supporters. In 1522, the Bible was translated into German language. Some people resorted to violence. At this occasion, Martin Luther came out of the fort of Brandenburg and established peace. The Diet of Comburgess was called in 1522 on the orders of the Pope but it too failed to take any action against Luther for fear of a civil war.

Revolt of the Farmers

As a result of the Reformation Movement of Martin Luther, the farmers of South Germany revolted against the Catholic ruler as both the Church as well as the Catholic rulers used to realism heavy tax from them and the condition of the farmers was not better than that of the serfs. Both the farmers and the feudal lords were not satisfied with them and exploited their social and economic condition. They got great inspiration from the preaching of Luther and they demanded the end of serfdom, implementation of just rule, end of severe punishments and the abolition of forced labour. They also refused to pay Tithes to the Church. Gradually, this movement took a violent shape. Martin Luther had sympathy with the farmers but he was also afraid of the violent form of the movement. He wrote letters to the princes and emperors for crushing the farmers' revolt because he was afraid that in case the revolt of the farmers continued, his own Reformation Movement would be crushed. In 1529, this revolt was crushed mercilessly and a large number of enthusiastic farmers were killed. As a result of it, Luther lost the sympathy and support of the lower class. The popularity of Luther was also diversely affected and he lost the support of various friendly rulers.

Expansion of Lutheranism

1. The first conference of Holy Empire was held in 1526 at Spier. By this time the rulers were divided between the supporters of the Pope and the supporters of Martin Luther, hence no final solution could be arrived at in this conference.
2. The second conference of Spier took place in 1529. In this conference, severe contention arose between the Catholics and the Protestants because the Emperor Charles V supported the Catholics vehemently

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and the proposal of the Diet of Worms was confirmed and stress was laid on the suppression of the Reformation Movement. Philip Melanchthon, a friend of Luther tried to establish cooperation between the Catholics and the Protestants but he did not succeed and his proposals were rejected altogether. W. Stubbs writes about it, “Against this action of Diet of Spier, the supporters of Luther entered a formal protest. It was from this protest that the followers of Luther came to be called Protestants.”

3. League of Muschelkalk was formed by the Protestants in 1531 for their safety as Emperor Charles V was severely against them and wanted to crush them. Saxony, Brandenburg, Hesse etc. were the members of this League. Charles V who was busy in wars against Italy failed to pay attention to the abolition of this League, so Lutheranism spread in Germany.
4. After 15 years of the formation of the League of Muschelkalk, Charles V directed his attention to the crushing of this league. At the same time in 1546, Martin Luther breathed his last and some differences emerged among the followers of Luther. Taking advantage of the situation, Charles V made an invasion against the Protestants and attained success. No doubt, it enhanced the power of Charles in Germany but civil war began in Germany which lasted unto 1555. Pope was also against the increasing power of Charles V. So, he organised an assembly at Trent in which both the Catholics and the Protestants took part but the conference was postponed as the Pope himself could not take part in it due to some special reasons. However, Charles V tried to conclude a pact between the two rival religious groups and declared some concession for the Protestants. This attempt of Charles is known as the ‘Interim’. Both of the Catholics and the Protestants felt so much annoyed with this act of Charles that they opposed him severely. As a result of it, Charles had to flee Germany.

Significance of Martin Luther

Although Luther breathed his last in 1546, his name became immortal in the pages of the history of Europe because he dared raise a voice against the Pope, suffered for his protest and led a Reformation Movement in Germany. No doubt, people of the contemporary period had knowledge of the evils prevalent in the Roman Catholic religion but they could not speak a word about them for fear of the Pope, but Martin Luther took up this opposition with great courage, fearlessness and enthusiasm. He confronted the evils and reformed Christianity; hence his contribution is remembered even today.

Causes of the success of Martin Luther

The following factors contributed to the success of Martin Luther:

1. **Personality of Martin Luther:** The character and personality of Martin Luther were very attractive. He had great faith in his religion and he possessed great courage and enthusiasm for its expansion. He

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was completely against corruption and he inspired the people of Germany towards his religion by his knowledge and honesty.

2. **Use of National Language:** Martin Luther was a great scholar. He knew it fully well that people did not know Latin. Hence, he used German language of his country for the expansion of his ideas. He directed the people to the study of Bible in their own language so that they could understand it properly and act according to the teachings of the Bible without following the instructions of the corrupt priests.
3. **Political Condition of Germany:** During the time of Martin Luther, the entire Germany was divided into 300 small states and there was no political unity in the country. Most of the states intended to remain independent. Many states became the supporters of Martin Luther and thus he gained the sympathy of their Protestant public. Thus, the political condition of Germany contributed a lot to the success of Martin Luther.
4. **Renaissance:** Germany and Italy were very close to each other and the headquarters of Holy Roman Empire had shifted from Italy to Germany by now. The Renaissance had triggered great deal of intellectual awakening and had affected the people of Germany. The translation of the Bible in German language accelerated this awakening. The study of the Bible drew the attention of the people towards evils of the Catholic Church and they followed the teachings of Martin Luther without any ifs and buts.
5. **The Foreign Authority of the Pope:** This was an era of the development of nationalism and various big and small states of Germany considered the Pope a foreigner and wished to uproot his authority from the German states about religious matters because a large part of ecclesiastical taxes were sent to Rome every year. The rulers of Germany had a desire to spend this money on the enhancement of production in Germany. Hence, they thought it worthwhile to support Martin Luther and oppose the Pope for the unwanted payments made to a foreigner.
6. **Martin Luther's Opportunism and Self-confidence:** Martin Luther was an opportunist. He won the sympathy of the kings and princes by opposing the farmers' revolt and this got their help for the expansion of his movement. Moreover, Martin Luther had a great self-confidence that the work which he was going to do was in no way against the welfare of the people. This confidence inspired him very much and he preached his faith round the clock with great courage and enthusiasm. During this period, the Roman Catholic Church was a centre of corruption. He made its evils an open secret and inspired the people to lead a pious and simple life in order to attain salvation.
7. **Charles V and Italian Wars:** Charles remained over busy in the Italian wars; hence he could not get time to suppress Lutheranism in the beginning. Later on, when he tried to suppress it, the Reformation

Movement had become too powerful to be crushed. Moreover, there was no joint front in Germany to oppose the faith of Martin Luther.

The reformation movement was perceived as a religious movement which brought about a revolt against the supremacy of the Roman Catholic Church and established a new form of Christianity called Protestant. The Reformation gave a final assault to the monopolistic power of the universal Church. Due to this Reformation, the Papal Authority was fully cast off in the countries where the reformation had been successfully introduced. Though the revolt was organised by different sections under different names, it is collectively termed as reformation because it aimed at reforming the existing Church. Sometimes, the movement is also designated as Protestant Reformation movement. Thus, the tyranny of the Church came to an end and the Reformation brought about drastic changes in many fields.

1.4.4 Counter Reformation

In the sixteenth century the Roman church undertook to reform itself. This reform movement, extending into the following century, raised the moral and educational standards of the clergy; inspired the church with a renewed zeal and morale, which enabled it to win back areas endangered by Protestantism; and contributed significantly to producing the Catholic Church as we know it today. The chief agencies in carrying out this work were the papacy, which was much different from the papacy of the Renaissance; a group of religious orders, some reformed and some new, most notably the Society of Jesus, or Jesuits; and the Council of Trent. The Inquisition and the Roman Index of Prohibited Books also had a part in the work.

The spirit of the Catholic Reformation was a spirit of zeal and ardour for the faith, recognition of abuses in the church and a dedication to the work of reform, and an attitude of intolerance toward heresy. The forces in the church that desired conciliation with the Protestants and that might have been willing to make concessions to secure unity were defeated by those who set their faces against all compromise, rejected any thought of concession, suppressed heresy where they could, or simply shut it out. Actually, it would appear the split had become permanent before the Catholic Reformation reached its full activity. What the Catholic reformers did was simply to recognize the accomplished fact and by their intolerance and intransigence help to establish it as a fixture of Christian life.

One of the manifestations of the stirrings in the church was the foundation of new religious orders and the reform or refounding of older ones. The Camaldolese were reformed and brought back to a very ascetic way of life under the leadership of the famous Venetian family of the Giustiniani. In 1524 the Theatines were founded by Caraffa and Gaetano da Thiene. The members were priests, and their aim was the reform of the regular clergy. They were not allowed to beg, and only the rich and noble became members.

Another such order was that of the Clerics Regular of Saint Paul, known popularly as Barnabites, founded by Antony Zaccaria of Cremona with the aim

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of relieving the sufferings of the people and raising their moral standards. One of the most famous of the orders associated with this movement is that known popularly as the Capuchins, which arose within and remained part of the Franciscan order. Founded by Matteo da Bascio they received their nickname from their distinctive hoods. The Capuchins met considerable resistance within the Franciscan order, but with the help of Cardinal Caraffa received papal recognition in 1528. Living severely ascetic lives, eating the simplest of foods and wearing the coarsest of garments, they went about doing great works of charity and striving by word and example to turn the thoughts of laymen to God.

Orders of women also were active in this movement. The most famous was that of the Ursulines, founded in 1535 at Brescia by St. Angela Merici, and approved by the pope in 1544. This order, devoting itself to the education of girls, had a great success in both the old world and the new.

The first pope of the Catholic Reformation was probably Paul III (1534-49). His pontificate witnessed the founding of the Jesuit order, the opening of the Council of Trent, and the refounding of the Roman Inquisition. Paul recognized the need for reform. In 1536 he appointed a commission of nine cardinals to suggest means of reforming the church. The commission was originally established to help prepare for the meeting of a general council at Mantua in 1537.

The original purpose of the Jesuits was to reach and convert the masses of people who had strayed from the church. Thus preaching was their fundamental task. The order was not founded originally as a means of carrying on the struggle with Protestants, though this later became one of its activities. The Jesuits also laid stress on the instruction of children in Christian doctrine. They urged more frequent confession and communion than had previously been customary, and in this they were highly successful. As a result, they made the priest, more than ever before, a soul-guide or director of conscience. The Jesuits became very famous as confessors and even performed this function for kings and princes.

The purpose of Jesuit education was the purpose of the order as a whole: to serve God through loyalty to the church. For this reason, the aim of the Jesuit schools was not that of the modern secular university, which is to extend the frontiers of human knowledge even at the cost of long-held preconceptions. The teachers were well prepared, the methods were up-to-date, and the training was excellent, but the curriculum and teaching methods were regulated with a view to creating devoted Catholics. Students had to study a prescribed set of courses, and teachers had to stick to the assigned textbooks and interpretations. Within these limitations, the Jesuits were superb educators.

Check Your Progress

6. What is the meaning of the word reformation?
7. What is counter reformation?

1.5 RISE OF THE ABSOLUTE STATE – SPAIN, FRANCE AND BRITAIN

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Absolutism is a term applied by history specialists to depict a type of rulerical force that is boundless by some other foundation, for example, the congregation, parliament, or social elites. The supreme ruler practices extreme authority over the state and his subjects, as both head of state and head of government. In a flat out government there is no constitution or lawful limitation on the ruler's capacity. Supreme government is typically inherited or gone on through marriage. The term Absolutism is commonly applied in blend with some European rulers during the change from Feudalism to early Capitalism, and rulers delineated as total can particularly be found in the seventeenth century through the eighteenth century. The Age of Absolutism is typically thought in the first place the rule of Louis XIV (1643–1715) and closes with the French Revolution (1789).

1.5.1 Background

Absolutism was essentially roused by the emergencies of the sixteenth and seventeenth hundreds of years. The Protestant Reformation (1517–1648) had prompted a progression of savage and bleeding wars of religion, throughout which a great many blameless people met their ends. The populace in the German states, for example, was diminished by about 15% to 30% in the Thirty Years' War (1618–48) though the number of inhabitants in France, at between 16 to 18 million people in 1600, fell by 2 to 4 million during the French Wars of Religion (1562–98). Comparable wars occurred in Switzerland, Austria, Bohemia, the Netherlands, England, Scotland, Ireland and Denmark.

Incompletely due to the strict wars, yet in addition because of a developing secularization, religion was losing its hold on Europe. Propelled by the Renaissance and specifically by the Scientific Revolution, scholarly people took to thinking beyond chapel belief system; and since changes in the economy were recognizably expanding the flourishing of various Europeans, European culture turned out to be increasingly common.

In this specific circumstance, outright governments were viewed as the answer for this fierce issue, and Europeans were more than ready to have neighbourhood self-governance or political rights removed in return for harmony and security.

1.5.2 Features of Absolutism

1. **Unlimited Royal Authority:** Boundless imperial position, as pushed by Bossuet and Hobbes, was the primary attribute of absolutism. It was exhibited most clearly in political association yet additionally served to coordinate into government generally monetary, strict, and social foundations. In this segment, we will review this general example of absolutism before surveying its advancement inside explicit European states.

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2. **Decisions in Absolute State:** Hypothetically, the ruler settled on every significant choice in a run of the mill outright state. In spite of the fact that this was not really conceivable, boss pastors were mindful straightforwardly to the ruler and the entirety of their moves were made in the sovereign's name. The ruler was formally the preeminent lawgiver, the central appointed authority, the officer of every single military power, and the leader of all organization. Focal boards and panels talked about arrangement; however these bodies were carefully warning and concerned basically with administrative matter. All authority started in orders descending from the top and going out to the regions from the regal capital.
3. **Absolute Foreign Policy:** In directing international strategy, rulers distinguished their own dynastic advantages with those of their nations. They typically believed the obtaining of outside an area to be real and sought after their destinations in a serious round of intensity governmental issues with different rulers. This opposition required a huge military foundation, at times including maritime powers. Rulers looked to frame coalitions against the most predominant outside state, giving little thought to good or strict standards. A worry for the "perceived leverage" exemplified the new common soul in remote relations.
4. **Local Government Subsidiary to Absolute Authority:** Local government was a worry to all hopeful outright rulers. At every possible opportunity, they replaced traditional local authorities, commonly medieval nobles, with illustrious governors from different spots. Where that wasn't possible, nearby nobles were remunerated so they would bolster the crown. Once in a while, new nobles were made and old land awards reassigned. Town governments were often brought under royal authority through contacts between urban guildsmen and the ruler's middle-class servants. Using such means as monopoly grants, political favours, or bribery, rulers extended their control over local law and revenues.
5. **Religion Subordinate to the State:** Organized religion remained significant under absolutism but lost its independence of government. Instead of dominating politics, as they had done earlier, churches - Protestant and Catholic alike - now finished to become government agencies. Even in Catholic countries, such as France, the ruler exerted more political control over the church than did the pope despite the fact that this had been valid for before common rulers, they had confronted significantly more strict restriction. After Westphalia, rulers could intentionally utilize their churches as government hirelings, to enrol and hold well known help. Such controlled places of worship applied huge impact on the side of outright governments, in the proper administrations as well as in their social and instructive capacities.

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- 6. Mercantilism in the Structure of Absolutism:** In typical absolute rulers, the regulation of state churches was accompanied by a system of national economic regulations known as mercantilism. Although it had originated earlier, with the emergence of modern states, mercantilism was not adopted commonly by European governments until the late seventeenth century. The expansion of overseas trade, expenses incurred in religious and dynastic wars, and the depression of the middle 1600s accentuated the trend toward mercantilism as states hoped to promote prosperity and increase their revenues.

The system attempted to apply the capitalistic principle of profit-seeking in the management of national economies. “Bullionism” was the fundamental maxim of mercantilist theory. Proponents of bullionism sought to increase precious metals within a country by achieving a “favorable balance of trade,” in which the monetary value of exports exceeded the value of imports. The consequence, in a sense, was a national profit. This became purchasing power in the world market; an advantage shared most directly by the government and favoured merchants.

Mercantilists believed state regulation of the economy to be absolutely necessary for affecting a favourable balance. Absolute rulers applied sponsorships, contracted imposing business models, charges, duties, harbour tolls, and direct lawful disallowances so as to support fares and breaking point imports. For a similar reason, state undertakings were given favorable circumstances over private contenders. Government’s normalized modern creation, managed compensation, set costs, and in any case supported or restricted consumer purchases. Governments also built roads, canals, and docks to facilitate commerce.

As mercantilists viewed the world market in terms of competing states, they emphasized the importance of colonial expansion. They regarded colonies as favoured markets for home products and as sources of cheap raw materials. Colonial foreign trade and industries were controlled to prevent competition with the parent countries. In seeking after such approaches, absolute states required solid military and maritime powers to get settlements, police them, and shield them from outside opponents. Thus mercantilist policies often extended beyond commercial competition, i.e., to international conflict.

- 7. Class Structure under Absolutism:** The class structures of outright governments were set apart by clear qualifications, correctly characterized by law. Innate medieval privileged people lost status except if they obtained an official arrangement from the ruler. Such state nobles owed their benefits to their political help as opposed to birth. They regularly originated from dealer families; without a doubt, the state frequently offered titles to well off everyday citizens to give pay to the ruler. State nobles served in public administration, in the army, the church, or as attendants at court, where they accentuated the

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royal magnificence. They usually received tax exemptions, pensions, titles, and honours. Their legal rights dress and way of life differed markedly from even wealthy non-nobles.

In contrast, commoners, including middle-class town's individuals, paid most of the taxes required by frequent wars and extravagant royal courts. Peasant landholders usually owed fees and labour dues to local aristocrats. The poorest peasants in Western Europe were hired labourers or vagabonds; in Eastern Europe, they were serfs. Slavery was rare in Western Europe, but provided major labour force on overseas plantations.

While fixing legal class distinctions, absolute rulers further downsized the status of ladies. The Reformation had offered a few open doors for self-articulation among ladies, and before 1650 various ladies had expected impermanent places of initiative. The circumstance changed after Westphalia. Although various queens and regents had the option to control as total rulers, most refined ladies could discover acknowledgment just as Catholic nuns, journalists, specialists, salon ladies, court tattlers, or illustrious escorts, the last increasing authority status in this time. The status of commoner women did not fall as much or as quickly, but the emergence of early capitalism and the decline of domestic economies were already excluding them from numerous industries and enterprises in the latter seventeenth century.

1.5.3 Absolutism in France

The Foundations of French Absolutism

When Henry IV became Ruler of France in 1589, he inherited a royal mess. Farmers were very near to starvation because of poor harvests; wolves, and groups of debilitated warriors were a steady risk. Everybody in the nation longed for steadiness. Henry was to a great extent liable for this recuperation. He was the main French Ruler since Louis IX (the genuine "St. Louis") to really think about his people. At the point when the French Revolution broke out in 1789, his sculpture was the just a single the crowd didn't tear down.

Henry converted to Catholicism, but issued the Edict of Nantes as a means of winning Protestant support. He kept France at peace (except for one short insignificant war) and sharply lowered taxes. He compensated for the loss revenue from taxes by introducing an annual fee to be paid by royal officials to make sure that their positions would be inheritable, the *paulette*.

Henry figured out how to re-establish financial and political steadiness in the nation, however he was killed by an aficionado in 1610, which made an emergency. He was prevailing by his child, Louis XIII, who still under age. Louis' mom, Catherine de Medici, administered as official, despite the fact that the genuine force lay with various medieval nobles. Things transformed in 1624 when Catherine arranged to have Armand Jean du Plessis, *Cardinal Richelieu* appointed to the council of ministers. Richelieu soon became first minister, and used his strong influence over Louis XIII to strengthen the French

monarchy. Richelieu single-handedly set in place the foundations for French absolutism.

In 1624, Richelieu managed to reshuffle the royal council and thereby eliminated his political rivals. He levelled castles (a symbol of feudal independence) and had those who opposed him executed summarily. He successfully increased the power of the French state and thereby the power of the Ruler.

Religion was as yet a state of conflict in France, despite the fact that the Edict of Nantes had endeavoured to settle strict questions. Under the Edict, the Calvinist Huguenots were permitted 150 towns where they may rehearse their confidence. In 1627, Louis XIII concluded that the Huguenots ought to be stifled. He asserted that in spite of the fact that they Huguenots requested opportunity of heart, they didn't permit Catholics to love in their urban areas, which to him was political rebellion. In 1628, Louis' powers assaulted the Huguenot city of New Rochelle, and crushed the urban communities' dividers. Protestants were permitted the option to venerate openly, yet Louis restored the Catholic ceremony, and Cardinal Richelieu himself praised the principal Mass. This was a critical advance towards the unification of France as a Catholic state.

In foreign policy, Richelieu contradicted the Holy Roman Empire which encompassed France, despite the fact that it was Catholic and he was a ruler of the Church. He aligned with Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in the Swedish period of the Thirty Years War. Toward the finish of the war, the area of Alsace was French. Several of his activities appeared to repudiate his situation as a sovereign of the congregation; anyway he legitimized his arrangements by expressing that "Where the interests of the state are concerned, God vindicates activities which, if secretly dedicated, would be a transgression."

In 1625, Richelieu gave official acknowledgment to a group of philologists who later formed the French Academy. In 1694, long after Richelieu's demise, the academy published a dictionary which standardized the French language, much as Luther's attempts in Germany had standardized *hauptdeutsch* as the language of Germany.

Richelieu handpicked his own successor, *Jules, Cardinal Mazarin* an Italian known for his love of money and finery. When Louis XIII died in 1643, Queen Anne of Austria governed for the new child Ruler Louis XIV who was four years old. She depended heavily upon Mazarin, who became the dominant power of the government. Anne and Mazarin prolonged the Thirty Years War by keeping French troops in the field, the cost of which led to a crisis. To pay the expenses of the contention, Mazarin acquired intensely from lenders against expected income from new duties and the offer of new workplaces. Be that as it may, amazing nobles known as "nobles of the sword" (who owed their title to legacy instead of the "nobility of the robe" who purchased their titles) stood up to, and attempted to regain the influence they had lost earlier. When French forces defeated the Spanish in 1643, the French individuals believed peace was at hand, and that additional taxes were unnecessary. Ordinary individuals also joined the fray, demanding that taxes be lowered because of poor economic

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conditions. The consequence was a revolt known as the “Fronde” which lasted from 1648 to 1653.

Fronde means “slingshot” or “catapult.” Street urchins who threw mud at the coaches of passing rich individuals were called *frondeur*. The term was used to describe anyone who opposed the policies of the government. Numerous groups, including noblemen, resented the increased power of the monarchy under Louis XIII, and Mazarin did not have Richelieu’s ability to control them.

During the Fronde, civil order broke down completely. Violence continued off and on for almost twelve years. Three significant consequences for the future resulted from the Fronde:

- It became apparent that the government would have to compromise with the bureaucrats and social elites that controlled local institutions, who were already largely exempt from taxation. This eliminated another source of badly needed revenue.
- The French economy was badly disrupted. It would not recover for numerous years.
- Louis XIV was horribly influenced by the rebellion. He and his mother were often endangered, and on one juncture, when he was twelve years age, a crowd broke into his bed chamber to ensure he was surely there. The experience scared him. Louis always remembered the embarrassment, and before long verified that an absolute monarchy was the only option to anarchy.

The Reign of Louis XIV

In September, 1651, at thirteen years old, Louis acknowledged his popularity to rule with legal right. His reign (1632-1715) was the longest period rule in the history of Europe. He was educated very little in Latin and arithmetic, but was very good in Spanish and Italian. He introduced his regal court at Versailles, twelve miles from Paris, and required all the nobility of France to go through some segment of the year there, or face heartbreaking results. Versailles had been begun by Louis XIII as a chasing lodge and as a retreat from a sovereign whom he detested. Under his child, it was transformed into a building perfect work of art. The huge Great Hall of Mirrors, where the Treaty of Versailles (ending World War One) was arranged was enlightened by candles and contained a roof with symbolic works of art of Louis’ triumphs.

Versailles was really accepted as the reflection of French genius. The Russian Czar. Peter the Great (my hero) imitated it when he built his palace known as the Peterhof. Frederick the Great also constructed his palace at Potsdam after its design. He even gave it a French name: *Sans Souci* (“without care.”) You should see it: I have. French before long turned into the language of amenable society and the vehicle of political trade. Nobles at the Imperial Russian Court talked just French to one another—they were in reality more familiar with French than in Russian. George I of England, German by birth, was conversant in French, however talked no English, and wouldn’t learn it.

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French likewise turned into the language of grant and picking up, supplanting Latin. At times, over 10,000 persons were in attendance at Versailles. Those nobles who were especially favoured had the rare honour of assisting Louis when he dressed in the morning. It was a special privilege to help him put on his shirt, or to deliver to him the *chaise percé* (“chair with a hole in it.”)

Louis was a sharp judge of personality, and surrounded himself with men of talent, but avoided dependence on any single person, as had his father. At times he could be unscrupulous, spying on nobles and opening their letters to discover their plans. During a visit to an unpopular finance minister, Louis was served with solid gold flatware and saw pools filled with seawater and large saltwater fish. He had planned to get rid of the minister anyway, and for this display of grandeur ordered him arrested, and kept the mansion for himself. Louis’s propaganda technique depicted him as a heavenly ruler. In 1662, he picked the sun as his seal, and pronounced himself *nec pluribus impar* (“without equivalent.”) To him, the child spoke to everything temperate about a flat out ruler: solidness, kindness, and value. He was often depicted as Apollo, the Greek/Roman god of the sun, and was often called the “Sun Ruler.”

Financial and Economic Management under Louis XIV

Financial management was Louis’ greatest weakness. While he was a master at extracting revenue from his subjects, his greatest talent was spending it with dizzying speed. His excess financial expenditure and poor economic policies put the ruler into a financial crisis, and set in motion the events which would lead to the French Revolution. Louis aptly predicted: *Après moi, le deluge*. (“After me, the flood.”)

An old agreement between the Crown and the nobility provided that the Ruler could tax the common individuals freely provided he did not tax the nobles. This was actually something of a *quid pro quo*; since the nobles did not pay taxes, they could not claim any legitimate say in how tax revenues were spent. The middle classes had plentiful tax exemptions, so that they paid very little. As a consequence, Louis failed to tap substantial sources of revenue, and the weight of taxes fell most heavily on those who could least afford it, the peasants.

Louis appointed Jean Baptiste Colbert as controller general of finances. A genius financial manager was Colbert who soon became able to manage the royal administration. His central principal was that the wealth and economy of France should serve the state; and he therefore rigorously instituted a mercantilist system on France. Mercantilism is that economic theory in which a nation’s international power is based on its wealth, especially its gold supply. Since resources are limited, government intervention is needed to secure the largest part of a limited resource. In order to accumulate gold, a nation must always sell more goods abroad than it buys abroad. As the result of this financial practice in Great Britain that led to the Navigation Acts, Tea Act, etc. of the American colonial period.

Colbert started making France self-sufficient by helping old industries and growing the new ones. He constructed roads and canals, imposed high foreign

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tariffs and eliminated numerous domestic tariffs to make purchase of domestic goods more attractive. His most significant accomplishment was the creation of a powerful merchant marine to carry French goods. The French merchant navy increased from 18 unseaworthy vessels in 1661 to 276 frigates, galleys, and ships of the line in 1681. He hoped to make Canada part of the French empire and sent four thousand peasants there to populate Quebec. The city of Quebec was established in 1608, one year after the founding of Jamestown. Colbert also established the French East India Company in 1664, but it could not effectively compete with the Dutch and English East India Companies, which were more efficiently run. The government had to bail out the company, and later revoked its charter.

Colbert's financial management led France to the height of the leading industrial country of Europe during that period. The textile industry, especially manufacture of woollen goods, grew at a prodigious rate. However, the French economy was largely agricultural, and it was the peasants who worked the soil (Thomas Jefferson's chosen individuals) who were taxed mercilessly.

Louis also raised money by selling titles of nobility, ecclesiastical offices, as well as government and military positions. By this, he raised money easily, enhanced loyalty of those to whom he sold the office were legally bound to him. One of the ministers opined vehemently: "As soon as the crown creates an office, God creates a fool willing to buy it." In one Edict of 1696, Louis sold 500 offices and titles. Few noble families could trace their titles back more than a few generations. This led to tense differences between the nobles of the sword (who could trace back their ancestry numerous generations) and the nobles of the robe (who were the new comers). One noble of the sword denounced those who bought and paid for their offices and worked for the Ruler as the "reign of the bourgeoisie."

Louis XIV and Religion

Though Louis was comparatively pious, he had no interest in theology. As he grew older, he became much closer to a group of ministers who were staunch Catholics. He also invited to his bedroom his beloved who was also passionately religious. Louis, unlike the policies of his predecessors, started persecuting French Huguenots. He closed most Protestant churches and attempted to force the Huguenots to convert to Catholicism. In 1685, he issued an Edict which revoked the Edict of Nantes, which had guaranteed religious liberty to the Calvinist Huguenots:

"We now see with the proper gratitude that we owe to God...for the best and largest part of our subjects of the so-called reformed religion have embraced Catholicism, and now that, to the extent that the execution of the Edict of Nantes remains useless, we have judged that we can do nothing better to wipe out the memory of the troubles, of the confusion, of the evils that the progress of this false religion has caused our rulerdom...than to revoke entirely the said Edict. Louis pleased his Catholic subjects with the revocation almost 200,000 Huguenots emigrated to England, Prussia, Holland, and South Africa, despite an order from the ruler that forbade them from leaving the country."

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Louis also persecuted a weird group known as the Jansenists, named for Cornelius Jansen, the Bishop of Ypres who died in 1638. The Jansenists came close to accepting Calvin's doctrine of predestination, so much so that their enemies called them "Calvinists who go to Mass." Unlike the Calvinists, who believed that one was called to a particular vocation, the Jansenists believed one should withdraw completely from the world. They disapproved of anything frivolous, and were especially off finished by the gaudy displays of Versailles. They especially disapproved of the idea of repeated penance, or of demise bed conversions. Their most determined enemies were the Jesuits, who persuaded the Pope to condemn them in 1653. Louis ran into some opposition from the Parliament of Paris, and died before he had completely eliminated the sect.

The Concept of "Balance of Power"

The idea of a "balance of power" assumed that great powers should be in equilibrium with each other; no one power should be permitted to become too powerful. The decline of one power could threaten the balance of. Power if as a consequence, the power of another state was considerably enhanced. It arose largely at the end of the era of religious warfare, and became the dominant cause of warfare: to prevent any one country from becoming too powerful or dominating too much of the continent.

Together with the idea of a balance of power was born the concept of International Law. Numerous nations/individuals were horrified at the devastation of the Thirty Years War, and scholars thus laid the groundwork for modern diplomacy. Legal principles for times of peace and war were promulgated, primarily by a German Protestant, *Samuel von Pufendorf*, who wrote *Of the Law of Nature and Nations*. Pufendorf argued that only a defensive war was justified, and arbitration should be used to settle peacetime disputes.

French expansionism was a significant worry to the encompassing countries of Europe during the rule of Louis XIV, who saved France at war for thirty three years, a fraction of the hour of his own standard. He had made an advanced proficient armed force, and took individual order of it himself.

In 1667, Louis used a reason to attack Flanders, which was a piece of the Spanish Netherlands. He obtained twelve towns including Lille, and Tournai. Five years later, he led an army into Holland; the Dutch saved themselves only by opening the dikes and flooding the countryside. At the end of the war, Louis gained additional Flemish towns. Encouraged by his success, he seized the city of Strasbourg and later the province of Lorraine. He seemed invincible at this point.

Louis' successes led to an alliance against him. William of Orange the Dutch prince, became Ruler of England in 1688, and joined the League of Augsburg, which incorporated the Holy Roman Emperor, the Rulers of Spain and Sweden and the electors of several German principalities. The ensuing conflict was the *War of the League of Augsburg*, fought in North America as *Ruler William's War*, one of the four French and Indian Wars. Those allied against him also had considerably stronger financial support than Louis. To

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raise money for the war, Louis ordered the entire nation's silverware be handed over to the mint to be melted down; but this was not nearly enough. Again, the weight of taxation fell on the peasants.

The burden of taxation and a series of bad harvest resulting in famine led to extensive peasant revolts. Statistics indicate that as much as one tenth the population died. The problem was exacerbated by a decline in the French economy, and Louis was forced to sue for peace at any price. The peace only lasted for five years.

The War of the Spanish Succession

It was an open secret in Europe that the Ruler of Spain, Charles II was mentally incompetent and sexually impotent. In 1698, the European powers, including France, agreed to a treaty in which they agreed to divide Spain's possessions between France and the Holy Roman Emperor, who was Charles II's brothers-in-law. After the death of Charles in 1700, as per his wish, the Spanish throne passed to seventeen years old Philip of Anjou, Louis' grandson. Louis saw the prospect to join Spain and France under a single ruler, and thus reneged and accepted the terms of the treaty of 1698. Louis asserted that he was following both Spanish and French national interests in doing as such. He once introduced his grandson to the Spanish ambassador and said, "You may salute him as your ruler."

Clearly the point of the French and Spanish thrones under a single ruler would distress the balance of power, and the other European forces had no aim of permitting this to occur. In 1701, the English, Dutch, Austrians and Prussians framed the Grand Alliance against Louis. They asserted that they were battling to keep France from getting excessively solid in Europe. An auxiliary intention was the extension of French domain in North America, which they would have liked to stop.

In the war which followed two significant soldiers dominated the alliance against France: Eugene, Prince of Savoy represented the Holy Roman Empire, and John Churchill, later the Duke of Marlborough, represented England? Louis was defeated in several battles at the hand of each. The war was also fought in North America where it was known as *Queen Anne's War*. The war concluded with the *Treaty of Utrecht (1713)* under the terms of peace, Louis' grandson became the first Bourbon ruler of Spain, but there was an understanding that the French and Spanish rulers would never be unified. France had to surrender Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the Hudson Bay territory to England, which also got Gibraltar, Minorca, and control of the African slave trade from the Spanish. The Peace of Utrecht represented the balance of power principal in operation.

Louis XIV made France busy at war for thirty three of his fifty-four years of reign. He is reputed to have said on his demise bed, "I have gone to war too lightly, and pursued it for vanity's sake." He made this statement as part of his last confession knowing that his death was near. Under any circumstances, there can be no question but that he acted in accordance with his earlier

observation that “the character of a conqueror is regarded as the noblest and highest of titles.”

The Peace of Utrecht marked the end of French expansionism and Louis quest for military glory. The legacy of his attempts was extensive misery in France. To fight his wars Louis raised revenue by selling 40,000 additional offices, which increased the number of families exempt from future taxation. France was on the brink of bankruptcy by 1715. Louis died on September 1, 1715, at which time one of his critics wrote:

French Classicism under Louis XIV

The artists and writers of late seventeenth century France deliberately imitated the subject matter and style of classical antiquity. Their work took after that of Renaissance Italy and contained the old style characteristics of control, parity, and limitation. In spite of the fact that Louis made it the official style of his court, Classicism had topped before 1661, the year where he started his own rule.

Nicholas Poussin (1594 - 1665) is commonly considered the best instance of French classicist painting. Most of his work was done before 1661. He spent most of his creative life in Rome because he did not care for the atmosphere of Paris. His masterpiece, *The Rape of the Sabine Women*, exhibits the qualities of noble action in a logical and orderly but not realistic fashion.

After ascension of Louis to the throne, French classicism was influenced by absolutism. Works of art were required to glorify the state as personified by the ruler, rather than expressions of individualism. Precise rules governed all aspects of culture; the goal being “formal and restrained perfection.” Louis’ contemporaries said that he never ceased playing the part of the grand ruler on the stage of his court. He never fully relaxed from the part he considered himself playing, but did enjoy music and the theatre, and occasionally used them as backdrops for his court.

Louis was fond of the music and orchestral works of *Jean-Baptiste Lully* (1632-1687) who composed court ballets and several operas. Another favorite was *Mac-Antoine Charpentier* (1634-1704) who wrote several *TeDeums* (“praise to thee, O God”) as thanksgiving to celebrate French military victories. Louis loved the stage, especially the plays of *Moliere* and *Racine*.

Moliere was born *Jean-Baptiste Poquelin*, the son of a prosperous tapestry maker. He refused to join his father’s business and took the stage name *Moliere*. His work often exposed the hypocrisies and follies of society through caricature. Among his works were the *Bourgeois Gentilhomme*, and *Les Femmes Savantes* (“The Learned Women.”) While he made fun of social mores, his contemporary, *Jean Racine*, analyzed the power of love. He based his dramas on Greek and Roman legends, with a persistent theme of the conflict of good and evil. Among his works are *Andromae*, *Berence*, and *Britannicus*.

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1.5.4 Absolutism in England

In 1603, Elizabeth I passed away without leaving a legacy and her nephew, James VI of Scotland (who was additionally the child of Mary Queen of Scots who was requested to be executed compelled in 1589) accepting the English throne as James I, where both Scotland and England ruled under the same ruler, and establishing the Stuart dynasty. However the two nations were anything but united - they each had different religions, laws, courts, parliaments, churches and customs, not forgetting a 700 year old mistrust and hatred.

James I 1603-1625

James I Stuart started his rule as an absolute ruler. He despised Parliament He ventured to break down parliament, and administered without the voice of the people. He proclaimed that the ruler was God's Lieutenant, his emissary, and ruled over the land. He started the absolute rule in England, which was followed by his family members for the next several generations. James pushed the perfect privileges of rulers, and thus composed a book upholding the heavenly right of rulers entitled *The Trew Law of Free Rulers* in 1598.

Charles I 1625-1649

At the point when Charles took the throne, he acquired an extremely furious Parliament, yet he shared his dad James I's convictions in autocracy. He appointed Archbishop Laud to make the Anglican Church more ceremonial, like Catholicism, instilling fears among the populace about a return to Catholicism.

In 1628 the Parliament issued the Petition of Right. This record pronounced that Charles couldn't establish charges without Parliamentary assent. Charles continued to impose the boat cash charge without Parliamentary assent, requesting all towns to pay duties to help the English naval force. This annoyed most of the populace as ship money was traditionally paid by coastal towns. The Parliament of 1640, dominated by Puritan landowners, fired Laud and repealed taxes imposed by Charles. These occurrences resulted in the outbreak of the English Civil War.

English Civil War 1642-1649

The war pitted supporters of the Parliament against supporters of the ruler, and at stake were both political power and control of English economics. The war also pitted Puritans, known as "roundheads," against Anglicans, or "cavaliers." The supporters of Parliament were led by Oliver Cromwell.

Other movements sprang up during this time, including Baptists, Quakers, and diggers, seekers, and renters, who equated the clergy with nobles. Charles I was captured and members of Parliament were torn. Presbyterians opposed the killing of the ruler, while Independents advocated the regicide, or the killing of the ruler. In "Pride's Purge," Cromwell forcibly removed all members of Parliament who opposed the killing of the ruler.

The Governments of Cromwell

A while later, Cromwell framed another legislature called the Commonwealth which kept going from 1649 to 1653. This legislature was a popularity based republic. Be that as it may, in 1653, Cromwell shaped the Protectorate, which was adequately a military autocracy. He made the New Model Army, a paid power of committed Puritans. His rule included exceptionally severe laws, including no playing a game of neither cards nor moving. He, like numerous English rulers, found Parliament difficult to control, it was when he disbanded Parliament, and the only English Constitution was written, "Instruments of Government."

Stuart Restoration and Charles II Stuart

In 1658, Cromwell died, resulting in the restoration of Charles II Stuart and thus the Stuart line to the throne. Charles II is commonly known as the "Merry Ruler" because he engaged in highly festive court life and encountered numerous mistresses. That derived England profoundly into obligation, and proceeded with a war with the Dutch began under Cromwell from the 1650s until the 1670s. He rehearsed mercantilist strategies. During Charles II's rule, England experienced the Great Plague in 1665 and the Great Fire in 1666.

In 1670, Charles marked the Secret Treaty of Dover with Louis XIV, subtly promising France and England as partners to cooperate to return England to the Catholic Church. In 1673 he marked the Declaration of Indulgence, which expressed that Catholics could hold political and military office. Parliament reacted that equivalent year, giving the Test Act that expressed that residents would need to pronounce Anglicanism to join the Parliament and military by taking Anglican Communion.

James II 1685-1688

James II, a clearly Catholic ruler, took the position of authority in 1685. With his first spouse he bore two little girls, Mary and Anne, who was both Protestant, yet with his second wife he bore a child, James, who was absolved Catholic. He upset Parliament at his interest to nullify the Test Act, and initiated the Declaration of Indulgences, which took into consideration opportunity of love. Irate Protestants would bring in William the Stadholder and Mary to rescue them.

Glorious Revolution of 1688

Out of dread of James' open Catholicism and the introduction of a male Catholic beneficiary, Parliament welcomed Mary Stuart and William Stuart of Orange to lead England in 1688. Known as the Glorious Revolution or Bloodless Revolution since it was quiet, William and Mary took the honoured position and marked the Bill of Rights. The bill ensured that the ruler would consider Parliament at regular intervals and not dismisses them and that tax assessment and war must be endorsed by Parliament. Britain was not, at this point a flat out government but instead a protected government.

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In 1701, Parliament passed the Act of Settlement, expressing that all future rulers of England must be Protestant over every single other trademark.

Queen Anne Stuart and the End of the Stuart Line

Queen Anne administered from 1702 until 1714, and gave the Act of Union in 1707, making Great Britain by consolidating Wales, Scotland, and England. Under her, the House of Commons took strength in Parliament. At the point when she passed on in August 1714, she was prevailing by George I, the first of the Hanoverian line to govern in Britain. The extension of parliamentary force to the detriment of the Crown that had occurred since 1688 would proceed under the Hanoverian rulers, with the principal Prime Minister, Sir Robert Walpole, taking office in 1721. By the promotion of George III in 1760, the Crown had next to no capacity to impact national legislative issues, and to a great extent left the arrangement of governments to the gatherings that were gradually advancing in Parliament.

1.5.5 Absolutism in Spain

Ferdinand and Isabella

The seeds of absolutism were really planted in Spain during the reign of Ruler Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, also known as Los Reyes Catolicos (The Catholic Rulers). Their main goal as ruler and queen was to re-establish royal control in the country. By replacing the courts with a Royal Council and choosing judges to head over the towns in their rulerdom, the two were able to achieve their goal.

Ferdinand and Isabella increased royal power considerably. They weakened the nobility by destroying the nobles' fortified castles, the Catholic Church by gaining the right to nominate significant Church officials, the Cortes, the Spanish legislature, by enacting laws without its approval.

They persecuted Jews and Muslims and expelled them from Spain. Spain loses energetic workers and skilled workers. They laid the foundation for Spain's brief period of world power. They financed Columbus' expedition that reached the New World. Spain acquired a large New World colonial empire with great wealth in silver and gold. Their daughter married the prince of the House of Hapsburg (Catholic Austria). The heir is Charles V, uniting Austria and Spain.

Charles V (1519-1556)

Charles of Hapsburg, absolute ruler of Spain and leading ruler of Europe, controlled not only Spain and its colonial empire but also the Netherlands, Sicily, southern Italy, Austria and other lands in central Europe. In 1520 he became Holy Roman Emperor. To defend his domains, Charles repeatedly fought the French, the Muslim Turks, and the protestant Germans. A devout Catholic, he most regretted his failure to stop the spread of Protestantism. His son becomes Philip II of Spain.

Philip II (1556-1598): Spanish Power Declines

In foreign affairs, Philip II experienced military power and money but was unable to suppress the Protestant Dutch revolt, could not halt English raids on Spanish merchant ships and colonies, and failed to conquer England with the Spanish Armada in 1588.

In Spain Philip's autocratic rule produced inefficient government, a defeating tax burden and a stagnant economy. Spain begins to decline in world prestige and power.

Check Your Progress

8. Define the term absolutism.
9. When was the real absolutism spread in Spain?

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1.6 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The Renaissance commonly alludes to a period in European history roughly somewhere in the range of 1400 and 1600. The Renaissance is most firmly connected with Italy, where it started in the 14th century.
2. Renaissance signifies "rebirth" or "revival".
3. The characteristics of Renaissance were humanism, nationalism, a new approach to life, and a new spirit in art, architecture, literature and learning, the growth of the vernaculars, and scientific investigation.
4. The term feudalism has been derived from the word 'feud' which means fief. Fief was kind of remuneration or fee, which the landlord granted to the vassal or dependent in return for the service, the vassal rendered to him.
5. The feudalism was a characteristic feature of European society during the Middle Ages and was widespread during the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries.
6. Cheville throwing light on the meaning of this movement writes, "It was, in fact, a dual movement having for its objects the renovation of the moral life of Christendom and the repudiation of the Papal claims to ecclesiastical supremacy."
7. In the sixteenth century the Roman church undertook to reform itself. This reform movement, extending into the following century, raised the moral and educational standards of the clergy.
8. Absolutism is a term applied by history specialists to depict a type of ruler force that is boundless by some other foundation, for example, the congregation, parliament, or social elites.
9. The seeds of absolutism were really planted in Spain during the reign of Ruler Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, also known as Los Reyes Catolicos (The Catholic Rulers).

1.7 SUMMARY

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- The Renaissance commonly alludes to a period in European history roughly somewhere in the range of 1400 and 1600.
- The Renaissance is most firmly connected with Italy, where it started in the 14th century, however nations, for example, Germany, England and France experienced a large number of similar social changes and wonders.
- Renaissance signifies “rebirth” or “revival”. Renaissance was a defining moment throughout the entire existence of western progress. It is regularly depicted as a scaffold between the medieval and the modern period in Europe.
- Renaissance brought about a transition from the medieval to the modern age. This period witnessed the end of the old and reactionary medieval spirit, and the beginning of the new spirit of science, reason and experimentation.
- The feudalism was a characteristic feature of European society during the Middle Ages and was widespread during the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The term feudalism has been derived from the word ‘feud’ which means fief. Fief was kind of remuneration or fee, which the landlord granted to the vassal or dependent in return for the service, the vassal rendered to him.
- In the first place, feudalism held that God had given the country to the king who was its lord. The king could give this land to nobles called vassals.
- The feudalism was hierarchical with king at the top and the peasants at the bottom. In between these stood the Dukes, Barons and Knights. All land belonged to the king who was the supreme lord.
- The feudalism which flourished between eleventh and thirteenth centuries began to decline towards the close of the thirteenth century in France and Italy. However, in other parts of Europe, it continued to thrive for some time and ultimately disappeared only by 1500 AD.
- Reformation Movement is the name of the opposition which continued in Europe since the fifteenth century, the chief aim of which was to mitigate the influence of the Pope, to establish the national Church and to provide independent religious thinking to the people.
- Martin Luther condemned the corrupted practice of Church in his ninety-five principles and thus began a movement against the sin. However, the political, economic and religious reasons also cannot be rejected.
- In the sixteenth century the Roman church undertook to reform itself. This reform movement, extending into the following century, raised the moral and educational standards of the clergy. This is known as Counter Reformation.

- Absolutism is a term applied by history specialists to depict a type of ruler force that is boundless by some other foundation, for example, the congregation, parliament, or social elites.
- In September, 1651, at thirteen years old, Louis acknowledged his popularity to rule with legal right in France. His reign (1632-1715) was the longest period rule in the history of Europe.
- In 1603, Elizabeth I passed away without leaving a legacy and her nephew, James VI of Scotland (who was additionally the child of Mary Queen of Scots who was requested to be executed compelled in 1589) accepting the English throne as James I, where both Scotland and England ruled under the same ruler, and establishing the Stuart dynasty.
- The seeds of absolutism were really planted in Spain during the reign of Ruler Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, also known as Los Reyes Catolicos (The Catholic Rulers). Their main goal as ruler and queen was to re-establish royal control in the country.

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1.8 KEY TERMS

- **Renaissance:** The revival of European art and literature under the influence of classical models in the 14th – 16th centuries.
- **Reformation:** A 16th century movement for the reform of abuses in the Roman Church ending in the establishment of the Reformed and Protestant Churches.
- **Counter Reformation:** In the sixteenth century the Roman church undertook to reform itself. This reform movement, extending into the following century, raised the moral and educational standards of the clergy; inspired the church with a renewed zeal and morale, which enabled it to win back areas endangered by Protestantism.
- **Feudalism:** Feudalism is applied to a mode of socio-political organisation, which arose in medieval Europe usually through the medium of land tenure.
- **Absolutism:** Absolutism is a term applied by history specialists to depict a type of ruler force that is boundless by some other foundation, for example, the congregation, parliament, or social elites.

1.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Where did renaissance first begin?
2. What is humanism?
3. Who was Dante?

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4. Who was Leonardo da Vinci?
5. What was feudalism?
6. What was manorial system?
7. Who was Martin Luther?
8. What was counter reformation?
9. Who was Louis XIV?
10. When was French Revolution occurred?
11. Define the Glorious Revolution of 1688?
12. Who were Ferdinand and Isabella?

Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the characteristics of renaissance.
2. Explain the main factors responsible for the emergence of renaissance.
3. Describe the impact of renaissance in different fields.
4. What were the characteristics of feudalism? Explain.
5. What were the merits and demerits of feudalism?
6. Explain the reasons for the decline of feudalism.
7. Describe the causes for the rise of reformation movement.
8. Why was Lutheranism emerged in Germany? Explain.
9. Examine the success of Martin Luther.
10. Describe the features of absolutism spread in Europe.
11. Estimate absolutism in France.

1.10 FURTHER READING

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2. Rodney Hilton, Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism.
3. J.R. Hale, Renaissance Europe.
4. Carlo M. Cipolla, Fontana Economic History of Europe, Vols. II and III.
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UNIT 2 ECONOMIC REVOLUTION OF THE MODERN WEST – MERCANTILISM AND COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION, BEGINNING OF COLONIALISM, INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

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Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
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 - 2.2.4 Features of Mercantilism
 - 2.2.5 Spread of Mercantilism in European States
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 - 2.2.7 Demerits of Mercantilism
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 - 2.2.9 Decline of Mercantilism
- 2.3 Beginning of Colonialism
 - 2.3.1 Factors of Colonialism
 - 2.3.2 Colonization of Asia
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- 2.4 Industrial Revolution
 - 2.4.1 The Term Industrial Revolution
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 - 2.4.3 Agricultural Background
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 - 2.4.5 Major Scientific Innovations
 - 2.4.6 Industrialisation in Other Countries
 - 2.4.7 Impacts of Industrial Revolution
- 2.5 Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’
- 2.6 Summary
- 2.7 Key Terms
- 2.8 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 2.9 Further Reading

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2.0 INTRODUCTION

Economic Revolution of the Modern West got its first shape with the rise of the concept mercantilism. Mercantilism, also called “commercialism,” is a process in which a nation tries to amass wealth through trade with other countries, exporting more than it imports and increasing stores of gold and precious metals. This dominant system of economic thought prevailed in Europe from 16th to 18th Century. To develop enormous economy and profit, nations started colonies in different parts of the world. The colonies supplied rum, cotton, and other products demanded by the mother imperialist countries. Even, slaves were traded for sugar and molasses who returned to America or the West Indies. Colonialism slowly inspired the nation states to extend their empire with absolute control which led to the process of imperialism. The European imperial powers set up various industries in their colonies to get more profits. This paved the way for the industrialisation of the colonies. They imported raw materials at the cheapest possible rates and exported the finished products at very exorbitant rate. They systematically destroyed the local cottage industries, trade and commerce by enacting various taxation laws. This was in the latter half of the 18th century, the Industrial Revolution marked a period of development that transformed largely rural, agrarian societies in Europe and America into industrialized, urban ones. The Industrial Revolution brought a series of changes in the methods of manufacture, manufacture and distribution and drastically affected the economic and social life of the individuals. It transformed an overwhelmingly agricultural society into an industrial society.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Know the events which led to the economic revolution of the modern west
- Understand the concept of mercantilism and commercial revolution
- Describe the factors for the rise of mercantilism
- Realize the factors for the industrial revolution
- Examine the consequences of the industrial revolution in west

2.2 MERCANTILISM AND COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

The word **Mercantilism**, also called “commercialism,” is a process in which a nation tries to amass wealth through trade with other countries, exporting more than it imports and increasing stores of gold and precious metals. This dominant system of economic thought prevailed in Europe from 16th to 18th Century. It was known by different names in different countries. It was called as commercial system or mercantile system in England because it emphasised

the significance of commerce and free trade. It was also known as “*Restrictive system*” because its practical policies consisted of plentiful restrictions and regulations on commerce. It was called “*Colbertism*” in France, after the name of Colbert, the Finance Minister of Louie XIV. It was called “*Cameralism*” in Germany and Austria. It was also called as “*Bullionism*” as more importance was given to gold and silver. Mercantilists did not form the same group advocating a fixed line of thought and policy. They were businessmen, merchants, administrators, in different nations. A number of pamphlets and papers regarding economic problems in their nations were left by them. The later economists analysed their writings and established certain uniformity in their thoughts and policies and have grouped them together as mercantilists.

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2.2.1 Meaning of Mercantilism

Undoubtedly, there is no definite meaning or definition of mercantilism; however, some significant authors are of the opinion that mercantilism implies regulations by government for the trade and industry. Adam Smith was the first man who referred the term mercantilism in his book for the first time in the year 1776. The same term was also used by a prominent historian Gustav Schmoller in 1884.

Mercantilism was also known by the name of Colbertism in France and Cameralism in Germany, but the fundamental principles of these terms were the same.

L.H. Haney writes about it, “Mercantilism comprises the economic views which prevailed among European statesmen from the sixteenth to the latter part of eighteenth century. As will appear, such views largely concerned commerce, the idea prevailing that gains through international trade are the principal factors in promoting national power.”

2.2.2 Period of Mercantilism

It is very difficult to ascertain some definite year or century when mercantilism thrived and finished. From political point of view, it’s rise and decline is associated with the rise and fall of the monarchy and from the economic point of view, it is allied with the progress and development of the international trade and commerce. Newman writes that those economic thoughts which were prevalent from the end of the Medieval period to the beginning of the American Revolution were called mercantilism. The naturalists did not agree to this point of view and vehemently condemned and criticised this thinking. As the scope of mercantilism was quite wide, it came to be known in different countries by different names. **Cannon** mentions that mercantilism was only prevalent in the 17th century and before it, the thinking that was in vogue in different countries of Europe was known after the name of metalism (*It is the economic principle that the value of money derives from the purchasing power of the commodity upon which it is based*). In fact, **Serra** was the first scholar who chronologically defined and depicted mercantilism in Italy.

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2.2.3 Factors for the Origin of Mercantilism

There are numerous factors which were accountable to bring mercantilism to the world scenario in a period of time. Social, political, economic, geographic and scientific factors gave a fertile atmosphere for the origin and spread of mercantilism.

Renaissance

The period of Renaissance was a fervent time of European cultural, artistic, political and economic “rebirth” following the Middle Ages. Commonly depicted as taking place from the 14th century to the 17th century, the Renaissance promoted the rediscovery of classical philosophy, literature and art. Many greatest thinkers, authors, statesmen, scientists and artists in human history emerged during this era, while geographical exploration opened up new territories and cultures to European commerce. The Renaissance did not agree with the religious principle of Medieval Europe. It explained ‘Materialism’ as one of the mediums of human happiness. So, everybody dreamt to lead a happy and prosperous life. This gave birth to Mercantilism.

Fall of Feudalism

Another cause for the rise of Mercantilism was the fall of Feudalism. **Feudalism** was a system of land ownership and duties. It was used in the Middle Ages. With feudalism, all the land in a rulerdom was the ruler’s. However, the ruler would give some of the land to the lords or nobles who fought for him, called vassals. Under feudalism, taxes were not paid with money. They were paid in products and services. Gifts and duties had to be given to the land lords by their vassals. The fate of agriculture became doomed with the fall of feudalism. This gave courage for the growth of the small-scale industries. The growth of these industries was supported by the towns and guilds. They wanted to export the surplus of these manufactures. This led to the rise of Mercantilism.

Reformation Movement

The Reformation, also called the Protestant Reformation or the European Reformation, was a movement within Western Christianity in 16th century Europe that posed a religious and political challenge to the Roman Catholic Church and directly the papal authority. The merchants were encouraged by the Reformation Movement. The consequences of the Reformation Movement carried on by Martin Luther in Germany and Henry VIII in England was far reaching. They criticised the unnecessary interference of Pope in Political and Economic dealings except religion. Martin Luther opposed the Pope so much so that he was issued ‘Bull of excommunication’ by the Pope. However, Luther did not bend before it. Like Luther, Henry VIII of England did not follow Pope and started reformation in the Church of England.

All these activities encouraged the merchants to take up their business independently. This encouraged Mercantilism.

The Guilds and Banking System

The Guilds and Banking System gave great impetus for the growth of Mercantilism. The guilds acted as distribution centres and exported the surplus to outside countries. This encouraged the international trade which was well-regulated by the Banking system. Thus, Mercantilism grew out and out.

The rise of the Banking institutions also greatly contributed to commercial revolution. Banks played a vital role in the history of this expansion. Strong religious and moral disapproval of lending money at interest meant that Banking had enjoyed a dubious reputation in the middle Ages. Because the Church did come to allow profit making — a commercial risks, however banks in Italy and Germany were organised under family auspices, the most notable instances being the fourteenth and fifteenth century operations of Medici in Florence and the Fuggers in Augsburg. The fuggers lent money to rulers and bishops and served as broker to the Pope for sale of indulgences.

The rise of these private financial houses was followed by the establishment of **government banks**, reflecting the mercantile goal of serving the monetary requires of the state. The first such institution, the Bank of Sweden was founded in 1657. The Bank of England was established in 1694, at a time when England emergence as a World Commercial power guaranteed that institution play a leading role in international finances. The growth of Banking was necessarily accompanied, by the adoption of various aids to financial transactions on a large scale.

Further, evidence of a commercial revolution, credit facilities were extended in such a way that a Merchant in Amsterdam could purchase goods from a Merchant in Venice by means of a bill of exchange issued by an Amsterdam Bank. The Venetian Merchant would obtain his money by depositing the bill of exchange in his local bank. Later, the two banks would settle their accounts by comparing balances. Among the other facilities for the expansion of credit were the adoption of a system of payment by check in local transactions and the issuance of bank notes as a substitute for gold and silver. Both these devices were invented by the Italians and were gradually adopted in Northern Europe. The system of payment by check was especially significant in increasing the volume of trade, since the credit resources of the banks could now be expanded for beyond the actual amounts of cash in their vaults.

Political Patronage

Political Patronage established Mercantilism on sound footing. The rulers wanted to reduce the power of the feudal Lords and Barons. So, they encouraged the merchants for trade. Henry, ‘the Navigator’ of Portugal and Henry VIII and Queen Elizabeth of England patronised sailors. Ruler Louis XIV (reigned 1643-1715) followed the guidance of Jean Baptiste Colbert, his Controller-General of Finances from 1665 to 1683. Their patronage established Mercantilism on sound footing.

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Scientific Inventions and Discoveries

Scientific Invention and Discoveries helped a lot in the growth of Mercantilism. The telescope invented by Galileo helped the merchants in their journey. The Mariner's Compass also helped the merchants a lot to determine direction inside the deep sea. These inventions made merchants confident for maritime trade which galvanised Mercantilism.

Growth of Trade and Commerce

The demand for new commodities was one of the basic causes of the Commercial Revolution wallpaper, lacquered ware, cotton and linen cloth, furs silks and parasols were introduced from the orient and ostrich feather from Africa. New food products found their way into European markets. Species, potatoes, lima-beans, tomatoes, sugar, tea, coffee, cold and Indian became staple commodities, found in most of the markets. These items along with numerous others, reality increased the volume of trade. Some trade had existed for a long time, but it was chiefly luxuries that commanded a very limited market and did not materially affect the economic status of the masses of the individuals.

The middle classes in Western Europe had transformed their standards of living in the 17th century, but it was not until late in the 18th century that the lower classes experienced the same change. The consequence of this was a marked increase in the volume of trade. England's exports at the end of the 17th century amounted to \$ 32,000,000 and her imports – were about \$ 27,000,000. Within a century, these figures had increased to \$ 207,000,000 and \$ 151,000,000 respectively. Other countries experienced the same change, although not to so phenomenal an extent; Trade soon became worldwide. Until the 18th century, only a small part of habitable world had been exploited, but by the close of all the century, European traders had reached the four corners of the world.

Development of Navigation and Geographical Discoveries

Better ships and improved methods of navigation had to be provided before trade could make much progress. One cannot help admiring the courage of Columbus, considering the equipments and knowledge of navigation that he had. The sextant and the chronometer aided, the sailors in finding their way at sea, ships were improved and more seaworthy. Lighthouses and harbour improvements aided in encouraging navigation.

Navigation technique encouraged Geographical Discoveries and it further encouraged Mercantilism. The sea voyage of Columbus, Vasco da Gama, Magellan and others encouraged Mercantilism.

The Development of Money Economy

Another significant feature of the Commercial Revolution was the development of a more efficient money economy. Money had been used widely since the revival of trade in the eleventh century. Nevertheless, there were few coins with a value that it was recognised other than locally. By 1300,

the gold ducat of Venice and the Gold Florin of Florence had come to be accepted in Italy and also in the international markets of Northern Europe. But no country could be said to have had a uniform monetary system. Nearly, everywhere, there was great confusion. Coins issued by rulers circulated side by side with the money of foreign states. Moreover, the types of currency were modified frequently, and the coins themselves were often debased. A common method by which rulers expanded their own personal revenues was to increase the proportion of cheaper metals in the coins they minted. But the growth of trade and industry in the

Commercial Revolution accentuated the need for more stable and uniform monetary systems. The problem was solved by the adoption of a standard system of money by even significant state to be used for all transactions within its borders. Much time elapsed, however, before the reform was complete. England began the construction of a uniform coinage during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, but the task was not finished until late in the seventeenth century. Indeed, the French did not succeed in reducing their money to its modern standard of simplicity and convenience until the early nineteenth century.

2.2.4 Features of Mercantilism

Mercantilism was a commercial revolution which motivated the Europeans to amass wealth and develop the nation on economic ground. A competition among the nations started which led to colonisation in different parts of the world. Features of Mercantilism may clearly depicts it's area.

Foreign Trade

Foreign trade in the Mercantilist theory is called as the balance of trade theory. This theory aimed at to get large quantity of valuable metals. The only Source for getting gold and silver was Foreign trade. According to them, any nation could become rich after getting gold and silver from foreign nations through trade.

The greatest Mercantilist, Sir Thomas Mun, viewed that, *“foreign trade should be encouraged, for, upon it hinges the great revenue of the Ruler, the honour of the rulerdom, the noble profession of the merchant, the supply of our poor, the improvement of our lands and means of our treasure”*.

According to mercantilists, the value of export should always be larger than imports. In short, they advocated a favourable balance of trade. Hence they encouraged exports and discouraged imports. *“Export more, import less and collect the balance in the form of gold and silver”*, was the main motto of this theory. Accordingly every exporter was considered to be a close friend of the state and every importer as an enemy. What so ever, the mercantilists' theory of foreign trade has no importance in modern times. If every nation exports more, there would be an end to international trade. Moreover, the mercantilists did not differentiate between particular balance of trade and general balance of trade. We mean, by general balance of trade, balance of the country's trade with other nations and particular nation.

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The mercantilists were unaware of the truth that favourable balance of trade cannot be maintained for long. Because, if gold comes into a country again and again, there may be inflation. Thus, by this, the mercantilist theory of foreign trade is accepted as a wrong one.

Commerce and Industry

The mercantilists considered commerce and industry as the most significant branches of the national economy. Their aim is to enhance nation's productive efficiency by way of regulating industry and commerce. They accepted trade and commerce were the most productive profession and the least productive was the agriculture.

Further, they wanted to receive all attention from the government as they believed that manufacturing industries were more closely connected with commerce. Still, we should not misunderstand that the mercantilists accepted agriculture as unimportant. Actually, their idea was that agriculture did not contribute directly for the growth of the country.

Wealth

To make the country strong was the fundamental aim of the mercantilists. The wealth of the country was the strength of the country. Especially they gave importance to the wealth which consisted of precious metals like gold and silver. According to mercantilists, gold was the basis of wealth and power. Hence, the slogan of mercantilist was 'more gold, more wealth and more power'. All the economic activities in the country were centred on wealth. As **Gray** said, "Everybody thought that his country was engaged in a race with other countries and in that race it must not be the loser".

It is presumed that the mercantilists should have drawn motivation from their predecessors. Because, throughout the middle ages power was considered to be synonymous with accumulation of treasure or precious metals especially in ancient Greece and Rome. Commerce was also given importance in this way. Columbus viewed "Gold is a wonderful thing; whoever possesses it, is a master of everything he desires; with gold one can get souls into paradise".

Emphasis on Money

In Mercantilism, Money was accepted as brighter than sun-shine and sweeter than honey. The merchants believed that money is essential for the development of trade. So, barter system was discarded. They believed, "Money is what money does". So Mercantilism was galvanised by money economy.

Profit and Interest

A notable economist, Moon advised to charge interest on principal amount of money was lent. By this, the amount of money was increased inside a country. By the charge of interest, it also enthused a trader to work hard to repay the money borrowed and also encouraged him to be rich. Thus, in Mercantilism, profit and benefit became two sides of the same coin.

Population

Mercantilists wanted to see the nation's strength in military field and to increase its productive capacity. So they encouraged large population. They supported the availability of cheap and abundant labour to keep the cost of manufacture low.

This would enable a country to sell its commodity at a lower price in the international market According to Davenant, "Individuals were the real strength of a country". The mercantilists also encouraged immigration as they would bring wealth and enrich the nation.

Medium of Manufacture

The exponents of Mercantilism put emphasis on 'land' and 'labour'. In the language of Pelletier "Labour is the father... as lands are the mother". So, Mercantilism delivered a message that a country should be economically prosperous. By this, a country should be self-sufficient in manufacture.

Natural Resources

To produce more, export more and import less; the mercantilists wanted to utilize all the natural resources of the country to the maximum extent. They also wanted to solve the food problem by attaching importance to agriculture in order. They developed colonies to supply the required raw materials for the industries. Moreover, the colonies were not authorized to export to foreign countries. To the mother country only, colonies had to export all commodities.

Encouragement to Capitalism

Mercantilism was meant to encourage capitalism. Mercantilism became more mobile by the capitalists' investment of capitals. Mercantilism could not flourish in any field without capital. This helped in the growth of trade and commerce.

Taxation

Mercantilists' views on taxation were exciting because they were more scientific and ahead of their time. Extensively speaking the mercantilists favoured a multiple tax system based on the principle of "each should pay according to the benefits received from the state".

Theory of Value

Regarding value, both subjective and objective approaches existed. Prior to the mercantilists, value was regarded as an intrinsic quality possessed by a commodity; it depended upon the utility of the commodity. Price was thus considered to be different from Value. Market value was recognised by the end of the mercantilist period. The value of a commodity was also determined by scarcity. Mercantilists believed that the normal value of a commodity depended on the cost of manufacture.

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Factors of Manufacture

Mercantilists recognised three significant factors of manufacture, namely, land, labour and capital. Sir William Petty once said “Labour is the father and active principle of wealth as land is the mother”. As per the Mercantilists, the cultivation of agricultural waste lands should be emphasised so that food manufacture might increase and the country would be self-sufficient. By which imports would be reduced.

Commercial Regulation

According to Mercantilists, commercial regulations were necessary for maximising social welfare. So, to restrict the import of food materials, commercial laws were passed. But no laws were passed to control the import of raw materials as they were necessary for the industrial development of the nation. The export industries and shipping were supported by the state to secure a favourable balance of trade.

Role of State

The mercantilists regarded the state as the supreme power for controlling the activities of the individuals. State was the master and its citizens, the servants. The mercantilists supposed that state’s intervention was necessary to solve different problems in the society. They understood that a strong nation was required for achieving success in wars.

All most all mercantilist writers were in the view that the economic policy must be framed in such a manner as to increase the power of the state as the entire economic resources of the world were limited. As a result they recommended the policy of protection. According to this idea, the state policies were shaped. To encourage exports and the development of industries, special acts were passed. As the main objective was to maintain a favourable balance of trade, protection was given to the industries.

Land Banking Schemes

Money making ideas of Mercantilists gave rise to the establishment of Land Banking Schemes. Chamberlin and Barbon first introduced Land Bank Schemes. Land banking is a real estate investment scheme that involves buying large blocks of undeveloped land. In the land banking scheme, property developers usually buy land, divide it into smaller blocks and offer it to investors for buying.

Occupation

Mercantilists assumed that merchants were the most money-making members of the society. Their role was the most important occupation in a nation. According to them, occupation was productive only if it increased wealth of a country.

2.2.5 Spread of Mercantilism in European States

Mercantilism spread in many countries of Europe such as England, France, Germany and Italy, Russia, Spain, Scotland, etc. According to Haney,

“Mercantilism comprises the economic views that prevailed among the European statesmen from 16th to 18th century”.

ENGLAND

In England, during the Long Parliament government (1640–60), mercantilism reached its peak. Throughout much of the Tudor and Stuart periods, mercantilist policies were embraced. In Britain, government command over the residential economy was far less broad than on the Continent, constrained by custom-based law and the consistently expanding intensity of Parliament. Government-controlled imposing business models were normal, particularly before the English Civil War, yet were frequently dubious.

In regard to its colonies, mercantilism in Britain meant that the government and the merchants became partners with the aim of growing political power and private wealth, to the segregation of other empires. The government always wanted to protect its merchants and keep others out through trade barriers, regulations, and subsidies to domestic industries with the objective of maximizing exports and minimize imports. In the 18th century, the government had to fight smuggling, which was a preferred American practice to avoid the limitations on trading with the French, Spanish, or Dutch. The objective of mercantilism was to continue trade surpluses, by which huge gold and silver would pour into London. The government took its share through duties and taxes. The government spent a lot of income on an outstanding Royal Navy, which not only secured the British colonies but endangered the colonies of the other empires, and occasionally seized them. By this, in 1664, British Navy captured New Amsterdam (New York). As the goal was to enrich the mother country, the colonies were made captive markets for British industry.

English mercantilist journalists were themselves isolated on whether domestic controls were fundamental. English mercantilism subsequently for the most part appeared as endeavours to control trade. A wide cluster of guidelines were set up to empower trades and demoralize imports. Taxes were put on imports and bounties given for trades, and the fare of some crude materials was restricted totally. The Navigation Acts ousted remote vendors from England’s residential exchange. The country forcefully looked for states and once under British control, guidelines were forced that permitted the province to just create crude materials and to just exchange with Britain. This prompted contact with the inhabitants of these settlements, and mercantilist arrangements, (for example, denying exchange with different realms and powers over pirating) were a significant aggravation prompting the American Revolution.

According to mercantilism, trade was a zero-sum game, with gain of one country equal to a loss continued by the trading partner. Mercantilist policies helped Britain to be turn into the world’s dominant trader and the global supremacy. The domestic policy that had a long lasting impact on Britain was the conversion of “waste lands” to agricultural use. Mercantilists understood that all land and resources had to be used to their highest and best use to maximize a nation’s power.

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FRANCE

The man who established mercantilism and increased its height in France was Jean-Baptiste Colbert, finance minister for 22 years in the 17th century. That's why, French mercantilism was also called Colbertism. Under Colbert's leadership, the government France was deeply involved in the economy to increase its wealth. France followed protectionist policies which enacted to restrict imports and increase exports. France organised its industries into guilds and monopolies, and regulated manufacture through a series of more than one thousand directives demarcating to produce different products. The objectives of mercantilism were simplified in terms of Colbertism to improve the structure of taxes. It was believed that the burden of taxes can enhance the nation's wealth and increase royal revenues which will help in improving trade and industry in the country.

Changes to Taxes

Colbert immediately struck back at the financiers and tax farmers who had made enormous profits from loans and advances to the state treasury, by holding tribunals to make them give back some of their gains. Colbert focused his attempts next on reforming the system of taxation. At the time, the Ruler derived the major part of his revenue from a tax called the *taille*, levied in some districts on individuals and in other districts on land and businesses. The *taille* was not a rate on income or manufacture but what the French call an import de reparation, which means its global sum was fixed in advance of the fiscal year by the royal council, which directed its officials to follow the idea that lower revenues in one district, had to be made up by higher revenues in another. However, in other districts the *taille* was apportioned and collected by royal officials, essentially meaning it was voted by the representatives of the province.

In the 16th century, the Crown understood that revenues from its indirect taxes would rise and fall in response to affluence and depression. So, such fluctuations were checked by the system of framing these indirect taxes, which reserved the bid prices as high and as steady as possible. But on the other hand, some clergy and nobles were exempted from the taxes.

Colbert wanted to levy the *taille* on all who should be taxed. He started a review of titles of nobility in order to expose those who were demanding exemption falsely and making the tax less oppressive by a fairer distribution. These reforms in combination with the close supervision of the officials concerned brought large sums into the treasury.

Changes to the Tariff System

He also transformed the tariff system, as a revised in 1664 as part of a system of protection. During the Renaissance in internal traits fairgrounds were applied to additional commodities and provinces. Rulers of Renaissance powerfully resisted the attempts of tax farmers to unify the administration of these taxes. When import tariffs were examined, it was seen that they were few and far between and that they appear to be devices to force merchants to buy import licenses rather than part of projects to build up the French industry.

Industrial Reforms

He spent a lot of energy trying to reorganize industry and commerce. He understood that in it was essential to grow France's share of international trade and reduce the commercial domination of the Dutch.

He gave importance to the manufacture of high-quality goods that could compete with foreign goods abroad. He also stressed on the building up of a merchant fleet to carry them.

Foreign workers were encouraged by him to bring their trade skills to France. He made regulations for every sort of manufacture to guarantee the standard of workmanship, and imposed fines for counterfeiting and shortcomings

Companies were encouraged that dedicated to building ships and monopolies for French commerce abroad were attempted to obtain through the formation of trading companies. Traders and contractors became angry by his system of control as they wanted to protect their freedom of action and to be accountable to them alone.

The ruler established monopoly privileges for a group of French lace manufacturers in May 1665. Here the main objective was to disallow anyone other than the privileged licensees from making lace.

On imported lace, protective tariffs were levied so that it could only be made in France. In 1667, all foreign lace was disallowed.

It was enforced manufacture and trade quality standard goods. This act perhaps slowed down innovation in new products, new technologies, and new methods of manufacture and trade.

He permitted monopolies, subsidized lavishness and the concession of cartels, and established a system of central bureaucracy. He created a formidable system of inspection, marks and measurements to be able to identify all those who were straying from the detailed list of state regulations.

A system of spies was created to check that nobody was differing from the system. Punishments were rated from heavy fines, public mockery or the inability to keep working in the industry.

As a consequence of the strictly enforced mercantilism and French absolutism, France was put out of the running as a leading nation in industrial or economic growth.

Decree of 1670

In 1670, Colbert made one of his most significant single policy statements in his famous memoire on finances. They can be described as follows: the purpose of economic statesmanship is to provide the ruler with the funds he requires for order and glory. Colonies can be established and nurtured, home manufacturing enhanced in quality, domestic transport system strengthened, the shipping manufacturing expanded and the idle forced to work. Budgetary control must be put on a sound basis and the dominant revenues must be built

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up as much as possible. The chief of this policy was the attempt to raise royal revenues indirectly, through economic developments. According to Colbert, the universal rule is to manage the economy and the financial system so that an enough quantity of cash will flow in every corner of the nation and giving all French the chance to make profits and pay taxes. His thought on increasing taxes was to “increase the cash available for general commerce by attracting cash from foreign countries, keeping it inside the kingdom, and hindering its export, thus giving men the ways to profit from it”.

SPAIN

High prosperity and glittering power of Spain in the 16th century was fuelled completely by the coming of silver and gold from the Spanish colonies in the New World. The flow of bullion supplied a means by which the Spanish could buy and enjoy the products of the rest of Europe and Asia. But in the long run, price inflation wiped out this temporary benefit.

The consequence was that when the influx of specie dried up, in the 17th century, little or nothing remained. The bullion prosperity also induced individuals and resources to move to southern Spain, especially the port of Seville, where the new specie entered Europe. The consequence was mal-investment in Seville and the south of Spain, offset by the crippling of potential economic growth in the north.

In the last part of the 17th century, the Spanish Crown cartelized the developing and promising Castilian textile industry by enacting over hundred laws planned to freeze the industry at the current level of growth. This freeze destroyed the protected Castilian cloth industry and crippled its competence, which led to its decline in European markets.

Royal action also regulated to destroy the flourishing Spanish silk industry, which cantered in southern Spain at Granada. A series of malicious acts were passed by the Spanish Crown which led the silk industry to its virtual demise. Firstly, many edicts radically restricted the domestic use and use of silk. Secondly, silks in the 1550s were not permitted from being exported, and tremendous taxes were increased on the silk industry of Granada.

In the 16th century, Spanish agriculture was also crippled and laid misused by government interference. The Castilian Crown was having an alliance with the Mesta, the guild of sheep farmers, who got special rights in return for heavy tax contributions to the monarchy. Between 1480s and 1490s, permission was not given to enclosures that had been made in previous years for grain farming and sheep walks were greatly expanded by government verdict at the cost of the lands of grain farmers.

Special legislation was passed on behalf of the carters' guild to hobble the grain farmers. Carters were specially allowed free passage on all local roads, and grain farmers were levied heavy taxes to build and maintain the roads benefiting the carters.

Grain prices rose throughout Europe in the beginning of the 16th century. The Spanish Crown, stressed that the rising costs may instigate a move of land

from sheep to grain, exacted most extreme value control on grain, while proprietors were allowed singularly to cancel rents and charge higher rates to grain farmers. The effect of the consequent cost-price squeeze was enormous farm bankruptcies, countryside depopulation, and the transfer of farmers to the towns or the armed forces. The strange outcome was that, by the end of the 16th century, Castile suffered from interrupted famines because imported Baltic grain could not easily be transferred to the interior of Spain, while simultaneously 1/3rd of Castilian farm land had become fallow waste.

In the interim, shepherding, so vigorously advantaged by the Spanish Crown, thrived for the first half of the sixteenth century, but soon fell victim to fiscal and market dislocations. As a result, Spanish shepherding fell into a sharp decrease.

The Spanish economy was also crippled as a whole due to heavy royal expenditures and taxes on the middle classes. The Spanish ruler, Philip II did three massive defaults in 1557, 1575 and 1596 respectively which destroyed capital and led to significant bankruptcies and credit stringencies in France and in Antwerp. The inability to pay Spanish imperial troops in the Netherlands in 1575 prompted a thoroughgoing sack of Antwerp by mutinying troops the next year in a blow out of plundering and rapine known as the “Spanish Fury.” The name stuck despite the fact that these were to a great extent German hired fighters.

The once free and colossally prosperous city of Antwerp was pushed to the edge of total collapse by a progression of statist measures during the late sixteenth century. Notwithstanding the defaults, the serious issue was an enormous endeavour by the Spanish ruler, Philip II, to clutch the Netherlands and to get rid of the Protestant and Anabaptist blasphemies.

In 1562, the Spanish ruler coercively shut Antwerp to its central import — English woollen broadcloths. Also, when the infamous duke of Alva expected the governorship of the Netherlands in 1567, he initiated suppression as a “Chamber of Blood,” which had the ability to torment, execute, and seize the property of blasphemers. Alva likewise exacted an overwhelming worth included duty of 10 percent, the alcabala, which served to injure the modern and interrelated Netherlands economy. Various talented woollen skilled workers fled to an affable home in England.

At long last, the breakaway of the Dutch from Spain during the 1580s, and another Spanish imperial default in 1607, prompted an arrangement with the Dutch two years after the fact, which polished Antwerp by removing its entrance to the ocean and to the mouth of the River Scassumedt, which was affirmed to be in Dutch hands. From that point on, for the rest of the seventeenth century, decentralized and free-advertise Holland, and specifically the city of Amsterdam, supplanted Flanders and Antwerp as the principle business and money related focus in Europe.

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IN OTHER NATIONS

We can see mercantilism to varying degrees in the other nations of Europe. The Netherlands was also called the financial centre of Europe by being its most well-organized trader. It always wanted to increase its trade and took few mercantilist policies. After the Thirty Years' War (1618–48), mercantilism became prominent in Central Europe and Scandinavia. Christina of Sweden, Jacob Kettler of Courland, and Christian IV of Denmark were the notable supporters of mercantilism.

The Holy Roman Emperors of Habsburg were having keen interest in mercantilist policies, but implementing such notions was difficult due to the vast and decentralized nature of their empire. Some constituent states of the empire like Prussia, under Frederick the Great embraced mercantilism and most rigidly regulated economy in Europe.

During the 17th century economic collapse, Spain had little coherent financial policy, but Philip V imported French mercantilist policies with achievements. In Russia, Peter I (Peter the Great) attempted to follow mercantilism, but had minor success because of the lack of a large merchant class or an industrial base in Russia.

2.2.6 Merits of Mercantilism

Mercantilism had numerous merits.

Firstly, the chief goal of Mercantilism was the prosperity of a country. It was simply marvelous to think about to make a country prosperous by commerce.

Secondly, it brought industrial growth. There was need of surplus for export. The growth of industry led to more manufacture which could meet the demand of the individuals and create surplus which was exported.

Thirdly, by this Mercantilism policies, the countries increased their foreign relations. Commercial and cultural relation also developed due to the increase of trade with foreign countries.

Fourthly, colonies were established by the growth of mercantilism. A country needed market to export surplus. So, new countries were attempted to be conquered by the **European countries** to establish their colonies in those places.

Fifthly, a country became powerful by mercantilism. The ruler became very cordial to the merchants because they brought more wealth to the nation. This wealth helped the ruler to maintain a large army which was its strength.

Finally, Mercantilism paved the way for new invention. When trade and commerce thrived, more demand was for new goods. It prompted individuals to invent new things to increase the potentiality of machines which could produce more. The new inventions brought revolutionary change in case of manufacture.

2.2.7 Demerits of Mercantilism

The demerits of Mercantilism were numerous.

Firstly, to put much emphasis on money was very bad. The merchants gave much importance on gold and silver which were by no means true wealth of a country. The natural resources and factories were the true wealth of a country. The European Mercantilism ran after **gold and silver** and could not serve individuals properly.

Secondly, this Mercantilism brought conflict among the European countries. Every country aimed to be more dominant in comparison to other. This was called the 'Balance of Power' in Europe.

Thirdly, Mercantilism created enmity among different countries as it gave birth to Colonialism. The European countries required markets for selling of their surplus. England, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Portugal etc. were in this race.

Fourthly, Mercantilism was one way traffic. It put emphasis on export but not import, it is not easy to be self-sufficient. Numerous countries of Europe became failure by trying to be self-sufficient which increased their miseries.

Fifthly, there was no necessity on the part of state to interfere in trade and commerce. In fact, it interfered in human rights. So, Adam Smith and Physiocrats emphasized on **Free Trade**.

Sixthly, Mercantilism preached an immoral principle that colonies only existed for mother countries. This maxim was proved wrong in later period. The colonies rebelled against mother countries for their rights. One of the great instances was the American War of Independence.

Seventhly, Mercantilism only put emphasis on trade and commerce. It neglected other aspects of life like **education**, agriculture, etc. So, Mercantilism was criticized later on.

Finally, Mercantilism accepted a wrong principle that a nation can rise at the cost of the other. This was not justified. It was only because this strained the relation between the two countries. So, Mercantilism brought hatred for a country against the other due to this.

2.2.8 Impact of Mercantilism on European Economy

Impact of mercantilism had its both positive and negative impact on the European economy.

POSITIVE IMPACT

A Prosperous Country

Mercantilism gave opportunity to the European countries to make profit and that paved the way for their countries to become prosperous. This was the world that was driven by money and economics which trumped everything else. It aimed only to focus on trade, commerce and business which brought for the

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individual better and more secured lives, more money to spend and all the riches that money could buy.

Economic Growth through more Trade

Mercantilism motivated the European countries to go for more trade, which further led to their economic growth. The increasing trade again facilitated the growth of industries. It was not confined to any one industry. Export of foods led to growth in agriculture. Manufacturing growth increased and that led to the export of all kinds of goods. Every facet of an industry or the larger economy experienced a boom because of mercantilism.

Jobs and Entrepreneurship

The economic growth in different countries of Europe had a direct impact on jobs. Individuals got work, they were paid well and the unemployment problem was ceased to be remain an issue. Mercantilism also boosted entrepreneurship. With more trade and higher profits, more aspiring entrepreneurs got funds and took risks to run their own businesses, also to expand and venture into new territories.

Greater Influence across the Continents

Mercantilism led to greater influence in a region and across continents. Nations who were depending on the goods and services of a country were indebted in numerous ways. Foreign relations among countries improved. The country benefiting from mercantilism had an irrefutable advantage too. They had now more resources, financial and military power. There were new inventions, encouraged by prosperity and the perennial quest for growth.

All Focused on Raw Materials

The goal of mercantilism was to build wealth, which meant any opportunity to do so is encouraged. As regard to trade, raw materials were hot goods for nations participating in mercantilism because they could be developed into finished goods and resold to foreign nations at a high price. It's a perfect instance of what it means to buy low and sell high.

Cultural Exchanges Increased among Countries

The rules of business had not been really transformed since the beginning of time. First and foremost, before any long-lasting relationships were created, a relationship must be formed. Because the base of the system of mercantilism was to carry on growing business opportunities, various cultural interactions were encouraged and these influences then improved the standards of living that individuals experience.

Development in Shipping

The mercantile period gave more emphasis to shipping. Due to the expansion of colonies and the shipment of gold and silver from the New World into Spain and Portugal, managing the oceans was considered very important to national power. The governments of that period developed strong merchant marines because ships could be used for merchant or military purposes. Jean-Baptiste

Colbert, the French finance minister under Louis XIV (from 1661 to 1683), increased port duties on overseas vessels entering French ports and supplied bounties to French shipbuilders.

Navigation Acts in England

In 1651, the English Navigation Act disallowed overseas vessels from engaging in coastal trade in England and required that all imported goods from Europe be carried on either by an English vessel or a vessel registered in the nation. Finally, only English or colonial vessels carried on all trade between England and its colonies. The Navigation Act was extended by the Staple Act of 1663 which required that all colonial exports to Europe be landed through an English port before being re-exported to Europe. In France, England, and other powers; Navigation policies were directed mainly against the Dutch, who dominated commercial marine activity in the 16th and 17th centuries.

Increase in Great Britain's National Wealth

During that period, Britain was the epicentre of the English Empire but sorry to say that it had very few natural resources. Aiming at to grow wealth, England started financial policies that disheartened colonists from buying foreign goods and it created incentives to buy only British products. For example, in 1764 British passed the Sugar Act which raised taxes on foreign refined sugar and molasses imported by the colonies. By this it helped the British sugar growers in the West Indies to be dominant on the colonial market. Another example was that of, the Navigation Act of 1651. This forbade foreign vessels from trading in the British coast and colonial exports were required first pass through British control before being redistributed all over Europe. These policies resulted in a favorable balance of trade and augmented Great Britain's national wealth.

France Increased its Wealth

French Controller General of Finance Jean-Baptiste Colbert (1619-1683) was the most influential proponent of mercantilism. He understood economic theories and foreign trade and executed these ideas very nicely. Colbert started an economic policy that protected the French crown from an increasing Dutch mercantile class. To make France militarily strong and to control its trade routes to increase its wealth, Colbert increased the size of the French navy. Though he was unsuccessful in this, his ideas were hugely popular till the popularization of the theory of free market economics in modern times.

British Colonial Mercantilism

Effects of mercantilist policy at home in the British colonies were both the direct and indirect. Below are several instances:

Mercantilism introduced enormous trade restrictions which stunted the growth and freedom of colonial businesses. Trade became triangulated between the British Empire, its colonies and foreign markets. This fostered the growth of the slave trade in many colonies, including America. The colonies supplied rum, cotton, and other products demanded by the mother imperialist countries.

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Even, slaves were traded for sugar and molasses who returned to America or the West Indies.

The British government demanded a positive balance of trade where gold and silver bullion would be only target. Due to the insufficient bullion left over to move in their markets, colonies issued paper currency. But, printed currency was mismanaged which resulted in economic inflation in colonies. Great Britain was in a constant state of war which required much booty for its army and navy. So heavy taxation was levied. The taxes combined with inflation resulted great colonial dissatisfaction.

Mercantilism and American Revolution

American Revolution was an outbreak of the mercantile attitude of the British in American colonies. The economic system of mercantile countries became stronger by marrying the concerns of colonies. Founding countries like Britain were benefited from receiving large amounts of raw material from the colonists which were necessary for a productive manufacturing sector.

The British Empire had a costly war with France which forced the Britain to replenish the loss by increasing revenue through raising taxes on colonies in America. Thus, the colonial people rebelled by boycotting British products, as a result slashing imports by a full one-third. This protest was marked by the Boston Tea Party in 1773, where colonists at Boston disguised themselves as Indians, raided three British ships, and threw the stuff of several hundred chests of tea into the harbor, to protest British taxes on tea and the monopoly permitted to the East India Company. To reinforce its mercantilist control, Great Britain pushed harder against the colonies, ultimately resulting in the Revolutionary War.

Emergence of a Merchant Class

Financial theorists of Europe understood the value of the merchant class to generate wealth. Moreover many economists assumed the state should franchise out its leading merchants to generate exclusive government-controlled monopolies and cartels. Governments used rules, subsidies, and army to defend these monopolistic corporations from home and foreign competition. Mercantilist corporations could be used for investment by Citizens in exchange for possession and limited liability in their imperial charters. Citizens those who invested were permitted “shares” of the company earnings.

The British and Dutch East India companies were the most famous and powerful mercantilist in Europe. The British East India Company was the most powerful mercantile corporation which maintained the special royally permitted right to carry out trade between Britain, India, and China with its trade routes secured by the Royal Navy.

Mercantilism Led to Imperialism

Mercantilist governments operate a nation’s economy to generate favorable trade balances. This process led to spreading of empire by the use of military force and mass immigration for trade in less-developed regions. For example,

British established colonies in distant lands to generate wealth and develop manufacturing industries in their own nation. One of the most powerful instances of the relationship between mercantilism and imperialism is Britain's establishment of the American colonies.

NEGATIVE IMPACT

Constant Strife among Countries

Mercantilism led to constant strife among the European countries. Every country wanted the best for itself and that led to protectionism, military conflict, sabotage and all kinds of heinous games in the international arena. Mercantilism was a one way traffic. Colonialism was direct fallout of mercantilism which panned out from the United States to India. The focus was mainly on money, everything else took a backseat, from human rights to will of individuals.

Exploitation of Colonies

Numerous colonies were also treated as a foreign nation in a system of mercantilism. As per this concept, the colonies were forced to surrender their local raw materials at a very cheap price and then to purchase finished machine made goods at a higher price than needed. This established a wealth difference between the different earning classes. In the system of mercantilism, the rich became richer and the poor workers became poorer. Eventually this created resentment, which led to rebellion, and ultimately it led to numerous colonies seeking out their own independence.

Military Conflicts

To achieve mercantilism, military might were frequently engaged by nations to protect local markets. To support the idea that a nation's economic health heavily relied on its supply of capital, supply sources were protected. Mercantilists also assumed that a nation's financial health could be examined by its levels of possession of valuable metals, like gold or silver. And that valuable wealth could be earned with augmented new home construction, improved agricultural production, and a strong merchant navy to supply extra markets with produce and raw materials.

Military conflict between nations was more common and more widespread during the mercantilist period, than at any other time in history. The armies and navies were no longer transitory forces; they were raised permanently to address an explicit threat. The primary economic objective of each government was to command an enough quantity of hard currency to maintain a military that would prevent attacks by other nations and aid expansion of more territories.

Class System

The policy of mercantilism resulted in a nexus between the administration and the merchant classes. The latter were encouraged to increase industrial output, and any competition in the market was forbidden by law, which enabled the merchants to become even wealthier. The government also benefited from

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levying taxes on the revenue earned by the merchants. On the other hand, the oppression of the lower classes was encouraged, since it was thought that keeping them poor was the key to obtaining labour for more industrial manufacture. So, mercantilism led to a widening economic divide between the upper and lower sections of society.

Rise of Super Powers

European nations like Great Britain and France became superpowers with a strong economy and military by aiming more at export, and growing their stores of valuable metals. Since most of the trade was carried via sea routes, this gave them a reason to expand and strengthen their navies, both to protect their trade routes and for territorial expansion to obtain more colonies. The focus on increasing domestic output resulted in the development of a highly-skilled labour force in these countries, which was also a consequence of other policies, like encouraging the immigration of manufacturers from their colonies and other nations.

Smuggling

The passing of laws which favoured mercantilism led to the establishment of a thriving smuggling industry, especially in the colonies of America. The crown was forced to send British inspectors to regulate colonial trade because a great expanse of ocean separated them from England. However, this distance ensured a lax enforcement of laws, and the colonies could freely smuggle goods in and out of sea ports. Moreover, since the inspectors received meagre salaries from the British government, they were engaged in taking bribes in order to turn a blind eye to trade violations.

Triangular and Slave Trade

Great Britain's policy of mercantilism led to the development of the popular Triangular Trade in the colonial province of New England. Rum was a major product of the province, which was exported to Africa in exchange for slaves. These slaves were then traded in West Indies in exchange for sugar and molasses. These raw products were required for rum manufacture. As can be seen, this also encouraged the African slave trade.

Impoverishment of Colonies

The mercantile system led to the impoverishment of colonies like India. In the 17th and 18th centuries, India was a colony controlled by a British monopoly, called the East India Company. The country had to export raw materials like cotton, indigo, and salt to Britain, where they were extremely taxed on entry. Further, the colonists were forced to import costly goods for their use only from Britain. This system worsened their living conditions, leading to a catastrophic famine in the province of Bengal in 1770, killing almost 10 million individuals. Similarly, in colonial America, the southern states like Virginia and Maryland were agricultural economies, which were heavily affected by British policies that had drastically reduced the rate of tobacco produce.

2.2.9 Decline of Mercantilism

The following factors led to the fall of Mercantilism.

- Democracy and free trade destroyed mercantilism in the late 1700s. American and French revolutions formalized large nations ruled by democracy. They endorsed capitalism.
- Under the influence of the teachings of Smith, policy of plenty began to replace the policy of power. The development of Banking reduced the importance of bullion and coins.
- Further, the expansion of market economy showed that real estates, factories and machinery were more significant items of wealth than gold and silver.
- The economic growth during the Industrial Revolution created a large competition in the society. It was realized that the wealth of all nations could be increased simultaneously by efficient utilization of natural resources and through the progress made in science and technology.
- Adam Smith finished mercantilism with his 1776 publication of “The Wealth of Nations.” He argued that foreign trade strengthens the economies of both countries. Each country specializes in what it produces best, giving it a comparative advantage. He also explained that a government which put business ahead of its individuals would not last. Smith’s laissez-faire capitalism coincided with the rise of democracy in the United States and Europe.
- In 1791, mercantilism was broke down, but free trade hadn’t yet developed. Most countries still regulated free trade to enhance domestic growth. U.S. Treasury Secretary Alexander Hamilton was a proponent of mercantilism. He advocated government subsidies to protect infant industries necessary to the national interest. The industries needed government support until they were strong enough to defend themselves. Hamilton also projected tariffs to reduce competition in those areas.
- Fascism and totalitarianism adopted mercantilism in the 1930s and 1940s. After the stock market crash of 1929, countries used protectionism to save jobs. They reacted to the Great Depression with tariffs. The 1930 Smoot-Hawley Act slapped 40-48 percent tariffs on 900 imports. When other countries retaliated, global trade fell 65 percent, prolonging the depression.

Thus, Mercantilism created a new chapter in the annals of European history. It played a vital role in making the European countries progressive. Numerous countries of Europe encouraged the intervention of state in commercial activities for the increase of national wealth and power. This gave birth to ‘Mercantilism’ which played a vital role for the economic prosperity of a country. This Mercantilism created a milestone in the field of European Economy. On the other hand, it sowed the seeds of numerous rise and fall. This gave birth to colonialism which made the entire Europe a Military Camp.

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Check Your Progress

1. Define the word mercantilism.
2. What was mercantilism called in France?

2.3 BEGINNING OF COLONIALISM

The term colonialism refers to a large-scale political and economic system that allows one nation-state to establish controls beyond its traditional geographic borders in the service of increased profit or power. Colonialism slowly inspired the nation states to extend their empire with absolute control which led to the process of imperialism. Colonialism and imperialism resulted with conflicts and war. History saw many devastation and slavery due to the spread of colonialism and imperialism. The growth of liberalism and nationalism led to the decline of both colonialism and imperialism.

2.3.1 Factors of Colonialism

There were several factors which facilitated the rise of colonialism. Especially colonialism was developed by the European states in Afro-Asian countries on the basis of certain congenial factors.

Surplus Production

Industrial revolution marked a great change in the economic sector of the society. It also resulted in surplus production. Due to industrial revolution industrial production was increased to a great extent. The industrial countries like Germany, Italy, England, the USA and France became anxious to sell their surplus finished goods. So they searched for new markets. The business group in these countries pressurised their government to capture colonies. They encouraged to establish their rule in undeveloped countries. This formed the basis of imperialism.

Plenty of Capital

Industrial revolution resulted in the accumulation of capital. In the consequence of industrialisation the European industrialists gathered plenty of capital. They looked for profitable channels of investments. They invested this surplus capital in various industries in colonies and obtained huge profit.

Necessity of Raw Materials

The high demand for new materials by the industrialized countries was also one of the potent factors of colonialism and imperialism. The demand for raw materials such as rubber, tin, tungsten manganese, iron, cotton and vegetable oil etc was high for industrial production. Thus the industrialised countries were motivated to capture colonies. In those colonies natural resources were available in plenty at a cheap rate. Britain established her control over Egypt because she needed Egyptian cotton for her textile. Furthermore, the European countries searched markets for their manufactured goods. These colonies were ready markets for them.

Transport and Communication

As a result of industrial revolution means of transport and communication was developed to a great extent. The invention of railways, telephone, telegraph, steamship and postal system helped the man to conquer time and space. The steamships facilitated trade relation with distant lands. The refrigeration in ships was started in 1880. So fruits, cheese and eggs were easily carried to distant colonies. Business deals were also maintained in telegraph and cable. In 1869 the Suez canal was opened. It reduced the sea route to India by 24 days.

Population Growth

In the nineteenth century the population of Europe increased very rapidly. Due to increase in population the European countries faced serious unemployment problem. There was also the problem of dwelling place. An easy solution of the problem was to make a large number of people settled in other countries. This gave birth to imperialism and colonialism. Both Germany and Japan carved out colonial empires in Africa and China to rehabilitate their surplus population

Political Factor

In reality, imperialism is an outcome of the political and economic needs of a country. The writers, thinkers and politicians also encouraged the task greatly. The influence of such nationalists in England, France, Belgium, Portugal, Italy and Germany, etc., promoted colonialism. Italy, Russia, etc., joined in the colonial race only for political motivation. France entered Africa to capture Cyprus and Cape of Good Hope. For national interest Italy captured Libya. England got Egypt under its protection.

Role of Merchant Class

In the establishment of colonialism and imperialism the merchant class contributed a lot. This class always thought of the expansion of its business. They were staunch supporters of imperialism. They always searched for new markets to sell their manufactured items including arms and ammunitions. The owners of Big Shipping Companies and Bankers had also significant role in the growth of imperialism.

Spirit of Nationalism

Ardent national feeling was also an important cause of imperialism and colonialism. Guided by the spirit of nationalism various European states were eager to expand their power in the world. For instance, Germany and Italy had dreamt of expansion of their empires. France hoped to restore her glory by increasing her colonies. Many nationalist countries wanted to have colonies for military and naval base.

Role of Christian Missionaries

Christian missionaries have played a key role in the spread of European imperialism. The intention of Christian missionaries was to preach Christianity. That was considered as a good means of expansion of empire. The European countries also directly supported Christian missionary activities. For instance,

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when two German priests were murdered in China in the later half of the nineteenth century, Germany captured one of the Chinese ports.

Furthermore, imperialism also directly inspired the missionaries. Dr. David Livingstone of England was in the interiors of Africa for twenty years. He explored the river basins of Congo and Zambezi. He gave the idea to his countrymen that the land of Africa was fit for commercial expansion and the spread of Christianity. The Christian missionaries besides preaching Christianity in Asia and Africa worked for the expansion of political and economic influence of their country. The French Christian missionary Cardinal Leveque of France set up his missionary centre and France occupied, Tunis. The influence of Belgium was also noticed due to the efforts of the Belgian priests.

Pretence of Divine Holy Task

The Europeans had the of superiority. They believed that the civilization of the whit was superior to that of the black in Afro-Asian countries. They felt that it was their divine duty to civilise the black races of the world. So the Christian missionaries undertook various welfare works to serve the backward people. However, in the name of redeeming the undeveloped people and for the benevolent and humanitarian activities European states maintained their imperialism.

Geographical Discovery

New geographical areas were discovered with the age of renaissance. By the end of nineteenth century geographical explorations reached climax and sowed the seeds of imperialism. The navigators and adventurers explored new lands in Africa and Asia. The discovery of new lands encouraged the various countries to establish their colonies these. Spain and Portugal set up colonies in central and South America after the discovery of Columbus. Similarly only after Vasco-Da-Gama discovered of sea route to India, Portugal succeeded in setting up her colonies there. The European countries also entered into Africa after the discovery of the continent of Africa by Livingstone and Stanley.

Weakness of Afro-Asian Continents

The Continents of Asia and Africa were very backward. These continents were industrially undeveloped. The craftsmen and artisans were skilled enough to make beautiful articles which were very popular in the European countries. However, there was no industrial revolution. The artisans used hand tools and produced goods on a small scale. Their production technique was also outdated. Politically and militarily these countries were weak and ill organised. Their governments were powerless and controlled by the feudal system of administration. No nation state was there. The rulers were indifferent to public welfare. These circumstances were favourable to the European nations. Gradually they succeeded in grabbing the whole country with the support of the government. Thus Asia and Africa were very vulnerable for exploration and expansion of their empire.

2.3.2 Colonization of Asia

The process of colonization of Asia started in fifteenth century. A **Portuguese** navigator named Vasco-da-Gama discovered the sea route to India. It led the foundation of Portuguese settlement in India. Goa, Daman and Diu were occupied. **Portuguese** were followed by **the Dutch, the French and the English**. There was power struggle amongst the European imperial countries. Finally British succeeded and India became one of the important colonies of England. Later on English set up her colonialism and imperialism in India.

In south-east Asia colonialism first started in 1640. Malacca was captured by **the Dutch**. They also settled in Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Bali, etc., Ceylon was captured by the Dutch. But it was lost to the British during the Napoleonic wars. In this way, the Dutch set up a vast empire in south-east Asia.

England and France were other two powerful imperial nations in south-east Asia. The English occupied Burma. They made their settlement at Singapore in 1809 and Hong Kong was captured from China in 1842 after the Opium war. On the other hand, France occupied Tongking, Annam, Cambodia and Cochin.

Russia, Germany and Japan also carved out colonies and developed their sphere of influence in Asia. The European imperialist nations forced China to free her ports for the European traders. Further More, Russia occupied Port Arthur and some ports of Manchuria Germany occupied Kiao Chow. Japan occupied Korea and Formosa. Gradually Japan increased her power in China and captured Manchuria in 1931 in spite of the protest of the League of Nations. Japan also made efforts to uphold her influence on the whole south-east Asia. The activity of Japan greatly resented the European imperial powers. They used Atom Bomb against Japan for her surrender.

Central Asia was captured by Russia and Britain. Tashkent, Samarkand and Bokhana were occupied by Russia. Afghanistan was also under her influence. But Russia was obstructed by the British. There was also clash between Russia and Britain in Persia. In 1907 an agreement was signed regarding Persia. According to the treaty their political influences in the northern part of Persia was under Russia and the southern part was under British. Germany was also interested to enhance her influence in this region. However, her plans failed.

2.3.3 Colonization of Africa

Colonial supremacy in Africa began in the nineteenth century. The first colonial power in Africa was **Belgium**. The king Leopold II of Belgium financed Morton Stanley and David Livingstone for the exploration of Africa. They explored the rich Congo Basin. It was annexed by Belgium in 1907. Another great colonial power in Africa was **Germany**. Germany annexed Togoland and Cameroons. In short, she captured east Africa and south-west Africa. But all these areas were lost by Germany after her defeat in the first world war.

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France was also a great colonial power in Africa. She occupied certain parts of western coast of Africa. In the mid-nineteenth century France established her colonies in Algeria, Tunis, Madagascar, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Lake Chad, desert of Sahara, Senegal, and Morocco. France also set up her control over Egypt. Later on, she gave up that area to **Great Britain**. The colonial powers, the Portuguese, the Italians, and the Spaniards got less success in Africa Mozambique. **Italy** occupied Eritrea, Somaliland, Libya and Tripoli Spain controlled Canary Islands and Guinea Coast.

However the maximum portions of Africa was grabbed by **Great Britain**. She had colonies in all parts of Africa, East, West, North and south Under the efforts of Cecil Rhodes Britain enjoyed share in Africa Britain had colonies in South Africa and they were, Rhodesia, Naysaland, Cape Colony, Bechuanaland, Gold Coast and Sierra Leone. In the East and West Africa, the British trading companies were protector of Uganda, Kenya and Nigeria. Britain also occupied Somaliland and Sudan. After her victory in the Boer war Britain occupied Orange free state and Transval. On the Whole, by the end of the nineteenth century Britain had under her control over five thousand million square miles of Africa. Britain was the largest colonial power in Africa.

2.3.4 Decline of Colonialism

The practice of colonialism suffered from debacle in the wake of first world war. At that time, there was emergence of nationalism in Afro-Asian countries. The development of education Press and growth of democracy etc. caused political consciousness in the Afro-Asian countries. They demanded self government. Later on, the imperial powers faced serious socio-political problems. So they were unable to maintain their control over their colonies.

In the face of growing losses suffered by them in the two world wars, in the rising tide of nationalism the position of the European powers weakened. So they were obliged to withdraw from their colonies and granted them freedom. The United Nation Organisation had also significant role in the process of decolonisation.

2.3.5 Impact of Colonialism

Scholars have divergent views on impact of western colonialism and imperialism in Asia and Africa. Some scholars view that it greatly contributed in civilizing the backward countries of Africa and Asia. It developed the living standard of the people. The imperialism and colonialism contributed a lot in the development of educational institutions, transport and communication, trade and commerce etc. In Short, it contributed to the welfare of the native people. But some other scholars vehemently opposed to the above view points and consider imperialism to be responsible for exploitation, misery, poverty, cruelty, conversion, degradation and racial segregation. They were of the opinion that imperialism was rapacious and immoral. The imperialist powers were selfish and their intention was exploitation of the colonies. So there are two types of views on the impact of colonialism and imperialism. Both the views are

partially truth. In fact it had both positive and negative results. These can be conveniently discussed under the following heads.

Political Results

Colonialism was blessing in disguise for the colonial countries from the political point of view. It had the following political results.

- 1. Political Unity:** Imperialism and colonialism provided political unity to the colonies. There was dissensions and strife in the colonies before the arrival of the western powers. For instance India obtained her political unity only under British imperialism which was not achieved at any stage in her past history. It was possible due to development of railways, modern means of means of transport and communication, press, introduction of English language and a uniform system of administration. This paved the way for the growth of nationalism in India. It ultimately motivated the Indians to overthrow the British from India.
- 2. Introduction of Western Ideas:** In the Afro-Asian countries the western ideas like nationalism, democracy, constitutionalism, etc., prevailed only for western imperialism and colonialism. The various imperialist powers implanted their ideas and institutions in their colonies. They unconsciously helped the colonial countries of Asia and Africa.
- 3. Efficient System of Administration:** The imperial powers introduced efficient system of administration in their colonies. Their motto was to promote the interest of the imperialist powers. They paid little attention to the well being and welfare of the natives. Besides these, the native people were not given adequate representation in the civil services and excluded from higher positions. In spite of these drawbacks, the imperials administrative system enlightened the colonial people about the system of western administration.
- 4. Beginning of Slavery System:** Colonialism and imperialism led to the rise of slavery. Slave trade was one of the lucrative trades under the process of colonialism and imperialism. The practice began with the Portuguese raid in African villages in the 15th century. They enslaved the people and transported them to America. In fact, regular slave market was emerged. This slave trade resulted in the migration of millions of Africans from their homes. They had miserable and deplorable socio-economic life.
- 5. Rivalry of the European Powers:** There was serious competition among the European powers. The colonialism and imperialism sowed the seeds of bitter rivalry among the European powers. Series of wars took place for the occupation of various colonies. For instance there was Carnatic war bitterly known as Anglo-French war in between England and France in India. France and Germany also clashed over Morocco in Africa.

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Economic Results

From the economic point of view imperialism and colonialism contained both positive and negative effects. On the positive side it led to the development of industries in Asia and Africa. The European imperial powers set up various industries in their colonies to get more profits. This paved the way for the industrialisation of the colonies. The imperialist powers built long lines of railways and banking houses. Of course their intensive intention was to plunder the wealth of the colonies. In reality all this proved to be a boon for the colonies.

On the other hand, the imperial powers exploited the colonies economically. They imported raw materials at the cheapest possible rates and exported the finished products at very exorbitant rate. They systematically destroyed the local cottage industries, trade and commerce by enacting various taxation laws. This policy of systematic exploitation resulted in the draining of wealth. It greatly contributed to poverty, starvation and backwardness of the colonies

Social and Cultural Result

Imperialism and colonialism had serious consequences in social and cultural fields. The results can be narrated as follows:

- 1. Impact on Religion:** Colonialism and imperialism adversely affected the religions of the colonial people. The local people were impressed by the Christian missionaries. They offered the local people certain material benefits. As a matter of fact Christianity became a thriving religion in many Afro-Asian countries.
- 2. Infrastructural Development:** Infrastructural development was made by the Christian missionaries. They had key role in providing certain social services to the local people in the form of hospitals, dispensaries, schools colleges etc. They contributed significantly enlightening for the people of Asia and Africa.
- 3. Racial Segregation:** Colonialism and imperialism caused racial segregation. The European rulers expressed their superiority over the Asian and African counterparts. They tried to impose the European culture on them. Furthermore, they had the notion that white races are superior to the black races. Therefore, they also enacted various discriminatory laws against the local people. For instance, in India the Indians were not allowed to travel in the some railway compartment in which the Europeans were travelling. The racial segregation policy greatly undermined the moral tone of the local population.
- 4. Divide and Rule Policy:** The imperialists adopted 'divide and rule' policy in the colonies to retain their rule. They tried to divide the local people and made them fight among themselves. The policy of 'divide and rule' followed by the British in India resulted in the partition between India and Pakistan.

In Short, Imperialism and colonialism had deep impact on Afro-Asian countries. It greatly influenced the political, economic and social life. It resulted in untold misery to humanity.

Thus, colonialism and imperialism spread conflicts and war in the continents which led to many devastation and slavery. Many European countries showed their supremacy and growth through increasing their colonial power in Asian and African continents. Poverty and exploitation among the colonial people converted into revolts and movements in the long run. The concept of liberalism and nationalism spread wide scale and led to the decline of both colonialism and imperialism.

Check Your Progress

3. Define the term Colonialism.
4. When was the process of colonization started in Asia?

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2.4 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

In the latter half of the 18th century, the *Industrial Revolution* marked a period of development that transformed largely rural, agrarian societies in Europe and America into industrialized, urban ones. It can be called as a transition incorporated going from hand manufacture methods to machines; new chemical manufacturing and iron manufacture processes, the increasing use of steam power, the expansion of machine tools and the rise of the factory system. The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain, and numerous of the technological innovations were of British origin. Britain became the world's leading commercial nation by the mid-18th century. Britain had controlled a worldwide trading empire with colonies in North America and the Caribbean, and with some political control on the Indian subcontinent, through the activities of the East India Company. The major causes of the Industrial Revolution development were the rise of trade and of business.

During the Industrial Revolution, Britain's population quadrupled from an estimated 6.5 million individuals in 1750 to around 32.5 million in 1900. This increase was mainly a consequence of improved living standards and declining demise rates. Thousands of new factories and mills were built across Britain which transformed Britain's economy and society. Before the Industrial Revolution, 80 percent of the population of Britain lived in the countryside and only 20 percent in the cities. Industrialisation reversed this pattern. By 1850, 80 percent of individuals in Britain were living in a major city or town and only 20 percent remained in the rural areas.

A major turning point was marked in the history because of the rise of the Industrial Revolution. Almost every aspect of everyday life was influenced in some way or other. By this process, regular income and population began to show unparalleled sustained growth. According to some economists, due to the industrial revolution the standard of living for the general population began to increase consistently for the first time in history. While GDP per capita was

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broadly stable before the Industrial, the Industrial Revolution began an era of per-capita economic increase in capitalist economies. Economic historians are in agreement that the onset of the Industrial Revolution is the most significant event in the history of humanity since the domestication of animals and plants.

2.4.1 The Term Industrial Revolution

Auguste Blanqui, a French economist coined the term “Industrial Revolution” in 1837 to denote the economic and social changes arising out of the transition from industries continued at homes with hand tools, to industries in factories with power-driven machinery in Britain. The term came into vogue when Arnold Toynbee, the great historian, used it in 1882. Moreover, historians doubts in the suitability of the term on the position that the Industrial Revolution covers a period far too long to validate a single label. The period is from about 1740 to about 1850 in Britain and from 1815 to the end of the nineteenth century in Europe.

It is also recommended that as a substitute of calling it the Industrial Revolution, it should be called “The Transition of Industrialism”. The term industrial Revolution is preferred and is in common usage in spite of these objections. European society was mainly agricultural up to the middle of eighteenth century. Earlier, industries were confined to the “domestic” sphere. No machinery or water- power or steam engines were there to operate those industries.

The Industrial Revolution brought a series of changes in the methods of manufacture, manufacture and distribution and drastically affected the economic and social life of the individuals. It transformed an overwhelmingly agricultural society into an industrial society. This revolution was not a revolution in the normal sense of the word. Revolutions are commonly associated with suddenness, violence and bloodshed. However, the Industrial Revolution was free from all these characteristics.

2.4.2 England: The Birthplace of the Industrial Revolution

(Why the industrial revolution began in England?)

In the 2nd half of the eighteenth century, the Political and economic circumstances in England were the most appropriate for the commencement of the Industrial Revolution. It enriched her and gave her a lead over all other European countries. From England it spread to the continent of Europe and further to abroad almost 50 years later.

1. Rise of British Power

Britain’s authority and wealth as an empire was one of the key factors that led to the start of the Industrial Revolution in Britain. The expansion of British Empire took place in different parts of world like America, Asia, Africa and the Pacific. Britain’s superior naval strength ensured that it succeeded in becoming the dominant imperial power in the world.

2. Britain's Coal supplies

Britain was fortunate to have large supplies of **iron and coal** which are the life-blood of industry. They were found in abundance in close proximity to each other in Lancashire and Yorkshire. Both of these minerals were needed in the manufacture of machines and manufacture of steam. Moreover, the moist climate of England was ideally suited to the manufacture of cotton textiles.

3. Agrarian Revolution in England

The Industrial Revolution was preceded by **Agrarian Revolution in England**. **Jethro Tull** (1674- 1741) invented a drill which deposited the seeds in straight furrows with adequate space in between to help luxuriant growth. Tull is rightly called the father of scientific agriculture.

Viscount Townshend (1674-1738) turned his lands into an agricultural laboratory. He is called the founder of the innovation commonly known as **the rotation of crops**. He recommended a system of four-year rotation which means wheat in the first year followed by turnips in the second, barley in the third and cloves in the fourth. By this system of rotation of crops, income from agriculture became doubled.

In the field of **cattle-breeding**, **Robert Backwell** attempted in 1750 a novel method of mating the finest specimens with a certain breed and then making their off springs mate with off springs of better breeds of species. The consequence was that more meat was available for human consumption at cheaper rates. At the end of the eighteenth century, iron ploughs drawn by horses began to displace wooden ploughs drawn by oxen.

A **new threshing machine** displaced the existing threshing implement. In 1834, **Mc Cormick** developed a new reaper which revolutionized the process of harvesting. Increased agricultural output was achieved by the new trend of enclosures.

4. Contribution of Landlords to Agriculture

Enterprising landlords started enclosing the common land, reclaiming marshland, consolidating their strips into “unified fenced off fields” by brow-beating or intimidator tactics. They also got passed through Parliament Enclosure Acts which enabled the landlords to add millions of acres of land to their estates. This encouraged greater investment by landowners and higher manufacture was the consequence. Food supply increased substantially as new methods of cattle-breeding meant fatter cattle yielding more meat and also more cereals. England virtually became the “granary of Europe”.

5. Availability of Labour

On the countryside of Britain, many persons were forced to leave their lands. They all came to cities and thus labour was available in England for the new factories which started as a result of the Industrial Revolution. Thus, we can say that agricultural revolution in England paved the way for the starting of the Industrial Revolution.

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6. Naval Power of Britain

A very old and popular industry in England was ship-building. England had a powerful navy which had defeated all her rivals like the Dutch and the French. She was the undisputed mistress of the seas. This enabled her to build up an enormous and lucrative trade. Her ships sailed to numerous parts of the world and brought raw material, tobacco, tea, sugar, spices and cotton in large quantities. England acquired many colonies and established a few settlements.

7. Foreign Trade

British expansion beyond the seas opened up new vistas of foreign trade. As her foreign trade expanded, she realized the necessity of keeping pace between exports and imports. She felt the necessity of giving importance to domestic industries to meet the augmented demands. Due to the export of more and more goods and capturing foreign markets through supplying manufactured goods, England became the richest country of the world.

8. Capitalist Spirit

Capitalist spirit required great effort. Stakes were high and the prize was worth attaining. The English capitalists and inventors rose to the occasion. There was a strong urge among the individuals to improve manufacture and that prompted the individuals to make a number of inventions.

9. Superior Banking System

The Bank of England which was started in 1694 and the National Debt were institutions of great importance. They were brought into existence to provide ready money to finance the war against Louis XIV Loans were made available to the state on the security of the taxes. In peaceful times, that money was available for economic and industrial development at a nominal rate of interest. It is said that “The engines of the Industrial Revolution which made England so rich and powerful that she was able to stand the strain of Napoleonic wars were moved by the oil of finance, and at the heart of the English financial system stood the Bank.”

10. Stable Political Condition

Industrial Revolution used the favorable political condition of England properly. England was a free and peaceful country. Due to her stable parliamentary system of Government, there were no political upheavals and domestic violence to worry her. Peaceful political conditions provided a suitable environment for the growth and development of commerce and industry. The nation was felt more secured to invest money in the economy. Thus, the capitalists of England securely invested money and were not scared of a change of Government.

11. Spirit of Adventure

Englishmen had established wide contacts with different countries of the world. Their spirit of adventure which was confined to maritime activity was now

turned to other spheres. A large number of talented English workers applied their energy and knowledge to industrial development and invented a large number of machines.

No other country in Europe had so numerous potentialities for industrial development. Forces were favorable for a change in England. England was provided with money by the Industrial Revolution to fight wars against Revolutionary France and Napoleon.

2.4.3 Agricultural Background

Between the mid- 17th and late 19th centuries, Britain saw the Agricultural Revolution which meant unprecedented increase in agricultural manufacture due to increases in labour and land productivity. This development paved the way for the Industrial Revolution. Over the century to 1770, Agricultural output grew faster than the population and thereafter productivity became among the highest in the globe. Due to this increase in the food supply, Britain saw the rapid growth of population from 5.5 million in 1700 to over 9 million by 1801.

During the Agricultural Revolution, numerous efforts were taken. Forests were cleared, grazing pastures were turned over to crop rising, and low-lying marshes were drained to grow even more crops. Small plots of farmland were consolidated into larger, more efficient fields under the enclosures. As a consequence, over 100 years Britain increased its farmlands by 30 per cent. For the first time, agriculture became a business. Now farmers began producing excess amounts of food with the objective of selling it for profit. Landowners began investing more money in better livestock, fences and farming equipment. They also started increasing high-yield crops such as wheat and barley. Improved farming techniques and equipment led to increases in crop manufacture. For instance, the amount of wheat produced in Britain increased by 75 per cent between 1700 and 1800.

2.4.4 Major Developments and Innovations in Agriculture

The British Agricultural Revolution was the consequence of the complex interaction of social, economic and farming technology changes.

Enclosure

The process of enclosing property accelerated in the 15th and 16th centuries. The British Parliament passed more than 4000 Enclosure Acts (laws) during the Agricultural Revolution. By these Acts, areas of common land that had previously been worked by small groups of local farmers were transferred into the hands of private landowners. Large farms were created out of these smaller areas of land by joining together and were enclosed by hedges or stone walls. By this, the local famers could no longer graze their animals or farm the land. Other land like the land called 'waste land' was also enclosed. It was seen that three-quarters of all farming land in Britain

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was enclosed by wealthy landlords by 1790. These landlords then rented this land to tenant farmers.

The more productive enclosed farms meant that fewer farmers were needed to work the same land, leaving numerous villagers without land and grazing rights. Numerous of them moved to the cities in search of work in the emerging factories of the Industrial Revolution. Others settled in the English colonies. To help these newly poor, English Poor Laws were enacted. The Church denounced some of the practices of enclosure, and legislation was prepared against it. But, from the 16th to 18th centuries, the large enclosed fields were required for the gains in agricultural output.

Crop Rotation

Development of crop rotation was one of the most significant innovations of the British Agricultural Revolution. For about centuries, farmers had experienced a procedure known as crop rotation, which concerned leaving a land fallow (unused) for a time in order to keep away from exhausting the soil. However, in 1730 a new method of crop rotation was introduced by a landowner named **Charles Townshend** on his farm that became known as the 'four field system'. He started growing wheat in the 1st field, barley in the 2nd, root vegetables (like carrots and turnips) in the 3rd and clover in the 4th. Every season, he rotated the crops (shifted around), by which no field was left uncultivated and he kept the soil in each field with high in minerals and nutrients (like nitrogen). He harvested wheat and barley for humans, while the uncultivated period was now replaced by clover, which was now used by grazing animals. Due to this development of the four-field system Charles Townshend earned the nickname Turnip Townshend.

The Dutch and Rotherham Swing (wheel-less) Plough

In the early 17th century, the Dutch acquired the iron-tipped, curved mouldboard, adjustable depth plough from the Chinese. It had the benefit of being capable to be pulled by one or two oxen compared to the six or eight required by the heavy wheeled northern European plough. The Dutch contractors, who were hired to drain East Anglian fens and Somerset moors, brought the Dutch plough to Britain. The plough was tremendously successful on wet, boggy soil, but was soon utilised on normal land.

Development of a National Market

Markets were extensive by 1500 with about 800 locations in Britain. These were regulated and not free. The most significant development between the 16th century and the mid-19th century was the development of private marketing. By the 19th century, marketing was nationwide and the vast majority of agricultural manufacture was for market rather than for the farmer and his family.

The subsequently stage of development was trading between markets, needing merchants, credit and forward sales, information of markets and pricing and of supply and demand in different markets. Eventually by 1700, the market evolved into a national one driven by London and other growing cities, a national market for wheat was create.

Transportation Infrastructures

High wagon transportation though costly made it easy to transfer commodities very far outside the market radius by road. Still, water transport was much more efficient than land transport. In the 1st half of 19th century, it cost as much to transport a ton of cargo 32 miles by wagon over an unimproved road as it did to ship it 3000 miles across the Atlantic. At most one ton of freight could be pulled by a horse on a Macadam road, that to it was multi-layer stone covered and crowned, with side drainage. But, a barge weighing over 30 tons could be pulled by a single horse.

By the expansion of roads and inland waterways trade and commerce expanded. Road transport capacity grew from threefold to fourfold from 1500 to 1700. Railroads would eventually reduce the cost of land transport by over 95%; however they did not become significant until after 1850.

Land Conversion, Drainage and Reclamation

Many other ways were adopted to get more land. One of the examples was to convert some grazing land into arable land and recover marsh land and some pastures. Through these land conversions, it is estimated that, the amount of arable land in Britain grew by 10–30%.

Land maintenance advancements were made in Flanders and the Netherlands which aided the British Agricultural Revolution. Farmers were forced to take maximum advantage of every bit of usable land because of the large and dense population of Flanders and Holland. Gradually, the country became pioneer in canal building, soil restoration and maintenance, soil drainage, and land reclamation skill. Some of these technologies were brought to Britain by the Dutch experts like Cornelius Vermuyden.

In the late 16th to the 20th centuries, water-meadows were utilised and permitted earlier pasturing of livestock after they were wintered on hay. This led to increase in livestock yields, giving more hides, meat, milk, and manure as well as better hay crops.

Rise in Domestic Farmers

Farmers were greatly helped with the development of local markets and ultimately a national market which were aided by improved transportation infrastructures. Now peasants were no longer dependent on their local market and were not forced to sell at low prices in an oversupplied local market. They could now become able to sell their surpluses to distant localities that were experiencing shortages. They also became less focus to price fixing rules. Now, farming became a business rather than exclusively a means of survival.

Farmers had to remain competitive under free market capitalism. Now, farmers had to become effective managers by incorporating the newest farming innovations in order to be low cost producers.

Selective Breeding of Livestock

In England, Robert Bakewell and Thomas Coke introduced selective breeding as a scientific practice, mating together two animals with especially desirable

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characteristics, and also using inbreeding or the mating of close relatives, such as father and daughter, or brother and sister, to stabilise certain qualities in order to reduce genetic diversity in desirable animal programmes from the mid-18th century. Arguably, Bakewell's most significant breeding programme was with sheep. He was able to quickly select for large using native stock, yet fine-boned sheep, with long, lustrous wool. Bakewell improved the Lincoln Longwool, and the subsequent breed, named the New (or Dishley) Leicester. He developed the breed which was hornless and had a square, meaty body with straight top lines.

Improved Farm Machinery and Methods

New farming machinery was developed and used by the early to mid-1800s. Many new farming machines were available. They were such as mechanical drills for planting seed, reaping machines for harvesting crops and threshing machines to separate the valuable grain from the stalks of wheat and barley plants. These machines helped farming to be more efficient and augmented the income much more than earlier. Every year, the quantity of land that could be prepared, farmed and harvested in a season enlarged sharply. Another technique was the use of fertilizers by the 1840s, which once again raised the productivity of the land.

In the mid-17th century, sound advice on farming began to appear in England. Writers such as Samuel Hartlib, Walter Blith and others advised time to time. Due to this, the overall agricultural output of Britain started to grow considerably only in the period of the Agricultural Revolution. It is estimated that, between 1700 and 1870, total agricultural output grew 2.7-fold and output per worker at a similar rate.

In Britain, the Agricultural Revolution proved to be a major turning point in history which allowed population to far exceed earlier peaks and maintain the country's rise to industrial excellence. By end of the nineteenth century, the considerable gains in British agricultural productivity were rapidly offset by competition from cheaper imports. This made possible by the exploitation of new lands and advances in transportation, refrigeration, and other technologies.

2.4.5 Major Scientific Innovations

Some of the most significant developments and innovations of the Industrial Revolution took place in the manufacture of cotton, wool, coal and iron. However, arguably the most significant 'invention' of the Industrial Revolution was not a single item of equipment or technology at all. Instead, it was a way of producing goods on a large scale using numerous workers and specialized machinery on one site. This method of manufacture became known as the factory system.

1. Factory System

Before the starting of factory system, manufacturing frequently took place in small workshops or in local cottages of workers (hence the term 'cottage industries'). Local traders and craftsmen such as blacksmiths, wheel makers,

cart makers, potters, millers and weavers utilized their skills, muscles and water power to manufacture largely hand-made goods. The factory system was totally different than the old working technology. In factory system, a large numbers of workers were brought together in a single site or factory. Most of the manufacturing was done by machines though there were also skilled workers. Instead, very little skills needed as the numerous workers performed tasks that were repetitive. The machines were operated at first by water with waterwheels, then by steam and next by electricity. So, the factory system was the result of a combination of the technological innovations and information that emerged during this period.

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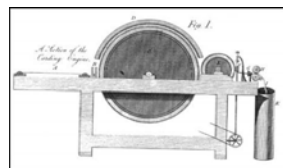
2. Invention of Textile Machinery



Flying Shuttle

The Flying Shuttle

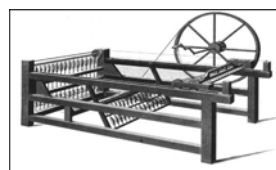
In 1733, the flying shuttle was patented by **John Kay**. He made a number of successive improvements including an important one in 1747 which doubled the output of a weaver, keeping a balance between spinning and weaving. In 1760, John's son, Robert, invented the drop box, which facilitated changing thread colours. By this invention, it became very popular and extensively used at Lancashire.



Carding Machine

Carding Machines

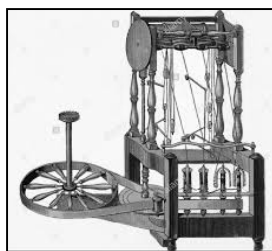
In 1748, **Lewis Paul and Daniel Bourn** patented carding machines. It was based on two sets of rollers that travelled at different speeds. It was later used in the first cotton spinning mill. Later on, Lewis's invention was developed and improved by Richard Arkwright in his water frame and Samuel Crompton in his spinning mule.



Spinning Jenny

Spinning Jenny

James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny in 1764 in the village of Stanhill, Lancashire, He patented this in 1770. For the first, it was made with practical spinning frame with several spindles.



Spinning Frame

Spinning Frame

Richard Arkwright along with his two friends developed the spinning frame or water frame which was patented it in the year 1769. The water frame used a series of four pairs of rollers for each spindle, each functioning at a consecutively higher revolving speed, to draw out the fibre, which was then twisted by the spindle.

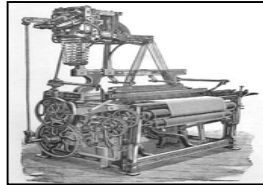
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Spinning Mule

Spinning Mule

In 1779, **Samuel Crompton** introduced Spinning Mule. It was a hybrid type because it combined both the spinning jenny and the water frame. In spinning Mule, the spindles were placed on a carriage, which went through a functioning sequence during which the rollers stopped while the carriage moved away from the drawing roller to end drawing out the fibres as the spindles started revolving.



Vertical Power Loom

Vertical Power Loom

In 1784, Edmund Cartwright designed his first power loom and patented it in 1785, but it proved to be worthless. He patented another loom in 1789, which served as the model for later on inventors to work upon. It's a journey from a mechanically driven loom to become a commercial success. Either one individual would have to be able to handle to more than one machine or each machine must have a greater productive capacity than one controlled by hand. Cartwright obtained his last patent in 1792, for weaving machinery. This provided his loom with several shuttle boxes for weaving checks and cross stripes.

2. Iron process Innovations

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, the iron ore iron had to be heated (smelted) by the producers (rock) to extract the raw metal or 'pig iron' from it. Charcoal was required to generate the necessary heat to smelt the iron ore, but it was time consuming to make charcoal and demanding large quantities of wood. Due to this, supplies of wood across Britain were declining. In 1709, **Abraham Darby**, an iron producer at Coalbrookdale in Derbyshire, England, found a way to bake coal to prepare a material known as coke. Coke could burn much hotter than ordinary coal. It was a new, smokeless fuel which quickly replaced charcoal as the fuel used to smelt iron ore. Near the coalfields (rather than forests), iron foundries were established and linked to it were the iron and coal industries.

Other innovations also made the smelting process more efficient. In 1784, iron producer **Henry Cort** was able to combine two processes, known as 'puddling' and 'rolling', which made the large-scale manufacture of pig iron possible. The amount of pig iron smelted in Britain rose from 25000 tonnes in 1728 to 60000 tonnes in 1788. By 1796, the manufacture reached 125000 tonnes.

Hot blast, patented by **James Beaumont Neilson** in 1828, was the most significant development of the 19th century for saving energy in making pig iron. Energy was significantly saved by using waste exhaust heat to preheat combustion air. It was seen that the amount of fuel to make a unit of pig iron was reduced by one-third using coal or two-thirds using coke. However, the competence gains continued as the technology enhanced.

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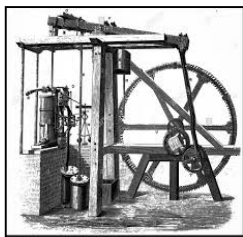
Shortly before the Industrial Revolution an improvement was made in the manufacture of steel, which was an expensive commodity and used only where iron would not do, such as for cutting edge tools and for springs. In 1740s, **Benjamin Huntsman** developed his crucible steel technique. Blister steel, made by the cementation process was the raw material for this.

3. Steam Power

The revolution in manufacturing and transport was made by the invention of the steam engine which was later used to produce electricity. Coal supplies were very important to fuel the Industrial Revolution, and the coal mines were exploited severely due to ever-increasing demand for coal which led to the opening of new mines and the deepening of older mines. The digging of deeper mines in turn required better pumping systems to keep water from flooding lower levels. Early steam engines were developed by two inventors, Thomas Savery (around 1698) and Thomas Newcomen (around 1710) to pump water from mines.

Before 1712, Thomas Newcomen introduced the first successful piston steam engine. In Britain, a number of Newcomen engines were installed for draining unworkable deep mines, with the engine on the surface. These were huge machines which required a significant amount of funds to build and produced upwards of 5 hp (3.7 kW). Power municipal water supply pumps also used them.

Scotsman James Watt brought about a fundamental change in working principles. For this he got financial help from his business associate Englishman Matthew Boulton. By 1778, he had succeeded in perfecting his steam engine, which included a series of fundamental improvements, remarkably the closing off of the upper part of the cylinder. By this, it made the low-pressure steam drive the top of the piston instead of the atmosphere, used a steam jacket and the famous separate steam condenser chamber.



**Watt Steam
Engine**

The Watt steam engine had been fully developed into a double-acting rotating type by 1783. This engine could be used to directly drive the rotary machinery of a factory or mill. Both the basic engine types of Watt were commercially very successful. By 1800, the firm of Boulton & Watt had constructed 496 engines, with 164 driving reciprocating pumps, 24 serving blast furnaces and 308 powering mill machinery. Most of the engines generated from 5 to 10 hp (3.7 to 7.5 kW).

Beam engine was the most common pattern of steam engine until about 1800. It was built as an integral part of a stone or brick engine-house. Later on, a variety of patterns of self-contained rotative engines (readily removable, but not on wheels) were prepared, for example, the table engine. In the beginning of the 19th century, higher-pressure non-condensing steam engines (exhausting against the atmosphere) were constructed by the Cornish engineer Richard Trevithick and the American Oliver Evans. High pressure yielded an engine

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and boiler compact adequately to be used on movable road and rail locomotives and steam boats.

The creation of machine tools, like the engine lathe, planing, milling and shaping machines powered by these engines, made capable of all the metal parts of the engines to be effortlessly and correctly cut and in turn made it possible to build outsized and more powerful engines. Small industrial power requirements continued to be provided by animal and human muscle until extensive electrification in the early 20th century. These incorporated crank-powered, treadle-powered and horse-powered workshop and light industrial machinery.

4. Machine Tools

When machine tools were not there, metal work was done manually using the essential hand tools such as hammers, files, scrapers, saws and chisels. Hand methods of manufacture were very laborious and costly and precision was difficult to achieve.

In 1774, John Wilkinson invented first large precision machine tool called the cylinder boring machine. It was utilised to bore the large-diameter cylinders on early steam engines. In the early decades of the 19th century, the planing machine, the milling machine and the shaping machine were developed. Though the milling machine was invented during this time, it was not used as a serious workshop instrument until later part of the 19th century.

5. Chemicals

The large-scale manufacture of chemicals was a significant development during the Industrial Revolution. The first of these was the manufacture of sulphuric acid by the lead chamber process invented by the Englishman **John Roebuck** (James Watt's first partner) in 1746. He became able to significantly raise the scale of the manufacture by substituting the relatively costly glass vessels previously used with larger and less expensive chambers made of riveted sheets of lead.

Now, the manufacture of an alkali on a huge scale became an important aim as well. In 1791, Nicolas Leblanc succeeded in introducing a method for the manufacture of sodium carbonate. The Leblanc process was a reaction of sulphuric acid with sodium chloride to give sodium sulphate and hydrochloric acid.

In about 1800, **Scottish chemist Charles Tennant** developed bleaching powder (calcium hypochlorite). It was based on the discoveries of French chemist **Claude Louis Berthollet**, which revolutionised the bleaching processes in the textile industry by radically reducing the time needed (from months to days) for the conventional process then in use, which was needing repeated exposure to the sun in bleach fields after soaking the textiles with alkali or sour milk.

6. Cement

Joseph Aspdin, patented a chemical process for manufacturing Portland cement in 1824, which was an important advance in the building trades. This procedure involves sintering a combination of clay and limestone to about 1,400 °C (2,552 °F), then grinding it into a fine fine particles which is then mixed with water, sand and gravel to create concrete. The famous English engineer Marc Isambard Brunel used Portland cement some years later when constructing the Thames Tunnel. A generation later, Cement was used on a huge scale in the building of the London sewerage system.

7. Gas Lighting

Gas lighting was another major industry of the later Industrial Revolution. William Murdoch, an employee of Boulton & Watt, the Birmingham steam engine pioneers introduced this in the large-scale. The procedure consisted of the extensive gasification of coal in furnaces, the purification of the gas (that means removal of sulphur, ammonia, and heavy hydrocarbons), and its storage and circulation. Between 1812 and 1820, the first gas lighting utilities were established in London.

8. Glass Making

During the early 19th century, a new method of producing glass was developed in Europe, known as the cylinder process. The Chance Brothers used this process in 1832 to create sheet glass. They became the foremost manufacturers of window and plate glass. This development led to the creation of larger panes of glass without interruption. Thus, this further led to the freeing up the space planning in interiors as well as the fenestration of buildings. The supreme instance of the use of sheet glass in a new and innovative structure was the Crystal Palace.

9. Paper Machine

In 1798, Nicholas Louis Robert who worked for Saint-Léger Didot family in France, patented a machine for making a continuous sheet of paper on a loop of wire fabric. The paper machine was called as a Fourdrinier after the financier brothers, Sealy and Henry Fourdrinier, who were from in London. Really, this machine was greatly improved with numerous variations and today it is the predominant way of paper manufacture.

10. Agriculture

One of the main causes of the Industrial Revolution was the British Agricultural Revolution because this developed agricultural output freed up workers to work in other sectors of the economy. However, until the late 18th century, per-capita food supply in Europe was stagnant or deteriorating and did not recover in some parts of Europe.

Industrial technologies that affected farming incorporated the seed drill, the Dutch plough, which contained iron parts, and the threshing machine. JethroTull invented an improved seed drill in 1701. It was an automatic seeder which dispersed seeds consistently across a plot of land and planted them at the

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accurate depth. This was significant because the yield of seeds harvested to seeds planted at that time was around four or five. Tull's seed drill did not have much of an impact as it was very expensive and not very reliable. Until the mid 18th century, good quality seed drills were not produced.

The first commercially successful iron plough was *Rotherham plough* of Joseph Foljambe. In 1784, Andrew Meikle invented the threshing machine which displaced hand threshing with a flail, though was a laborious job that took about one-quarter of agricultural labour. It was the final straw for several farm labourers, who faced hunger which led to agricultural rebellion of the Swing Riots in 1830.

11. Mining

Introduction of the steam pump in 1698, and the Newcomen steam engine in 1712 really facilitated the elimination of water and enabled shafts to be made deeper which enabled the extraction of more coal. Coal mining was very dangerous owing to the presence of firedamp in numerous coal seams. Invention of the safety lamp in 1816 by Sir Humphry Davy gave high degree of safety.

12. Transportation

Steam Locomotives

In 1801, English engineer Richard Trevithick built the first steam locomotive. Unlike modern locomotives, it was driven on roads rather than rails. In 1804, Trevithick was the first person to drive a steam locomotive on the rails of a tramway.

The first locomotive built and used for commercial purposes was known as the Stephenson's Rocket. In 1829, it was invented by George Stephenson and continued as one of the most well-known steam locomotives. From this point on, the designs of steam locomotives became more sophisticated. They also became capable of reaching greater speeds and far more powerful later on.

Steamships

In 1807, an American named Robert Fulton developed the first commercial steamship. Over the next 100 years, just like the steam locomotive, the steamship went through numerous different designs and improvements. For instance, the more resilient screw-propellers were developed to replace the easily damaged paddle-wheels of the early steam ships. By 1838, ships were crossing the Atlantic Ocean driven purely by steam power. In 1843, the great British engineer Isambard Rulerdom Brunel launched the SS *Great Britain*, the first iron-hulled steamship with a screw propeller designed to cross oceans. Steamships quickly became the preferred means of ocean-going transport and began to replace sailing ships. They were faster and more reliable though their cargo space was reduced by the large amount of space required for storing coal.

Canals and Improved Waterways

Navigation on several British rivers was enhanced during the Industrial Revolution by removing obstructions, straightening curves, widening and deepening and building navigation locks. Britain had over 1000 miles of navigable rivers and streams by 1750. Canals and waterways permitted bulk materials to be economically transported long distances inland. This was since a horse could drag a barge with a cargo dozens of times outsized than the load that could be drawn by a cart.

In the late 18th century, canals began to be built in the UK, to link the major mechanized centres across the country. In 1761, the Bridgewater Canal in North West England was opened which was known for its huge commercial success, and was mostly financed by The 3rd Duke of Bridgewater. Its construction from Worsley to the rapidly growing town of Manchester, was very costly but its advantages over land and river transport was very high. Within a year of its opening in 1761, the cost of coal in Manchester cut down by about half. This achievement motivated a period of intense canal building, which was known as Canal Mania. In the aim of replicating the commercial success of the Bridgewater Canal, many new canals were hastily built. The Leeds and Liverpool Canal and the Thames and Severn Canal were the most notable being which opened in 1774 and 1789 respectively.

Roads

A significant part of the first British street framework was inadequately kept up by a great many local parishes, yet from the 1720s turnpike trusts were set up to charge tolls and keep up certain streets. Expanding quantities of principle streets were turnpiked from the 1750s to the degree that pretty much every fundamental street in England and Wales was the duty of an expressway trust. New designed streets were worked by John Metcalf, Thomas Telford and most quite John Mc Adam, with the first 'macadamised' stretch of street being Marsh Road at Ashton Gate, Bristol in 1816. The significant interstates emanated from London and were the methods by which the Royal Mail had the option to arrive at the remainder of the nation. Overwhelming merchandise transport on these streets was by methods for moderate, wide wheeled, trucks pulled by groups of ponies. Lighter merchandise was passed on by littler trucks or by groups of pack horse. Stagecoaches conveyed the rich, and the less affluent could pay to ride on bearers trucks.

Railways

Around the year 1800, Railways were made practical by the widespread beginning of low-cost puddled iron, the rolling mill for manufacturing rails, and the expansion of the high-pressure steam engine.

In the 17th century, the wagon ways for moving coal in the mining areas had started and were often linked with canal or river systems for the more movement of coal. These all were horse drawn or relied on gravity, with a stationary steam engine to haul the wagons back to the top of the incline. The first applications of the steam locomotive were on wagon or plate ways. Horse-

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drawn public railways did not begin until the early years of the 19th century when improvements to pig and wrought iron manufacture were lowering costs.

After the introduction of high-pressure steam engines, after the expiration of the Boulton and Watt patent in 1800, Steam locomotives were began being built. High-pressure engines became very popular and did away with the condenser and cooling water. They were also greatly lighter weight and lesser in size for a given horsepower than the immobile condensing engines. In 1825, steam-hauled public railways began with the Stockton and Darlington Railway.

2.4.6 Industrialisation in Other Countries

In human history, the Industrial Revolution in Britain marked a major turning point. Every aspect of daily life of the people in England and Europe was influenced by it. A whole series of new developments in technology led to even greater technological and economic progress at around 1850.

BELGIUM

Belgium was the second country, after Britain, in which the Industrial Revolution took place and the first in continental Europe: Wallonia (French speaking southern Belgium) was the first region to follow the British model successfully. Starting in the middle of the 1820s, and especially after Belgium became an independent nation in 1830, plentiful works comprising coke blast furnaces as well as puddling and rolling mills were built in the coal mining areas around Liège and Charleroi. The leader was a transplanted Englishman John Cockerill. His factories at Seraing integrated all stages of manufacture, from engineering to the supply of raw materials, as early as 1825.

The region geared up to become the second industrial power in the world after Britain. Numerous researchers pointed out about the huge industrial development based on coal-mining and iron-making in Belgium. About the period after 1830, Philippe Raxhon wrote: “It was not propaganda but a reality the Walloon regions were becoming the second industrial power all over the world after Britain.” The historians and the economists say that Belgium was the second industrial power of the world, in proportion to its population and its territory. But this rank is the one of Wallonia where the coal-mines, the blast furnaces, the iron and zinc factories, the wool industry, the glass industry, the weapons industry were concentrated

FRANCE

In France, the industrial revolution followed an exacting course as it did not keep in touch to the main model followed by other countries. Notably, most French historians argue France did not go through a clear *take-off*. France’s progress was slower. France had a principally agricultural economy until much later in the 1800s. In coastal areas such as Normandy, however, the textile industries modernised in reaction to competition from Britain and Belgium.

GERMANY

Based on its leadership in chemical research in the universities and industrial laboratories, Germany, which was unified in 1871, became dominant in the world's chemical industry in the late 19th century. At first the manufacture of dyes based on aniline was critical.

Germany's political disunity – with three dozen states – and an unavoidable conservatism made it hard to assemble railroads during the 1830s. Be that as it may, by the 1840s, trunk lines connected the significant urban communities; every German state was responsible for the lines inside its own outskirts. Lacking a mechanical base from the start, the Germans imported their designing and equipment from Britain, yet immediately took in the abilities expected to work and extend the railroads. In various urban areas, the new railroad shops were the focuses of mechanical mindfulness and preparing, so that by 1850, Germany was independent in fulfilling the needs of railroad development, and the railroads were a significant stimulus for the development of the new steel industry. Spectators found that even as late as 1890, their designing was second rate compared to Britain's. In any case, German unification in 1871 invigorated solidification, nationalization into state-claimed organizations, and further fast development. In contrast to the circumstance in France, the objective was backing of industrialisation, thus overwhelming lines befuddled the Ruhr and other mechanical locale, and gave great associations with the significant ports of Hamburg and Bremen. By 1880, Germany had 9,400 trains pulling 43,000 travelers and 30,000 tons of cargo, and pulled in front of France.

SWEDEN

During the period 1790–1815 Sweden experienced two equal monetary developments: a horticultural insurgency with bigger rural homes, new harvests and cultivating apparatuses and a commercialisation of cultivating, and a proto industrialisation, with little businesses being built up in the open country and with laborers exchanging between agrarian work in summer and modern production in winter. This prompted financial development profiting huge segments of the populace and paving the way to an utilization upheaval beginning during the 1820s.

During 1815–1850 the proto businesses formed into increasingly specific and bigger ventures. This period saw expanding provincial specialization with mining in Bergslagen, material factories in Sjuhäradsbygden and ranger service in Norrland. A few noteworthy institutional changes occurred in this period, for example, free and required tutoring presented 1842 (as first nation on the planet), the nullification of the national restraining infrastructure on exchange crafted works in 1846, and a stock organization law in 1848.

During 1850–1890, Sweden encountered an authentic blast in trade, commanded by yields, wood and steel. Sweden cancelled most levies and different obstructions to organized commerce during the 1850s and joined the best quality level in 1873.

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During 1890–1930, Sweden encountered the second modern unrest. New enterprises created with their attention on the household showcase: mechanical designing, power utilities, papermaking and material.

JAPAN

In Japan, the modern transformation started around 1870 as Meiji period pioneers chose to find the West. The legislature fabricated railways, improved streets, and initiated a land change program to set up the nation for additional turn of events. It introduced another Western-based training framework for every youthful individual, sent a great many understudies to the United States and Europe, and employed in excess of 3,000 Westerners to show present day science, arithmetic, innovation, and unknown dialects in Japan (Foreign government guides in Meiji Japan).

In 1871, a gathering of Japanese government officials known as the Iwakura Mission visited Europe and the United States to learn western ways. The result was a conscious state-drove industrialisation approach to empower Japan to rapidly make up for lost time. The Bank of Japan, established in 1882, utilized duties to subsidize model steel and material manufacturing plants. Training was extended and Japanese understudies were sent to concentrate in the west.

Present day industry first showed up in quite a while, including cotton and particularly silk, which was situated in home workshops in country territories.

UNITED STATES

During the late eighteenth and mid nineteenth hundreds of years when the UK and parts of Western Europe started to industrialize, the US was essentially an agrarian and regular asset delivering and handling economy. The structure of streets and trenches, the presentation of steamers and the structure of railways were huge for taking care of farming and characteristic asset items in the huge and scantily populated nation of the period.

Noteworthy American mechanical commitments during the time of the Industrial Revolution were the cotton gin and the advancement of a framework for making compatible parts, the last supported by the improvement of the processing machine in the US. The advancement of machine devices and the arrangement of tradable parts were the reason for the ascent of the US as the world's driving mechanical country in the late nineteenth century.

Oliver Evans designed a robotized flour factory in the mid-1780s that pre-owned control instruments and transports with the goal that no work was required from the time grain was stacked into the lift pails until flour was released into a wagon. This is viewed as the primary present day materials taking care of framework a huge development in the advancement toward mass assembling.

The United States initially utilized pony controlled apparatus for little scope applications, for example, grain processing, yet in the long run changed to water power after material production lines started being worked during the 1790s. As an outcome, industrialisation was amassed in New England and the

North-eastern United States, which has quick moving waterways. The fresher water-fueled production lines demonstrated more practical than horse-drawn assembling. In the late nineteenth century steam-fueled assembling overwhelmed water-controlled assembling, permitting the business to spread to the Midwest.

Thomas Somers and the Cabot Brothers established the Beverly Cotton Manufactory in 1787, the principal cotton plant in America, the biggest cotton plant of its period, and a critical achievement in the innovative work of cotton processes later on. This factory was intended to utilize strength, yet the administrators immediately discovered that the pony drawn stage was financially insecure, and had monetary misfortunes for a considerable length of time. In spite of the misfortunes, the Manufactory filled in as a play area of advancement, both in turning a lot of cotton, yet additionally building up the water-controlled processing structure utilized in Slater's Mill.

In 1793, Samuel Slater (1768–1835) established the Slater Mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island. He had educated of the new material advancements as a kid student in Derbyshire, England, and challenged laws against the migration of talented specialists by leaving for New York in 1789, planning to bring in cash with his insight. In the wake of establishing Slater's Mill, he proceeded to possess 13 material plants. Daniel Day built up a fleece checking factory in the Blackstone Valley at Uxbridge, Massachusetts in 1809, the third woolen plant set up in the US (The first was in Hartford, Connecticut, and the second at Watertown, Massachusetts.) The John H. Chafee Blackstone River Valley National Heritage Corridor backtracks the historical backdrop of "America's Hardest-Working River", the Blackstone. The Blackstone River and its tributaries, which spread in excess of 45 miles (72 km) from Worcester, Massachusetts to Providence, Rhode Island, was the origin of America's Industrial Revolution. At its top more than 1100 factories worked in this valley, including Slater's factory, and with it the most punctual beginnings of America's Industrial and Technological Development.

Dealer Francis Cabot Lowell from Newburyport, Massachusetts remembered the structure of material machines on his voyage through British plants in 1810. Understanding that the War of 1812 had destroyed his import business however that an interest for residential completed material was developing in America, on his arrival to the United States, he set up the Boston Manufacturing Company. Lowell and his accomplices assembled America's second cotton-to material plant at Waltham, Massachusetts, second to the Beverly Cotton Manufactory. After his end in 1817, his partners fabricated America's previously arranged processing plant town, which they named after him. This undertaking was promoted in an open stock contribution, one of the main employments of it in the United States. Lowell, Massachusetts, utilizing 5.6 miles (9.0 km) of channels and 10,000 drive conveyed by the Merrimack River, is considered by some as a significant supporter of the accomplishment of the American Industrial Revolution. The brief ideal world like Waltham-Lowell framework was shaped, as an immediate reaction to the poor working

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conditions in Britain. Be that as it may, by 1850, particularly following the Irish Potato Famine, the framework had been supplanted by poor settler work.

A significant U.S. commitment to industrialization was the improvement of procedures to make exchangeable parts from metal. Exactness metal machining procedures were created by the U.S. Division of War to make compatible parts for little guns. The improvement work occurred at the Federal Arsenal at Springfield Armory and Harpers Ferry Armory. Procedures for exactness machining utilizing machine devices joined utilizing apparatuses to hold the parts in appropriate position, dances to direct the cutting devices and exactness squares and checks to gauge the precision. The processing machine, a crucial machine instrument, is accepted to have been imagined by Eli Whitney, who was an administration temporary worker who assembled guns as a component of this program. Another critical creation was the Blanchard machine, designed by Thomas Blanchard. The Blanchard machine, or example following machine, was really a shaper that could create duplicates of wooden weapon stocks. The utilization of hardware and the strategies for delivering normalized and exchangeable parts got known as the American arrangement of assembling.

Accuracy producing strategies made it conceivable to construct machines that motorized the shoe business and the watch business. The industrialisation of the watch business began 1854 likewise in Waltham, Massachusetts, at the Waltham Watch Company, with the improvement of machine devices, checks and gathering strategies adjusted to the smaller scale accuracy required for watches.

AUSTRALIA

The British choice to set up a corrective settlement in Australia in 1788 was to a great extent an endeavor to take care of a portion of the issues looked by Great Britain that were an outcome of the Industrial Revolution. Rising jail populaces were the outcome of expanded crime percentages in the new processing plant towns and among jobless homestead workers. It was imagined that this issue could be settled by shipping crooks to a far off land.

By 1813, a steam plant was working in Sydney, significant streets had been built to move merchandise to and from the seaports and a solid peaceful (stock-raising) industry had grown inland. By the mid-1830s, Australia had likewise become a pioneer goal with the expectation of complimentary British transients. As different states were settled, the advancement of transport joins expanded. Railroads were being used in Australia by the 1850s, just as steamship travel along the coast and significant streams. Riches from the revelation of gold gave the Australian provinces chances to grow new railroads and exploit new innovations, for example, the electric message and electric lighting.

In spite of these advances, Australia's mechanical improvement was from multiple points of view wild and spontaneous. This got evident after Federation in 1901, when the new nation was found to have three distinctive rail measures, which made it difficult to move products across state fringes without evolving

trains. What's more, the states had clashing thoughts regarding industry (and its turn of events or security) and differ about taxes (charges) and their utilization.

2.4.7 Impacts of Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution was a great turning point in the socio-economic history of the world. It gave opportunities to scientists, industrialists, inventors, socialists with vistas of imagination and prosperity. A change started in the field of agriculture and manufacture system with the introduction of machines. We can discuss the following points in respect to the impact of Industrial Revolution.

1. Factory System

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, most of the workforce was employed in agriculture, either as self-employed farmers as landowners or tenants, or as landless agricultural labourers. It was common for families in various parts of the world to spin yarn, weave cloth and make their own clothing. Households also spun and wove for market manufacture. At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution India, China and regions of Iraq and elsewhere in Asia and the Middle East produced most of the world's cotton cloth while Europeans produced wool and linen goods.

In Britain by the 16th century the putting-out system, by which farmers and towns individuals produced goods for market in their homes, often depicted as *cottage industry*, was being practiced. Typical putting out system goods incorporated spinning and weaving. Merchant capitalist typically provided the raw materials, paid workers by the piece, and were accountable for the sale of the goods. Common problems were embezzlement of supplies by workers and poor quality. The logistical attempt in procuring and distributing raw materials and picking up finished goods were also limitations of the putting out system.

In 1792, some early spinning and weaving machinery like a 40 spindle jenny for about six pounds was affordable for cottagers. Later on, equipment such as spinning frames, spinning mules and power looms were high-priced (especially if water powered), that led to capitalist ownership of factories.

The majority of textile factory workers during the Industrial Revolution were unmarried women and children, including numerous orphans. They typically worked for 12 to 14 hours per day with only Sundays off. During slack periods of farm work, women took factory jobs seasonally. It became difficult to recruit and maintain workers because of the lack of adequate transportation, long hours and poor pay situations. Numerous workers, such as displaced farmers and agricultural workers, who had nothing but their labour to sell, became factory workers out of necessity.

2. Standards of Living

According to the prominent economist Robert E. Lucas, Jr., "due to the Industrial Revolution, for the first time in history, the living standards of the ordinary individuals started to undergo sustained growth." Other scholars argued that, until the late 19th and 20th centuries, living standards for the

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majority of the people did not raise significantly, and that the living standards of workers declined in many ways under early capitalism. For example, between the 1780s and 1850s, the real wages in Britain only increased 15%, and that until the 1870s life expectancy in Britain did not begin to dramatically increase.

The life expectancy of children increased dramatically during the Industrial Revolution. The percentage of the death rate of the children before the age of five reduced tremendously from 74.5% in 1730–1749 to 31.8% in 1810–1829.

The effects of the industrial revolution on living conditions were very controversial, and from the 1950s to the 1980s this issue was ardently debated by economic and social historians. Henry Phelps Brown and Sheila V. Hopkins wrote a series of essays during the 1950s. These essays described that the mass of the population at the bottom of the society suffered severe declining in their living standards. However, there was a significant increase in worker wages during 1813–1913.

3. Food and Nutrition

Until the late 19th century, chronic hunger and malnutrition were the norm for the majority of the population of the world including Britain and France. Life expectancy in France was about 35 years and about 40 years in Britain in large part due to malnutrition until about 1750. The population of the United States was adequately fed during that time and they had life expectancy of 45–50 years, although, by the mid-19th century, U.S.'s life expectancy declined. During an episode known as the Antebellum Puzzle, food consumption per capita also declined.

By the Corn Laws (1815–1846), food supply in Great Britain was adversely affected. The Corn Laws imposed tariffs on imported grain. They were enacted to keep prices high in order to give profit to the domestic producers. In the early years of the Great Irish Famine, the Corn Laws were repealed.

The Industrial Revolution did little to lower food prices with the initial technologies such as mechanized textiles, iron and coal, etc. Before the Industrial Revolution, food supply increased in Britain and the Netherlands due to better agricultural practices. However, as noted by Thomas Malthus, population grew too during this period. This condition is called the Malthusian trap. Finally, the improvement of transportation system such as canals, roads and steamships overcame this situation. Near the end of the Industrial Revolution, Railroads and steamships were also introduced.

4. Housing

In the 19th century, due to the rapid growth in population, new industrial and manufacturing cities and service centres such as Edinburgh and London were incorporated. The significant issue was financing, which was handled by building societies that dealt straight with large contracting firms. The dominant tenure was the private renting from housing landlords. This was regularly of

benefit to tenants. Population grew so rapidly that there were not sufficient funds to build ample housing for everyone, so low-income newcomers squeezed into increasingly overloaded slums. Many problems started in these areas such as inadequate clean water, sanitation, and public health facilities. The death rate, especially infant mortality was very high. The disease like tuberculosis was wide spread among young adults. Cholera from polluted water and typhoid were endemic. Unlike rural areas, there were no famines such as devastated Ireland in the 1840s.

So many literatures sprang up in condemning the unhealthy circumstances. Friedrich Engels, in his publication, *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1844, depicted the life style of the backstreet sections of Manchester and other mill towns. There, individuals stayed in simple shanties and shacks, without completely enclosed and with dirt floors. There were no hygienic amenities as population mass was very high. But, not everyone lived in such deprived circumstances. A middle class of businessmen, clerks, foremen and engineers were also created by the Industrial Revolution who lived in much improved situation.

Over the course of the 19th century, conditions enhanced due to new public health acts managing things such as sewage, hygiene and house building. By 1892, Engels writes that most of the circumstances he wrote about in 1844 had been significantly developed. For instance, the Public Health Act 1875 led to the more sanitary byelaw terraced house.

5. Sanitation

In his book, *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1844, Friedrich Engels described about the creation of awful odours due to untreated sewage which turned the rivers green in industrial cities.

In 1854 John Snow traced a cholera outbreak in Soho to fecal contamination of public water well by a home cesspit. Snow's findings that cholera could be spread by contaminated water took some years to be accepted, but his work led to fundamental changes in the design of public water and waste systems.

6. Water Supply

Pre-industrial water supply relied on gravity systems and pumping of water was done by water wheels. Pipes were typically made of wood. Steam powered pumps and iron pipes permitted the extensive piping of water to horse watering troughs and households.

7. Increase in Literacy

The invention of the paper machine and the application of steam power to the industrial processes of printing supported a massive expansion of newspaper and popular book publishing, which contributed to rising literacy and demands for mass political participation.

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8. Clothing and Consumer Goods

Customers profited by falling costs for garments and family articles, for example, cast iron cooking utensils, and in the next decades, ovens for cooking and space heating. Coffee, tea, sugar, tobacco and chocolate got moderate to many in Europe. Watches and household clocks became famous purchaser things.

Fulfilling the needs of the consumer revolution and enlargement in wealth of the middle classes in Britain, potter and entrepreneur Josiah Wedgwood, produced goods such as tableware, that was beginning to turn into a typical component on dining tables.

9. Population Increase

The Industrial Revolution was the principal time frame in history during which there was a concurrent increment in both populace and per capita income.

As indicated by Robert Hughes in *The Fatal Shore*, the number of inhabitants in England and Wales, which had stayed consistent at 6,000,000 from 1700 to 1740, rose drastically after 1740. The number of inhabitants in England had dramatically increased from 8.3 million of every 1801 to 16.8 million out of 1850 and, by 1901, had almost multiplied again to 30.5 million. Improved conditions prompted the number of inhabitants in Britain expanding from 10 million to 40 million during the 1800s. Europe's populace expanded from around 100 million of every 1700 to 400 million by 1900.

10. Urbanization

The development of present day industry since the late eighteenth century prompted monstrous urbanization and the ascent of new incredible urban areas, first in Europe and afterward in different other regions, as new opportunities brought huge numbers of migrants from rural areas into urban communities. In 1800, just 3% of the total populace lived in urban communities, contrasted with almost half today (the start of the 21st century). Manchester had a populace of 10,000 out of 1717, however by 1911 it had thrived to 2.3 million.

11. Impact on Women and Family Life

The effect of the Industrial Revolution and capitalism commonly on the status of women was debated by the women historians. Taking a critical side, Alice Clark contended that the arrival of capitalism in 17th century England reduced the position of women as they lost much of their financial significance. Clark appealed that women were busy in many aspects of industry and agriculture in 16th century England. The home was an essential unit of produce and women played a very important role in running farms, and in some trades and landed estates. Their useful economic roles gave them a sort of equality with their husbands. Notwithstanding, Clark contends, as capitalism extended in the seventeenth century, there was increasingly more division of work with the spouse taking paid work employments outside the home, and the wife diminished to unpaid family unit work. High society women were kept to an inert household presence, directing workers; lower-class women had to take

inadequately paid employments. Capitalism, in this manner, negatively affected influential women.

In an increasingly positive clarification, Ivy Pinchbeck contends that capitalism created the conditions for women's liberation. Tilly and Scott have accentuated the progression in the status of ladies, discovering three phases in English history. First phase was the pre-industrial era, when produce was mostly for home use and women manufacture much of the needs of the households. The 2nd phase was the "family wage economy" of early industrialisation when the whole family depended on the combined salary of its members, together with spouse, wife and older children. The third stage was the "family consumer economy", where the family was the site of consumption, and ladies were working in great numbers in retail and office jobs to support increasing values of consumption.

As the Industrial Revolution swept Europe, ideas of thrift and hard work characterized middle class families. Samuel Smiles, in his book *Self-Help*, displayed these values, in which he states that the misery of the poorer classes was "voluntary and self-imposed - the consequences of idleness, thriftlessness, intemperance, and misconduct."

12. Labour Conditions

Social Structure and Working Conditions

The Industrial Revolution witnessed the victory of a middle class of industrialists and businessmen over a landed class of nobility and gentry. In the new mills and factories, ordinary working individuals found increased opportunities for employment although these were often under severe working situation with extended hours of work dominated by a pace set by machines. Most industrial workers in the United States still worked a 10-hour day (12 hours in the steel industry) as late as the year 1900, yet earned from 20% to 40% less than the minimum deemed necessary for a decent life; however, most workers in textiles, which was by far the leading industry in terms of employment, were women and children. For workers of the labouring classes, industrial life "was a stony desert, which they had to make habitable by their own attempts." However, long before the Industrial Revolution took place, harsh working conditions were prevalent. Before the Industrial Revolution, the Pre-industrial society was very static and characterised with unkind child labour, filthy livelihood situations, and extended working hours.

Factories and Urbanization

Factory was created due to Industrialisation. Due to the factory system, the urban areas grew; many workers migrated into the cities for jobs in the factories. Better example of this situation was the mills and associated industries of Manchester, nicknamed "Cottonopolis", and the world's first industrial city. Manchester encountered a six-times increment in its populace somewhere in the range of 1771 and 1831. Bradford grew by 50% every ten years between 1811 and 1851 due to migration.

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Between 1815 and 1939, 20% of the population of Europe left home, forced by poverty, a fast rising population, and the uprooting of worker cultivating and craftsman producing. They were pulled abroad by the huge interest for work abroad, the prepared accessibility of land, and modest transportation. All things considered, various didn't locate an acceptable life in their new homes, driving 7 million of them to come back to Europe. This mass movement had enormous segment impacts: in 1800, short of what one percent of the total populace comprised of abroad Europeans and their relatives, they represented 11 percent. The Americas felt the brunt of this gigantic migration, to a great extent amassed in the United States.

For a significant part of the nineteenth century, manufacture was done in little factories, which were normally water-controlled and worked to serve nearby requires. Afterward, every industrial facility would have its own steam motor and a chimney to give an efficient draft through its boiler.

The transition to factory manufacture was not so divisive in other industries. A few industrialists themselves endeavoured to improve processing plant and day to day environments for their labourers. One of the soonest such reformers was Robert Owen, known for his spearheading endeavours in improving conditions for labourers at the New Lanark factories, and frequently viewed as one of the key masterminds of the early communist development.

By 1746 an incorporated metal plant was working at Warmley close to Bristol. Crude material went in toward one side, was refined into metal and was transformed into dish, pins, wire, and different products. Lodging was given to labourers on location. Josiah Wedgwood and Matthew Boulton (whose Soho Manufactory was finished in 1766) were other conspicuous early industrialists, who utilized the manufacturing plant framework.

Child Labour

At the point when the Industrial Revolution started, children were viewed as perfect workers. They were sufficiently little to fit between the new apparatus, they were modest to utilize and their families were appreciative for the additional salary. At that point, there was no genuine worry about their instruction being influenced as training was not mandatory. Most working-class families could not afford to send their children to school anyway.

At the age of four or five, children often started work. Their working conditions were though simple but physically challenging and hazardous. They incorporated collecting dropped fluff from underneath the weaving machines or acting as helpers in coal mines. In numerous cases, child workers were orphans provided to the factories or mills by the local authorities.

Children's pay was well below that of adults, often about 20 per cent of the full adult wage. Salary for children was occasionally paid in the form of vouchers that could merely be used at stores owned by the factory owner. There, the children could utilize these vouchers to buy clothes or essential food

materials such as flour. This system permitted the factory owner to avoid paying wages in cash and helped them to make extra profits on sales.

Even with long hours and low pay, children could still earn more in the factory towns than in the country. Over time, social reforms raised the minimum age, shortened the working day, increased wages and introduced some form of education.

As complex machinery became more difficult for children to handle, child labour in factories declined. Their use as labourers was limited or barred in other areas, such as mining. It is hard for us now to imagine their lifestyles or the conditions in which these children worked. Source 5.47 comes from evidence given to a British government inquiry into child labour in factories in 1833.

Organisation of Labour

The Industrial Revolution gathered work into plants, production lines and mines, subsequently encouraging the association of blends or worker's organizations to help advance the interests of working people. The command of a union could claim better conditions by diminishing all labour and causing a following cessation of manufacture. Employers had to decide between giving in to the union demands at a cost to themselves or suffering the cost of the lost manufacture. Skilled workers were the first groups to successfully advance their conditions through this kind of bargaining as they were hard to be replaced.

The strike action was the main process, the unions used to effect change. Numerous strikes were painful events for sides, the unions and the management. Due to the Combination Act of 1799 in England, workers were restricted to form any kind of trade union, though it was repealed in 1824. Even after this, unions were still severely restricted. One British newspaper in 1834 depicted unions as "the most dangerous institutions that were ever permitted to take root, under shelter of law, in any country..."

The Reform Act was extended in 1832 by the vote in Britain but did not grant right to vote. In the same year, the Friendly Society of Agricultural Labourers was founded by six men from Tolpuddle in Dorset to protest against the steady lowering of salary in the 1830s. They started refusing to work for less than ten shillings a week. But, slowly the wages had been reduced to seven shillings further to six in a week. In 1834 James Frampton, a nearby landowner, kept in touch with the Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, to gripe about the association, conjuring a dark law from 1797 forbidding people from swearing vows to one another, which the individuals from the Friendly Society had done. James Brine, James Hammett, George Loveless, George's sibling James Loveless, George's brother by marriage Thomas Standfield, and Thomas' child John Standfield were captured, seen as liable, and moved to Australia. They got known as the Tolpuddle Martyrs. During the 1830s and 1840s, the Chartist movement was the first large-scale organised working class political movement which campaigned for political fairness and social equity. Its *Charter* of

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reforms received over three million signatures but was discarded by Parliament without consideration.

Friendly societies and co-operative societies were formed by working individuals to create mutual support groups against period of economic adversity. Robert Owe, one of the enlightened industrialists supported these organisations to develop the situation of the working class. Slowly, the legal restrictions on the right to strike were overcome by the unions. A general strike involving cotton workers and colliers was organised in 1842 through the Chartist movement which stopped produce across Great Britain.

In the long run, effective political association for working persons was achieved through the trades unions. They, after the extensions of the franchise in 1867 and 1885, began to support socialist political parties that later on became the British Labour Party.

13. Impact on Environment

The starting points of the environmental movement lay in the reaction to rising levels of smoke contamination in the air due to the Industrial Revolution. An unprecedented level of air pollution in industrial centres was due to the emergence of great factories and the associated immense growth in coal consumption. The growing load of untreated human waste was added by the large volume of industrial chemical discharges. In 1863, Britain's Alkali Acts was passed which was the first large-scale, modern environmental laws to control the harmful air pollution (gaseous hydrochloric acid) given off by the Leblanc process, used to produce soda ash. To curb this pollution, an Alkali inspector and four sub-inspectors were appointed. Gradually, the everyday jobs of the inspectorate were expanded. Later on, in 1958, the Alkali Order placed all major weighty industries that emitted smoke, grit, dust and fumes under regulation.

In 1812–1820, the manufactured gas industry started in British cities. The highly toxic effluent produced from that was dumped into sewers and rivers. The gas companies were frequently sued in nuisance lawsuits. The worst practices were modified by them. In 1820s, the City of London constantly indicted gas companies for polluting the Thames River and poisoning its creatures. Ultimately, company charters were written by the Parliament to regulate toxicity. Around 1850, the industry reached the US causing pollution and lawsuits.

Especially after 1890, local experts and reformers took the lead in identifying environmental degradation and pollution in industrial cities. They started grass-roots movements to claim and attain reforms. Water and air pollution were given highest priority in this regard. In 1898, the Coal Smoke Abatement Society was formed in Britain and became one of the oldest environmental NGOs. Artist Sir William Blake Richmond founded it. The Public Health Act was introduced in 1875 which required all furnaces and fireplaces to consume their own smoke. It put sanction against industries that emitted huge amounts of black smoke. In 1926, the Smoke Abatement Act

extended the provisions of this law to include other emissions, such as soot, ash, and gritty particles and to authorize local authorities to enforce their own rules.

Thus, the Industrial Revolution was a great turning point in the socio-economic history of the world. It gave opportunities to scientists, industrialists, inventors, socialists with vistas of imagination and prosperity. A change started in the field of agriculture and manufacture system with the introduction of machines. Both positive and negative impacts culminated as the effects of the revolution. Though, the industries gave more manufacture and employed more workers, later on machines took away the employments of numerous. Though the economy prospered and capitalists became richer, the poor became poorer which led to the rise of working class with their several demands. Though the life span increased with the rise of living standard, the environment was harshly affected by the pollution everywhere.

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Check Your Progress

5. What was the change in population of Britain due to Industrial revolution?
6. Where did the first industrial revolution take place?
7. Who invented spinning jenny and when?

2.5 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. The word **Mercantilism**, also called “commercialism,” is a process in which a nation tries to amass wealth through trade with other countries, exporting more than it imports and increasing stores of gold and precious metals. Renaissance signifies “rebirth” or “revival”.
2. It was called “*Colbertism*” in France.
3. The term colonialism refers to a large-scale political and economic system that allows one nation-state to establish controls beyond its traditional geographic borders in the service of increased profit or power.
4. The process of colonization of Asia started in fifteenth century. A **Portuguese** navigator named Vasco-da-Gama discovered the sea route to India. It led the foundation of Portuguese settlement in India. Goa, Daman and Diu were occupied.
5. During the Industrial Revolution, Britain’s population quadrupled from an estimated 6.5 million individuals in 1750 to around 32.5 million in 1900.
6. In Britain, the first industrial revolution took place. In the 2nd half of the eighteenth century, the Political and economic circumstances in England were the most appropriate for the commencement of the Industrial Revolution.
7. **James Hargreaves** invented the spinning jenny in 1764.

2.6 SUMMARY

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- The word **Mercantilism**, also called “commercialism,” is a process in which a nation tries to amass wealth through trade with other countries, exporting more than it imports and increasing stores of gold and precious metals. This dominant system of economic thought prevailed in Europe from 16th to 18th Century.
- It was called as commercial system or mercantile system in England because it emphasised the significance of commerce and free trade. It was also known as “*Restrictive system*” because its practical policies consisted of plentiful restrictions and regulations on commerce.
- It was called “*Colbertism*” in France, after the name of Colbert, the Finance Minister of Louie XIV. It was called “*Cameralism*” in Germany and Austria. It was also called as “*Bullionism*” as more importance was given to gold and silver.
- In England, during the Long Parliament government (1640–60), mercantilism reached its peak. Throughout much of the Tudor and Stuart periods, mercantilist policies were embraced.
- The man who established mercantilism and increased its height in France was Jean-Baptiste Colbert, finance minister for 22 years in the 17th century. That’s why, French mercantilism was also called Colbertism.
- High prosperity and glittering power of Spain in the 16th century was fuelled completely by the coming of silver and gold from the Spanish colonies in the New World.
- The Netherlands was also called the financial centre of Europe by being its most well-organized trader. It always wanted to increase its trade and took few mercantilist policies.
- Democracy and free trade destroyed mercantilism in the late 1700s. American and French revolutions formalized large nations ruled by democracy. They endorsed capitalism.
- Mercantilism created a new chapter in the annals of European history. It played a vital role in making the European countries progressive. Numerous countries of Europe encouraged the intervention of state in commercial activities for the increase of national wealth and power.
- The term colonialism refers to a large-scale political and economic system that allows one nation-state to establish controls beyond its traditional geographic borders in the service of increased profit or power.
- The process of colonization of Asia started in fifteenth century. A **Portuguese** navigator named Vasco-da-Gama discovered the sea

route to India. It led the foundation of Portuguese settlement in India. Goa, Daman and Diu were occupied.

- Colonial supremacy in Africa began in the nineteenth century. The first colonial power in Africa was **Belgium**. The king Leopold II of Belgium financed Morton Stanley and David Livingstone for the exploration of Africa.
- The practice of colonialism suffered from debacle in the wake of first world war. At that time, there was emergence of nationalism in Afro-Asian countries. The development of education Press and growth of democracy etc. caused political consciousness in the Afro-Asian countries.
- Thus, colonialism and imperialism spread conflicts and war in the continents which led to many devastation and slavery. Many European countries showed their supremacy and growth through increasing their colonial power in Asian and African continents.
- In the latter half of the 18th century, the *Industrial Revolution* marked a period of development that transformed largely rural, agrarian societies in Europe and America into industrialized, urban ones.
- A major turning point was marked in the history because of the rise of the Industrial Revolution. Almost every aspect of everyday life was influenced in some way or other. By this process, regular income and population began to show unparalleled sustained growth.
- The Industrial Revolution brought a series of changes in the methods of manufacture, manufacture and distribution and drastically affected the economic and social life of the individuals. It transformed an overwhelmingly agricultural society into an industrial society.
- In the 2nd half of the eighteenth century, the Political and economic circumstances in England were the most appropriate for the commencement of the Industrial Revolution.
- Between the mid-17th and late 19th centuries, Britain saw the Agricultural Revolution which meant unprecedented increase in agricultural manufacture due to increases in labour and land productivity.
- In Britain, the Agricultural Revolution proved to be a major turning point in history which allowed population to far exceed earlier peaks and maintain the country's rise to industrial excellence.
- Some of the most significant developments and innovations of the Industrial Revolution took place in the manufacture of cotton, wool, coal and iron.
- Belgium was the second country, after Britain, in which the Industrial Revolution took place and the first in continental Europe: Wallonia

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(French speaking southern Belgium) was the first region to follow the British model successfully.

- In France, the industrial revolution followed an exacting course as it did not keep in touch to the main model followed by other countries. Notably, most French historians argue France did not go through a clear *take-off*.
- Based on its leadership in chemical research in the universities and industrial laboratories, Germany, which was unified in 1871, became dominant in the world's chemical industry in the late 19th century.
- During the period 1790–1815 Sweden experienced two equal monetary developments: a horticultural insurgency with bigger rural homes, new harvests and cultivating apparatuses and a commercialisation of cultivating, and a proto industrialisation.
- In Japan, the modern transformation started around 1870 as Meiji period pioneers chose to find the West. The legislature fabricated railways, improved streets, and initiated a land change program to set up the nation for additional turn of events.
- During the late eighteenth and mid nineteenth hundreds of years when the UK and parts of Western Europe started to industrialize, the US was essentially an agrarian and regular asset delivering and handling economy.
- The Industrial Revolution was a great turning point in the socio-economic history of the world. It gave opportunities to scientists, industrialists, inventors, socialists with vistas of imagination and prosperity.

2.7 KEY TERMS

- **Mercantilism:** Mercantilism, also called “commercialism,” is a process in which a nation tries to amass wealth through trade with other countries, exporting more than it imports and increasing stores of gold and precious metals.
- **Colbertism:** Mercantilism was called “Colbertism” in France.
- **Cameralism:** Mercantilism was called “Cameralism” in Germany and Austria.
- **Bullionism:** Mercantilism was called “Cameralism” in Germany and Austria. It was also called as “Bullionism” as more importance was given to gold and silver.
- **Guilds:** A **guild** is an association of artisans and merchants who oversee the practice of their craft/trade in a particular area.
- **Colonialism:** The term colonialism refers to a large-scale political and economic system that allows one nation-state to establish controls

beyond its traditional geographic borders in the service of increased profit or power.

- **Industrial Revolution:** In the latter half of the 18th century, the *Industrial Revolution* marked a period of development that transformed largely rural, agrarian societies in Europe and America into industrialized, urban ones.

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2.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What was mercantilism called in France?
2. What was the period of mercantilism?
3. Name the man who took mercantilism to height in France.
4. What was colonialism?
5. Define the term industrial revolution.
6. Who patented flying shuttle?
7. Who invented spinning frame?
8. Who introduced spinning mule?
9. Who built the first steam locomotive in 1801?

Long Answer Questions

1. What were the factors for the origin of mercantilism? Explain.
2. Explain the features of mercantilism.
3. How did mercantilism spread in European states? Explain.
4. Examine the merits and demerits of mercantilism.
5. Trace the impact of mercantilism on European economy.
6. Describe the causes for the decline of mercantilism.
7. Explain the factors which helped in the rise of colonialism.
8. Compare the rise and growth of colonialism in Asia and Africa.
9. Describe the impacts of colonialism.
10. Why was industrial revolution started in England? Explain the factors.
11. Describe the agricultural background (major developments and innovations in agriculture) of industrial revolution in England.
12. Describe the major scientific innovations which led to the industrial revolution.
13. What were the impacts of industrial revolution? Explain.

2.9 FURTHER READING

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2. C.A. Fisher, History of Modern Europe.
3. David Thomson, Europe since Napoleon, Pelican Books, 1985.
4. Rodney Hilton, Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism.
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6. Carlo M. Cipolla, Fontana Economic History of Europe, Vols. II and III.
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UNIT 3 GLORIOUS REVOLUTION OF 1688 A.D., AMERICAN REVOLUTION (1776 A.D) – CAUSES AND EFFECTS, FRENCH REVOLUTION – NATURE, CAUSES AND EFFECTS

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Structure

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- 3.1 Objectives
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- 3.3 American Revolution (1776 A.D.)
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 - 3.3.2 The Course of the War
 - 3.3.3 Consequences and Significance of the Revolution
 - 3.3.4 Conclusion
- 3.4 French Revolution
 - 3.4.1 Causes of French Revolution
 - 3.4.2 Course of the Revolution
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- 3.5 Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’
- 3.6 Summary
- 3.7 Key Terms
- 3.8 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 3.9 Further Reading

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are the period of revolutions in Western World. This period showed the world the concepts of liberty, equality and fraternity to break the chain of slavery and feudal authority. The Revolution of 1688 was really a unique Revolution, not only in the history of England but also in the history of Europe. The event finally transformed how England was governed, giving Parliament more power over the monarchy and planting seeds for the beginnings of a political democracy. American Revolution also called War of American Independence which culminated with the winning of political independence by 13 Great Britain’s North American colonies and forming of the United States of America between 1775 to 1783. The French Revolution of 1789 brought a drastic change in the socio-economic and political life of the people of France. This revolution made a great change in France by

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overthrowing the despotic and corrupt regime in France, changing the orthodox thoughts with the new moderate ones, abolishing feudalism and unlimited power of monarchy. Thus, these revolutions had impacts on the western world and led to the rise of modern concept of liberalism and nationalism.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Know the events which led to the Glorious revolution of 1688.
- Understand the revolutionary uprisings in France, Britain and America
- Compare French and American Revolution
- Describe the nature, causes and consequences of French Revolution
- Examine the rise of American Revolution

3.2 GLORIOUS REVOLUTION OF 1688 A.D.

The Revolution of 1688 was really a unique Revolution, not only in the history of England but also in the history of Europe. It was called Glorious Revolution as it was a bloodless Revolution. No war or battle fought to find the change in the political scenario of England. It took place from 1688-1689 in England. It involved the depose of the Catholic ruler James II, who was replaced by his Protestant daughter Mary and her Dutch husband, William of Orange. Motives for the revolution were complex and incorporated both political and religious concerns. The event finally transformed how England was governed, giving Parliament more power over the monarchy and planting seeds for the beginnings of a political democracy.

3.2.1 Background

- Charles II breathed his last in 1685. He had no legitimate offspring and therefore declared his brother James his successor. His right to throne was challenged in 1680 but he faced no problem at the time of his succession in 1685.
- James II invited a session of the Parliament just after his accession the Tory members of the Parliament expecting the favour of the ruler. The Parliament also sanctioned a huge amount for the expenditure of James II but ultimately their relations became strained.



JAMES II

- James II was not farsighted like his brother Charles II. He had a strange quality of concealing his feelings but James did not possess them. Charles II ruled for 25 years due to his qualities of head and heart but James II had to flee away after three years of his reign. Charles II was himself not sure of the temperament of his brother.

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3.2.2 Causes of the Glorious Revolution

After English Civil wars Individuals of England were expecting a peaceful reign out of the agreement between the Ruler and parliament. But the religious interest and partial judgment to create a Catholic England harmed much to the individuals. Ultimately the revolution broke out in England. Causes behind this are as follows.

(i) Lack of Political Farsightedness

James II was not as intelligent and farsighted as his father who could rule over England for twenty-five years in spite of the adverse circumstances. But as James II was not equipped with such qualities, he failed to reign for a long time. He could never gain the confidence of his individuals for want of political farsightedness. His brother Charles II had already pointed it out stating that “When I am dead and gone, I know not what my brother will do; I am much afraid that when he comes to wear the crown he will be obliged to travel abroad.” The forecast of Charles II proved true when in 1688 James II had to flee England for want of efficiency and farsightedness.

(ii) Domestic Policy of James II

1. James II was the follower of the Theory of Divine Right and his chief objective was to rule the country despotically.
2. He had faith in Catholic religion and wanted to re-establish Catholicism in England.
3. He knew it well that to achieve success in Europe and to establish mastery overseas, it was essential to raise his naval power and he devoted himself to it.
4. James II had a great affection for Louis XIV and therefore he wanted to establish cordial relations with France at any cost.
5. To establish his absolutism, he attempted to move the hindrance put before him by the Parliament on the basis of its rights and privileges which were bestowed on it in the reign of Charles II.

(iii) James II and the Universities of England

There were two significant universities, Oxford and Cambridge in England. Only the followers of Protestantism were appointed teachers in them. James II was afraid that Protestantism would thrive in England due to these Universities. He wanted to employ Catholic teachers in the colleges affiliated to these Universities, but his action was opposed. James exercised ruthlessness against the opponents and deprived them of their posts and property.

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(iv) Religious Policy of James II

He was a staunch follower of Catholicism and wanted to re-establish Catholicism in England like Mary Tudor. He repealed the Test Act which was a hurdle in his way to promote Catholicism and punished those who opposed Catholicism. He did not spare educational institutions and attempted to impose his fanaticism in the universities. The followers of Catholicism were themselves afraid of the militant policy of James II and were afraid of second civil war in England which would ruin the Catholics in England.

(v) Revolt of Monmouth

Monmouth was the illegitimate son of Charles II. The Whig leaders wanted to declare him a successor of Charles II, but he refused to agree to this proposal. After accession of James, the Whig leaders excited Monmouth to revolt against James II and he acted accordingly. A fierce battle was fought at Sedgemoor in which Monmouth was defeated and was awarded demise punishment. James sent Chief Justice Jeffreys along with four other justices to punish the rebels.

About 300 persons were given demise punishment and numerous rebels were exiled. Individuals began to hate James II due to his absolute and tyrannical policy. F. Scheville observes: "This ferocious official was not satisfied until he had executed victims mostly poor and peasants, and had transported 840 unfortunates to the West Indies. The odium of these misdeeds fell, of course, upon the ruler."

(vi) Imposition of Catholicism on Individuals

James II was the follower of Catholic religion whereas most of the individuals of England were the followers of Protestant religion. He endeavoured to impose Catholicism on the individuals of England without caring for the spirit of the subjects. He not only failed in his designs but also made the majority of his subjects his rivals. He built a church in London in spite of the opposition of the individuals of England.

(vii) Organizing a Catholic Army

He increased his army from six thousand to thirty thousand and most of the Catholics were recruited in it. This army was organised to strengthen the hands of the unaccountable ruler and to establish a military rule with the help of Catholic soldiers. He did not confine his religious propaganda to England only but also extended it to Ireland and Scotland by appointing Catholic officers. They tortured the Protestant individuals. When the individuals revolted against the Catholics, they defeated them mercilessly. During this period, besides the individuals of England, the subjects of Ireland and Scotland also became rebels.

(viii) Issue of Dispensing and Suspending Powers

James believed in the theory of Divine Right and the Peaceful Obedience of the individuals. It meant that the ruler was the representative of God on earth and he was not accountable to any court of law for his deeds and policies. James II was of the view that individuals should obey the commands of the ruler, violating the principles already in practice. He considered himself above

judiciary and therefore, he had the right to dispense with the laws. It was an illegal command; however, some of the judges approved it just to please the ruler. The ruler having misused the spirit of the law had released numerous prisoners from imprisonment. It annoyed the individuals because by violating the laws of the country, he was trying to restore the absolutism of the worst type. The English individuals could not tolerate and revolted against their ruler.

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(ix) Open Violation of Test Act

Test and Corporation Act was passed by the Parliament of England in the reign of Charles II. According to it, only the followers of Anglican Church could be appointed on the government posts. Besides this, those could also be the employees of the government who swore their faithfulness towards Anglican Church. Thus, Roman Catholics were debarred from appointment to the government posts. But James II was a staunch follower of Catholicism. He wanted to make England a Catholic country, so he decided to violate the Test Act. He started appointing the Catholics to significant high posts. Even educational institutions could not free from his religious fanaticism. He suspended the Vice Chancellor of the Cambridge University for he did not agree to award a degree to a Catholic according to the wish of James II. Thus, the ruler annoyed the individuals of England by violating openly the spirit of Test Act and by appointing Catholics in educational institutions and in administration. The Parliament also opposed James II for the violation of Test Act. But James II did not care for the opposition of the individuals and the Parliament; it strengthened the feeling of revolt against him.

(x) Arbitrary Foreign Policy

It has been observed that: “Tyrannical as was James II. Arbitrary and unconstitutional as was his rule, the ultimate call of his fall is not to be found in matters at home but in his attitude to European affairs.” He established friendly alliance with France to meet his selfish ends. In fact, James II wanted to establish absolute monarchy in England with the military and economic help of France. As both the rulers were the followers of Catholic religion, this alliance was strengthened but the Protestants of England were against his alliance. They asked their ruler to break this alliance but James II did not agree to it and annoyed his subjects.

(xi) Declaration of Indulgence

James II wanted to turn England into a Catholic country. He adopted a policy of religious intolerance to achieve this end, and appointed Catholics on significant posts violating the spirit of the Test Act. In 1687, by the Declaration of Indulgence, he set aside all the restrictions imposed on the Catholics. But he was not satisfied with this declaration. In 1688, he declared another series of indulgences and thus annoyed the Protestants. He also ordered that these declarations would be read aloud in the churches on every Sunday. This act of James II generated a spirit of revolution in the individuals of England.

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(xii) Imprisonment of Seven Bishops

The Declaration of Indulgence was opposed throughout the country. Now, there were only two alternatives before the Bishops. First, they should read aloud the Declaration of Indulgence against their feeling and religion; or secondly, they should violate the orders of the ruler, so they chose the second alternative. Seven Bishops under the leadership of Arch Bishop of Canterbury refused to agree to read aloud this declaration. They regarded it as treason and were ordered to be imprisoned. Charges of treason were framed against them but they were declared innocent by the court of law. It pleased the Protestants for the bishops were declared innocent, and on the other hand it severely affected the political existence of James II.

(xiii) Birth of James II's Son (The Immediate Cause)

When the individuals of England were merrymaking after the release of seven Bishops, at the same time, individuals got the information of the birth of the son of James II. The first queen of James II had two daughters — Mary and Anne. The second queen of James II had no offspring. Mary was married to the Protestant ruler William of Orange of Holland. Mary was also a follower of Protestant religion. As James had no son, the individuals of England were sure that Mary would ascend the throne of England after the demise of the ruler and Protestantism would thrive in her reign. But on June 10, 1688, his second queen gave birth to a son. It startled the individuals of England. They were sure that the son of James II would be educated in a Catholic School and in case he succeeds, he would punish the Protestants like his father. They, therefore, revolted against the ruler.

However, the causes of the fall of James II are to be found in the whole circumstances of his reign. He acted throughout in defiance of public view, the strength of which he was never able to estimate. He acted unconstitutionally in claiming and exercising the Dispensing and Suspending powers. He acted in defiance of the law in establishing the Ecclesiastical Commission Court. He alienated Tories and Churchmen by his attacks on Church and Universities. His prosecution of the seven bishops was tyrannical. He attempted to overawe the nation by the maintenance of an army. Yet it is doubtful if the nation would have risen against him had it not been for the birth of his son.

3.2.3 Events during the Glorious Revolution

Invitation to William of Orange

An amazingly smooth development of events led to the Glorious Revolution. The individuals of England decided to dethrone James and invited his son-in-law, William of Orange to occupy the throne of England. Though William was busy in a battle with France, he gladly accepted the invitation extended to him. He felt that it gave him a chance to join the quality of England and Holland against France, the last having an eye on Holland.

James Fled to France in Dec 1688

The people of England sent a solicitation to William and Mary to come over with a military “to spare the Protestant religion and the protected freedoms of England.” They arrived in England after some trouble. James II may have been permitted to hold his royal position and, after it’s all said and done in the event that he had atoned for whatever unlawful things he had done previously and on the off chance that he had vowed to lead as per the tradition that must be adhered to. In any case, his determination lost him every one of his companions. His military headed toward the opposite side and he fled to France in December 1688, in the wake of tossing into the Thames the Great Seal of the Realm.

Royal Power to William and Mary

William’s expert Army was comprised of the English, the Dutch, the Swedes and the Germans. For certain weeks, William didn’t get a lot of consolation. Step by step the honorability abandoned James. The Council of Peers was occupied making arrangements to call a free Parliament. Right now news came that James had been caught at Faversham in Kent. He was taken back to London. Be that as it may, he figured out how to free. He took off for his last battle to France. His foes were too happy to even consider getting free of him. The individuals from the going to parliament talked about the topic of Rulership. At long last going to parties concluded that the Royal force ought to be vested in William and Mary, who therefore turned into the leaders of England. Thusly with the escaping of James II without setting up a battle, the bloodless Glorious Revolution occurred. The Revolution of 1688 was a one of a kind Revolution, throughout the entire existence of England as well as most likely throughout the entire existence of Europe. In this connection Macaulay observes: “The highest eulogy which can be pronounced on the Revolution of 1688 is this that this was our last Revolution.”

3.2.4 Nature of Glorious Revolution

- Although the reasons of this revolution were socio-political and religious, its tendency was political. It was cultivated without bloodshed. Prior to the revolution of 1688, all-critical political changes were brought in the wake of great bloodshed and excesses. Britain was constrained to go through an extraordinary Civil War with it. Indeed, even the French Revolution of 1785 had the penance of thousands of honest people. Be that as it may, on account of Glorious Revolution in England nothing of the sort occurred.
- Professor Trevelyan writes, “For numerous generations to come, the Revolution of 1688 was spoken of by our ancestors as the Glorious Revolution”. Its greatness didn’t comprise in any deed of arms, in realities of courage with respect to Englishmen nor in the way that an entire country substantiated itself more grounded than their official Ruler.

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- The genuine brilliance of the insurgency lay in the way that it was bloodless, that there was no Civil War, no slaughter, no disallowing, or more all, that a settlement by assent was reached on the religious and political differences that had so long and so fiercely separated men and parties.
- Some different historians also support the opinions of Professor Trevelyan. For example, as indicated by notable history specialist Burkey, the events of 1688-89 were, “a happy and Glorious Revolution. It was the good fortune of England that the transition from despotism to constitutional monarchy, was brought about without any bloodshed.”
- But some historians do not give a lot of significance to the revolution of 1688. For instance, according to Marriot, “It was essentially conservative in nature. It conserved most things of the past and was not a radical departure from the old order. It only made explicit, what was previously only implicit and thus did not introduced any radical changes.” The historian further says, “It was not a democratic movement in any sense and the wisest among them benefited by it.”

3.2.5 Effects of the Glorious Revolution

The Glorious Revolution of 1688 had long standing effects on England and outside. Numerous changes marked the history of England. This led to the end of anarchy and despotism and start of

(i) Convention Parliament

After the arrival of William of Orange and departure of James II it became necessary to summon a convention Parliament similar to that which had been recalled by Charles II, for there was no ruler to issue writs for a regular Parliament.

(ii) Joint Sovereigns

The convention also obliged Mary and both were treated as joint Sovereigns with equal rights on diction that they ratify a ‘declaration of rights a statement enumerating and declaring illegal the miss deeds of James II.

Though William and Mary were named joint sovereigns administration was vested in William alone. Both accepted the crown on the terms offered and on February 13, 1689, they were formally proclaimed as William III and Mary II.

(iii) End of Despotism

The free of James II along with the members of his family marred the principle of despotism. By this time, the Theory of the Divine Right was prevalent in the country by which the ruler was supposed to be the centre of all powers. His will was regarded supreme and the Parliament was required to obey his commands. But as a consequence of the glorious revolution, a limited and constitutional monarchy was established in England. When William and Mary were

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enthroned in 1689, they had to take an oath of allegiance to Declaration of Rights. The provisions of this declaration were incorporated in the Bill of Rights and were given a legal shape. Now, the ruler of England could reign in England within the limits of the constitution. He could not impose his will and absolutism over the individuals of England. The executive and judiciary of England were separated due to the Glorious Revolution.

(iv) Supremacy of the Parliament Accepted

The conflict which had been going on among the Parliament, individuals and the sovereigns to clarify the position of the Parliament, came to an end, as a consequence of the glorious revolution of 1688. The glorious revolution gave its decision in favour of the Parliament. All the powers were brought under the control of the Parliament. Even the executive powers slipping from the grip of the ruler reached the hands of popular ministers who were accountable to the Parliament. The supremacy of the Parliament was approved by the Declaration of the Rights, and several restrictions were imposed on the powers of the ruler. The ruler was not empowered to impose taxes on the subjects. He was not permitted to increase his permanent army during peace period.

(v) House of Commons under Aristocratic Sway

No change had been made in the electoral laws. Only a few residents in towns retained with the right to elect representatives. As the consequence a few remaining electors were under the sway of some great land owners or rich merchants. Thus the House of commons was an unrepresentative body and remained under the aristocratic Influence till the passing of the great Reform Bill in 1832. Under the present Bill no attempt was made to revise electoral rolls. No attempts were made to give more and more share to the individuals, in whose name revolution had been staged, in the running of their administration. In this way the Bill remained conservative.

(vi) Bill of Rights

With the regular parliament, numerous parliamentary acts were passed. The Bill of Rights formed the third great charter of English liberties and completed the work which the Magna Carta had started. It was significant on numerous accounts.

- First of all, it finally deprived the crown of all power to impose taxes without the consent of Parliament.
- Parliament now became final and ultimate authority in imposing and reducing all taxes.
- The ruler had now no authority, whatsoever, to tax the individuals on his own. Supremacy of Parliament was acknowledged.
- It also deprived the ruler of suspending laws, passed by the Parliament at his discretion.
- Numerous royal prerogatives were brought to an end and the ruler was made to feel the authority of the individuals.
- It declared that the election of members to Parliament ought to be free.

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- The freedom of speech and debate in Parliament ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court outside the Houses of Parliament. Thus a basic Privilege of the freedom of speech in the Parliament, which is even today so much valued, was permitted to the member.
- It decreed that no sovereign who professed the Catholic religion or who married a Catholic should be permitted to reign. Protestantism was made the state religion in England.
- It demanded frequent Parliaments and asserted the right of the subjects to petition the ruler.
- It declared illegal the raising or keeping of a standing army within the rulerdom in times of peace without Parliamentary consent.

(vii) Mutiny Act

- The right to enforce discipline was permitted to the crown by the mutiny Act which authorized the punishment of martial law. This act was passed only for a year so that the ruler was forced to summon Parliament every year for its renewal.
- The revenue of the crown was cut down to a very modest limit and Parliament resolved to make annual grants and secured from the ruler the right to audit the royal accounts.
- This also ensured annual sessions of Parliament for without summoning Parliament every year the ruler could get no supplies. As a consequence Parliament acquired the complete control of finance and with it an increasing control of the administration.

(viii) Freedom for Dissenter

- By another Bill Parliament took up the question of religious freedom for dissenters. By this time it had become evident to even the most bigoted high Church partisans that it was impossible to force the protestant. Dissenters back into the Anglican Church. Now that Government was headed by a Calvinistic ruler the question of religious freedom could hardly be ignored any longer.
- Yet the High Church party was not ready to broaden the basis of the Church so as to include the moderate dissenters. After much debate the Toleration Act was passed giving freedom of worship to protestant dissenters who accepted the doctrines of the Trinity.

(ix) Religious Consequences

The glorious revolution affected the religious life very deeply and permanently. James II by adopting a policy in favour of the Catholics put a great impediment in the way of Protestant subjects of England and Anglican Church. But the free of James II gave a severe blow to the development of Catholicism. Now, there was no hope of restoration of Catholicism. The responsibility of the Church was given to the Parliament in place of the Ruler. According to the Bill of Rights of 1689, it was decided that neither any follower of Catholicism nor any

husband of Catholic woman would be permitted to sit on the throne of England. It was also decided in the Act of Settlement of 1701 that all the rulers of England would be Protestant in future. In this way, the impending danger of Catholicism in England was warded off for ever. The Catholics continued to be tortured for a long time and they had to suffer in the reign of the Protestant rulers.

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(x) Echo in Scotland and Ireland

- In Scotland and Ireland the revolution settlement was not peaceful as in England. Most of the Scottish individuals accepted. William III as their leader but the Highlanders of the North and West of Scotland rose under the leader were killed. In Ireland the resistance to the rule of William was much greater.
- As most of the Irish Roman Catholics they sided with James II and raised an army on his behalf. Informed of the strength of this support James decided to go to Ireland himself to recover his throne. In 1690 William also went to Ireland.
- At the battle of the Boyne his troops scattered the Irish army in the utmost confusion; forcing James to flee in an undignified haste and take a ship for France. Ultimately the Irish submitted on the promise that Roman Catholics should be as free in their worship as during the time of Charles II.
- The English Government, however, failed to abide by the promise. Only a year later Irish Roman Catholics were excluded government offices. Other restrictions and harassments were in store for them which they had to suffer.

(xi) Influence on International Politics

The glorious revolution not only influenced the history of England but it was the most influential event of the European continent. It influenced the tripartite politics of England, France and Holland. Prior to this revolution, the relations between England and France were cordial during the reign of Charles II and James II, as the rulers of both countries were the followers of Catholic religion. On the contrary, England was a Protestant country and hence its relations with Holland were tense. Louis XIV of France attempted to annex Holland several times; therefore, a permanent rivalry cropped up between the two countries. There was also political rivalry between England and Holland but this revolution brought about a significant change in the political sphere of the continent. Political harmony was established in England and Holland as James II began to rule over the two countries. Another significant change was that France which was a friend of England till now became her enemy, and power and prestige of England was enhanced due to union of England and Holland.

(xii) Wars with France

- Under the new ruler England again became the outstanding rival of France. There was regular war going on between France and Netherlands when William was offered the throne of England.

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- It was therefore quite natural that William would not take rest till French power was completely defeated. England faced the problem of keeping the balance of power in Europe by the attempts of Louis XIV to gain for France what he considered its natural boundaries. Thus the accession of William not only put an end to absolute monarchy in England but also effected a change in British foreign policy.
- It marked the beginning of a series of wars between England and, France which was to continue for more than a century. At first the English struggle was waged for balance of power in Europe but later it turned into a contest for colonial and commercial superiority.

3.2.6 Legacy of the Glorious Revolution

The Glorious Revolution of 1688 is considered by some as being one of the most significant events in the long evolution of the respective powers of Parliament and the Crown in England.

- With the passage of the Bill of Rights, it stamped out once and for all any possibility of a Catholic monarchy, and finished moves towards absolute monarchy in the British rulerdoms by circumscribing the ruler's powers.
- The powers of the ruler were greatly restricted; he or she could no longer suspend laws, levy taxes, and make royal appointments.
- Ruler would not maintain a standing army during peacetime without Parliament's permission – to this day the Army is known as the "British Army" not the "Royal Army" as it is, in some sense, Parliament's Army and not that of the Ruler.
- Since 1689, government came under a system of constitutional monarchy in England, and later the United Rulerdom. From that time, power of the parliament has steadily augmented while the Crown's has gradually declined.
- Unlike in the English civil war of the mid-seventeenth century, the "Glorious Revolution" did not involve the masses of ordinary individuals in England (the majority of the bloodshed occurred in Ireland).
- Prior to his arrival in England, the new ruler William III of England was not Anglican, but rather was a member of the Dutch Reformed Church. As a result, as a Calvinist and Presbyterian he was now in the undesirable position of being the head of the Church of England, while technically being a Nonconformist.
- The Revolution led to the Act of Toleration of 1689, which permitted toleration to Nonconformist Protestants, but not to Catholics. Catholic emancipation would be delayed for 140 years.
- The Williamite War in Ireland can be accepted as the source of later quarrel, including The Troubles of recent times. The Williamite

triumph in Ireland is still commemorated by the Orange Order for preserving British and Protestant dominance in the country.

- In North America, the Glorious Revolution hastened the 1689 Boston revolt in which an efficient “crowd” of common state army and residents effectively removed the detested representative Edmund Andros, which has been viewed as a point of reference for the American War of Independence a century later. In New York, Leisler’s Rebellion caused the provincial head, Francis Nicholson, to escape to England. A third occasion, Maryland’s Protestant Rebellion was coordinated against the exclusive government, seen as Catholic-ruled.

Lord Macaulay’s account of the Revolution in *The History of England* from the Accession of James the Second exemplifies its semi-mystical significance to later generations. So summarize about Glorious Revolution, what Ramsay Muir says, “Such were the extremely modest legal changes whereby Parliamentary supremacy and religious liberties were established in England.

3.2.7 Conclusion

Thus, the two different events of the English Revolution such as the Civil War (1640-1660) and the Glorious Revolution of 1688 brought a grand change in the political sky of Great Britain. It is said that English Revolutions in 17th century played a pivotal role in the transition from feudalism to capitalism and from a feudal state to capitalist state in Britain. More over the process of change from absolute monarchy to constitutional monarchy was a remarkable effect seen due to this revolution. The trial and public execution of the king, the abolition of monarchy and of the established church, the toleration of a wide range of beliefs, and the rise of groups proclaiming ideas of liberty, equality, and fraternity all had a radically transformative effect during this period. As a consequence of the glorious revolution, a limited and constitutional monarchy was established in England. When William and Mary were enthroned in 1689, they had to take an oath of allegiance to Declaration of Rights.

Check Your Progress

1. Why was the revolution of 1688 in England was called glorious?
2. Who was invited by the individuals of England in place of James?

3.3 AMERICAN REVOLUTION (1776 A.D.)

American Revolution also called **War of American Independence** which culminated with the winning of political independence by 13 Great Britain’s North American colonies and forming of the United States of America between 1775 to 1783. This war continued for more than a decade of rising estrangement between the British and a large section of its North American colonies. This was caused by British attempts to declare greater dominance

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over colonial relationships after having long adhered to a strategy of salutary neglect. Starting with the Stamp Act Congress in 1765, members of American colonial society argued the position of “*no taxation without representation*”. They denied the power of the British Parliament to tax them as they lacked members in that governing body. With the events like the Boston Massacre in 1770 and the burning of the *Gaspee* in Rhode Island in 1772 protests steadily escalated. They were again followed by the Boston Tea Party (1773) during which Patriots shattered a shipment of taxed tea. When the ruler’s army attempted to capture and destroy Colonial military supplies at Lexington and Concord on April 19, 1775, tensions erupted into battle between Patriot militia and British regulars. Thus, the Patriots (and later their French, Spanish, and Dutch allies) fought the British and Loyalists and the conflict then developed into a global war. In history, it was known as the American Revolutionary War (1775–83).

Among the significant consequences of the revolution was the creation of the United States Constitution, establishing a relatively strong federal national government that incorporated an executive, a national judiciary, and a bicameral Congress that represented states in the Senate and the population in the House of Representatives.

3.3.1 Political and Socio-economic Causes

The American Revolution was motivated by numerous different reasons. The citizens living in the American colonies at the time were driven by numerous factors that lead them to declare independence from Great Britain. Some of these factors include social, cultural, economic, and political issues, etc.

(i) Defective Administration

In the American Colonies, the Administrative System of England was totally defective. Each Colony had its Assembly and they chose members. But, the nominated governor to each colony by the British Parliament became intolerable on the part of the Colonists. Numerous times conflict between the Governors and they chose representatives of different colonies became inevitable. Without the permission of British Parliament, the Governors did not do anything.

Thus, the British Parliament was controlling the administrative system of each colony. The colonial problems were not recognised by the British Parliament. Thus, it was the intolerable colonists who raised their voice against the mal-administration of British. George III and his politicians were engaged in local arguments, rather than tyrannical plans. They supported the right for Parliament to tax the colonies, but the detail of rule was a consequence of united arguments, rather than a real concern with the American question. The American demands were continuously neglected by British politics and were not allowed with legal answer.

(ii) Restrictions on Colonial Trade

The colonial trade in America was regulated by the British Government for her own benefit. George Grenville, the Prime Minister of England again practised the Navigation Act which was passed in 1660. Prior to this Act, the Colonists received the finished goods of England only by exporting the raw materials to England. But when the Navigation Act was reintroduced, the Americans were forbidden to export their native products directly to other European countries. They could import their essential commodities only through England from other nations. On the American Colonies, the British Government imposed taxes.

The British Parliament strengthened the 'Molasses Act' which was originally passed in 1773 by the British Parliament in order to impose, more tax on the colonial imports. Due to this Act, the Colonies of American were allowed to import Molasses only from the British West Indies. By this, the colonists annoyed and they became revolutionary.

(iii) Influence of Seven Years War

In 1756, the Seven Years War started and continued till 1763 that had an impact on the American Colonies. England occupied Canada by defeating France. The Americans were freed from the French menace. This enabled the individuals to stand by themselves. During the war, they denied to maintain the British military at their own cost. The American Colonies began to be revolutionary after this war.

It was the indirect influence of the Seven Year's War which attributed for the American revolt. Since this war had been costly, England had to borrow quite a huge amount of money from other countries to fight the war. The national debt of England rose enormously high due to this. In such a situation, the English Government wanted the Americans to pay to part of the debt as the amount had been borrowed for their defence. Side by side for the future defence of those American colonies, England wished to station a permanent British Force in North America. England also wanted a part of its expenses to be borne by the colonies. This appeared quite reasonable, but the Americans refused to pay any amount whatsoever. They pleaded that when England had been making considerable profits by monopolising the American trade, it was the responsibility of the English Government to pay for the colonial defence. But the English Government did not take into account this plea of the Americans. They made attempts to get money from the colonies through some other means. Thereby they excited the resentment in the colonies against England. In this way, the Seven Years' War was indirectly accountable for creating British feelings in the minds of the Americans.

(iv) Arbitrary System of Taxation of the English

Being determined to collect money from the Americans for the colonial defence, the British Government adopted an arbitrary system of taxation which fanned the fire of their discontent. This was the work of two Prime Ministers of England. They were Grenville and Lord North.

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In 1763, Grenville became the Prime Minister of England. On inquiry, he learnt that a sum of 350,000 pounds would be necessary to meet the cost of the colonial defence. He decided that out of this amount 100,000 pounds should be borne by the Americans. To raise this amount, he introduced a special Act in 1765 AD. This was called the Stamp Act. This law provided that stamps were to be levied on newspapers, legal documents and commercial receipts of the American colonies and every penny to be collected there from would be spent on colonial defence. But the introduction of this Act raised an extensive agitation in the American colonies. 'No taxation without representation' and 'Taxation without representation is tyranny' were their slogans. In other words, when the colonists were not directly represented in the British Parliament, the British Government had no right to impose taxes on the colonies. Pointing out its irregularity, Thomas Jefferson remarked later, "Can any one's reason be assigned why 160,000 electors in the island of Great Britain should give law to four million in the States of America?" So, the Americans sent countless petitions in this regard to the British ruler George III. But the ruler took no action in the matter. So, on the day of the enforcement of the Stamp Act, the colonists in fury snatched away the stamps from the vendors and burnt all such packets in the streets. As a mark of protest, all shops in the American colonies remained closed on that day and flags were hung at half-mast. The commotion rose to such a pitch that the next Prime Minister had to withdraw the Stamp Act in 1766. But in its place, he introduced another Act called the Declaratory Act in which he proclaimed that the British Parliament had the right to impose any type of tax on the American colonies. Hence, the Americans became more furious. It is rightly said that "The child of Independence was born out of it (Stamp Act)".

(v) The Consequence of French and Indian War (1754-63)

The special effects of French and Indian war became clear as conflicts escalated. First, American generals and soldiers had gained military experience and knowledge during the war. George Washington had clearly developed military leadership skills. The American colonists then know that the British army was not powerful to be defeated. Second, France was very distressed about losing the French and Indian war. Their desire for revenge influenced France's decision to be follower with the Americans during the American Revolution. French aid helped to make the American defeat the British.

(vi) The 1763 Proclamation

It came to forbid the American colonies for settling down west, all the colonists who had already crossed this region were divided and established in Ohio, Kentucky and other regions in the west were ordered to return and all land deals in that area were lost. British decided to protect their colonies from Spain's attacks, France or Native American tribes. The Quartering Act which was passed stated that the colonists had to help and support troops stationed in America by supplying living quarters and candles and extraordinary.

(vii) The Sugar Act in 1764

This Act was suggested that Prime Minister Grenville, who left the colonists should help pay the debt grew by the French and Indian war. This act placed duties on molasses and sugar. It was not only that parliament passed this tax that suffered the colonists however that the British took great strides in enforcing this law. The British would stop and search colonial ships for trafficked goods. "Taxation without representation" was born through the ideas of Samuel Adams and James Otis as a reaction to this tax and noised all through the colonies.

(viii) Stamp Act in 1765

In March 1765, the Stamp Act was passed by Parliament, persuaded by Prime Minister George Grenville which sowed the seeds of increased tension. As per the Stamp Act, the colonists had to purchase particular stamped paper for each legal document, license, newspaper, pamphlet, and almanac. It also forced particular "stamp duties" on parcels of playing cards and dice. The tax reached into every colonial pocket. Colonists who disobeyed the law were to be attempted in the vice-admiralty courts, where convictions were probable. Refusal to buy these stamps could mean jail time or a fine for the colonists. The reaction to the Stamp Act was loud since the colonists refused those goods or simply refused to buy the stamp. That led to the demand of the British merchants to abolish the law and parliament did away with in 1766.

Numerous merchants in the cities of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia agreed to boycott, or refuse to buy, goods manufactured in Britain until the Stamp Act was repealed. Numerous women joined the boycott, calling themselves the Daughters of Liberty. The boycotters stopped buying British goods and wore clothes of homespun cloth. They also put pressure on merchants who did not join the boycott. They hoped that British merchants would force Parliament to revoke the Stamp Act. The extensive boycott worked. In March 1766 Parliament repealed the Stamp Act. However, on the same day, to make its power clear, Parliament issued the Declaratory Act. This act asserted Parliament's full right to make laws.

(ix) The Townshend Act

Just after one year of repeal of the Stamp Act, a new method was applied by Charles Townshend, the leading government minister, to gain revenue from the American colonies. His projected revenue laws, passed by Parliament in 1767, became known as the Townshend Acts. These were not like the Stamp Act which was a direct tax. These were indirect taxes. The act levied duties on imported materials like glass, lead, paint, and paper as they came into the colonies from Britain. As the result of the acts, a three-penny tax was levied on tea, the most popular drink in the colonies.

With rage and well-organized resistance, the colonists reacted. The Townshend Acts was attacked by the educated Americans. They protested with the slogan "*no taxation without representation.*" Another boycott of British goods was called by Boston's Samuel Adams. In the protest, American women

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of every rank in society became involved. Buying British luxuries were stopped by wealthy women and they joined other women in spinning bees. Spinning and weaving of colonial-made cloth intended to show colonists' will power to boycott British-made finished cloth. British tea was boycotted by the Housewives.

(x) The Boston Massacre in 1770

The Boston Massacre was a street fight that occurred on March 5, 1770, between a "patriot" mob and a squad of British soldiers, throwing snowballs, stones, and sticks. Several colonists were killed by this. The colonists increasingly unwelcome the presence of British troops in the city of Boston. About 50 citizens attacked a British sentinel and the riot began. The soldiers led by a British officer, Captain Thomas Preston were attacked by the colonists. So the soldiers fired into the crowd and killed 3 on the spot. Demand was made for the removal of the British and the trial of Captain Preston and his men for murder and a town meeting was called. At the trial, two of the British soldiers were found guilty of man slaughter.

The Boston Massacre was a significant event which led to the Revolutionary War in America. With this, the Royal Governor evacuated the occupying military from the town of Boston. The revolution soon turned in to an armed rebellion all through the colonies.

(xi) The Tea Act

The British Parliament passed the Tea Act on April 27, 1773. This was a bill intended to save the uncertain East India Company from bankruptcy by greatly reducing the tea duty it paid to the British government and, thus, conceding it a de facto domination on the American tea trade. By this, all legal tea entered the colonies through England. It permitted the East India Company to give lower duty in Britain. It also allowed it to sell tea more cheaply in the colonies. Even untaxed Dutch tea, which entered the colonies unlawfully through smuggling, was more costly than the East India tea, after the act took effect.

British Prime Minister, Frederick, Lord North, who started the legislation, was wrong to think that it was impossible that the colonists would protest cheap tea. Many colonists viewed the act as yet another example of taxation tyranny, precisely because it left an earlier duty on tea entering the colonies in place, while removing the duty on tea entering England.

(xii) The Boston Tea Party

Colonists, fearing the Tea Act would set a precedent that would put the colonial merchant out of business, made a united front against this. On December 16, 1773, The Boston Tea Party was occurred, which was a political protest at Griffin's Wharf in Boston, Massachusetts. Due to the impose of "taxation without representation by the British, American colonists, became very angry and dumped 342 chests of tea, imported by the British East India Company into the harbour. This event was the major turning point of disobedience to British rule over the colonists. Great Britain realised that American colonists wouldn't

sit peacefully with the policies and tyranny assigned to them. The colonists now rallied and spread patriotic spirit across the 13 colonies to fight for independence.

Parliament decided to punish Massachusetts with the Intolerable Acts, there were four Intolerable laws imposed on the colonists through. These Acts: The First: Boston Harbor was closed until it could pay for all the tea that was put into the Harbor the Second: the royal governor could decide if, when the Massachusetts legislature could meet. The Third: any crimes dedicated by a royal authorized would be attempted in England, not the colonies. Finally the fourth: colonists were forced to provide living rooms, candles and drinks to British soldiers.

(xiii) The First Continental Congress

Delegates from 12 of the 13 British colonies (that became the United States) congregated at the **First Continental Congress** which met from September 5 to October 26, 1774 at Carpenters' Hall in Philadelphia. Now, the British Navy instituted a blockade of Boston Harbor and Parliament approved the retaliatory unbearable Acts in reply to the December 1773 Boston Tea Party. The delegates of the Continental Congress conducted a spirited discussion about how the colonies could jointly react to the British government's coercive actions. Some delegates projected to create a Union of Great Britain and the Colonies, but the proposal was rejected. In the meeting, it was decided to impose a financial boycott on British trade. They prepared a appeal to the monarch pleading for redress of their grievances and revoke of the Intolerable Acts.

(xiv) Role of the Writers and Philosophers

The Writers and Philosophers played a significant role in the American War of Independence. Thomas Paine through this writing 'Commonsense' inspired the Americans to raise their voice against the British Government. Another writer who sowed the seeds of independence among the Americans through his writings was Samuel Adams. Besides this, the writings of Locke, Rousseau, Adam Smith and Milton also influenced the Americans.

(xv) Rejection of the Olive Branch Petition

The Americans were united due to the activities of Lord North. In 1775, all the thirteen Colonies except Georgia met at Philadelphia. A petition in association with an Olive Branch was sent by them to the British Parliament claiming the revoke of the thirteen Acts conceded by the British Parliament since 1765. This was popularly called as the 'Olive Branch Petition'.

The method of conciliation was applied by Edmund Burke and Pitt, the Elder. George III was advised by them to negotiate with the Americans but George III did not give interest on their suggestion. Thus, the rebellious spirits of the colonists was aggravated.

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3.3.2 The Course of the War

The war for independence was a long, hard fought, struggle between the skilled army of Britain, the most powerful country and the American who were aspiring freedom, independence and sovereignty. The war did not end until 1783, when a peace treaty was approved in which Great Britain recognized the independence of the United States of America. It lasted for eight long years and by the time the war was over, twenty –seven thousand Americans and ten thousand British soldiers had lost their lives. This last chapter embarks on the most significant battles and their effects.

(i) The Intolerable Acts

Ruler George III was infuriated by this organized destruction of British property. He pressed Parliament to act. Parliament passed a series of laws (the Coercive Acts) in 1774 to punish the rebellious colonists. These laws were called the Intolerable Acts in the colonies. As the colonists had refused to pay for the damaged tea, one law was passed to shut down Boston Harbor. The Quartering Act was also passed which allowed British commanders to house soldiers in unoccupied private homes and other buildings. British government appointed General Thomas Gage, Commander in Chief of British forces in North America as the new governor of Massachusetts. Boston was placed under martial law by him to keep peace there.

(ii) First Continental Congress

The First Continental Congress was assembled. 56 delegates met in Philadelphia and drew up a declaration of colonial rights in September 1774. They agreed to demand right to run their own affairs. The protests in Massachusetts were supported by them and they threatened that the colonies would fight back if the British used force against them. They also decided to reconvene in May 1775 if their demands weren't fulfilled.

Colonists in numerous eastern New England towns stepped up military preparations just after the First Continental Congress. Firearms and gunpowder were began to be piled up by the civilian soldiers. These activities were learned by General Gage who now prepared to strike back.

(iii) Second Continental Congress

Colonial leaders convened a **second Continental Congress** in Philadelphia in May 1775, to debate their next move. However, events continued moving quickly. Civilian soldiers and British soldiers fought in a bloody battle outside Boston.

An endless debate continued regarding the loyalties that divided colonists at the Second Continental Congress. A sweeping, radical plan was suggested by John Adams of Massachusetts. He projected that each colony set up its own government and that the Congress declare the colonies independent.

Though, the debates raged on into June but one good thing was that the colonial militiamen were still encamped around Boston. They were recognised as the Continental army by the Congress. **George Washington**, a 43-year-old

veteran of the French and Indian War was appointed as its commander. The Congress started acting like a sovereign government. It allowed the printing of paper money to pay the troops and prepared a group to deal with foreign nations.

(iv) The Battle of Bunker Hill

Now, in the north of the city and near Bunker Hill, British general Thomas Gage decided to strike at militiamen who had dug in on Breed's Hill. On June 17, 1775, Gage sent out nearly 2,400 British troops. Though, sweating in wool uniforms and heavy packs, troops began marching up Breed's Hill in their customary broad lines. The colonists assumed their fire until the last minute, and then began to shoot down the advancing redcoats. A second and then a third attacks were made by the surviving British troops. Only because of the shortage of ammunition of the militiamen, British troops succeeded the third assault.

By the end of the clash, the colonists had suffered 450 men, while the British had lost over 1,000 fatalities. It was said that the Battle of Bunker Hill was the deadliest battle of the war.

(v) The Olive Branch Petition

By July 1775, the Second Continental Congress was preparing the colonies for war while still hopeful for peace. Like most colonists, the delegates felt deep loyalty to George III. They blamed the carnage on the ruler's ministers. On July 8, 1775, the Congress sent the ruler the so-called Olive Branch Petition. They urged a return to "the former harmony" between Britain and the colonies. Ruler George flatly rejected the petition. A proclamation stating that the colonies were in rebellion was issued. A naval blockade of the American coast was also urged by him to the Parliament.

(vi) Paine's Pamphlet

In **Common Sense**, a 50-page pamphlet, the colonist Thomas Paine attacked Ruler George III. Paine explained that his own revolt against the ruler had started with the fighting at Lexington and Concord. He called it "slaughter" at the hands of the ruler. Paine declared that the time had come for colonists to proclaim an independent republic and to form their own government. He argued that a new government established by the governed would be a great improvement over a ruler's rule.

Paine stated that by independence Americans would be free to trade independently with other nations for guns and ammunition and receive foreign help from British enemies. Paine also argued that by independence Americans would be given the chance to create an improved society which will be free from tyranny and with equal social and economic opportunities for all. **Common Sense** was widely applauded and sold nearly 500,000 copies. It helped to overcome numerous colonists' doubts about separating from Britain.

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(vii) Declaring Independence

Continental Congress went toward a concrete decision by the early summer of 1776. North Carolina was declared as independent. A majority of Virginians spread favour for their independence to their delegates. At last, it was decided by the Congress that each colony will form its own government. Delegate Richard Henry Lee moved on June 7 Virginia that “these United Colonies are, and of a right ought to be, free and independent States.”

While talks on this fateful movement were under way, the Congress selected a committee to get ready a formal declaration that would describe the reasons for the actions of the colonies. Virginia lawyer Thomas Jefferson, known for his broad knowledge and skilfully crafted prose, was chosen to express the committee’s points.

Jefferson’s masterful announcement of Independence was based on the concepts of the English thinker John Locke. The main philosophy of Locke was that individuals should enjoy “natural rights” to life, liberty, and property. Jefferson described these rights in the declaration, as “Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.” In keeping with Locke’s ideas, Jefferson then declared that governments derive “their just powers from the consent of the governed”—that is, from the individuals. Thus, the right of consent gave the people the right “to alter or to abolish” any rule that endangered their natural rights and to establish a rule that would support these ideology. On the foundation of this interpretation, the American colonies affirmed their independence from Britain. The Declaration listed the plentiful ways in which the British ruler had violated the “unalienable rights” of the Americans.

The Declaration explains absolutely that “all men are created equal.” This phrase expressed the general faith that free citizens were politically equal. It did not argue that all persons had the same abilities or ought to have the same assets. It was not supposed to hold women, Native Americans, and African American slaves. Moreover, Jefferson’s expression offered principles that would later assist these groups confront customary attitudes.

In his first draft, Jefferson, a slave owner himself, incorporated an eloquent attack on the cruelty and injustice of the slave trade. However, this draft was mostly objected by the South Carolina and Georgia, the two colonies who were dependent on slavery. To gain the votes of those two states, Jefferson dropped the passage on the slave trade.

The delegates voted unanimously that the American colonies were free on July 2, 1776. They adopted the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776. While the delegates were creating a formal copy of the Declaration, the document was read aloud to a crowd in front of the Pennsylvania State House, now called Independence Hall. The closing vow was: “We mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes, and our Sacred Honor.” This spread a feelings of pride and anxiety among the Patriots, the supporters of independence.

(viii) Americans Choose Sides (Loyalists or Patriots)

Americans now faced a hard and bitter option: revolution or loyalty to the Crown. This question divided communities, friends, and even families all through the colonies. It divided into two groups- loyalists and patriots.

The accurate figure of Loyalists those against independence and remained faithful to the Crown was unknown. Many people with Loyalist sympathies transformed sides as the war progressed. Some Loyalists felt a special tie to the ruler because they had served as judges, councillors, or governors. Most Loyalists, however, were ordinary individuals of modest means. They incorporated some individuals who lived far from the cities and knew little of the events that turned other colonists into revolutionaries. Other individuals remained loyal because they thought that the British were going to win the war and they wanted to avoid being punished as rebels. Still, others were Loyalists as they thought that the Crown would defend their rights more efficiently than the new colonial governments would.

Patriots drew their numbers from individuals who envisioned economic opportunity in an independent America. The Patriot cause embraced farmers, artisans, merchants, landowners, and chose officials. Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, who were German colonists, also joined the struggle for independence. While Patriots made up nearly half the population, numerous Americans remained neutral. Most inhabitant Americans supported the British since they viewed colonial settlers as a greater danger to their lands.

Now, the colonies had to face two wars- a war for independence and a civil war. The cost of selecting sides could be high. By declaring their independence, the Patriots had invited war with the mightiest kingdom on the Earth.

(ix) The War Moves to the Middle States

Moving the theatre of war to the middle states, the British had previously retreated from Boston in March 1776. The British decided to seize New York City as part of a grand plan to stop the rebellion by isolating New England.

General William Howe and Admiral Richard Howe were the two brothers, who joined forces on Staten Island. They sailed into New York harbor in the summer of 1776 with the largest British expeditionary force ever assembled— 32,000 soldiers. Their force incorporated thousands of German mercenaries, or soldiers who fight solely for money. The Americans called these troops Hessians, because numerous of them came from the German region of Hesse.

As an early supporter of American independence, George Washington had started to recruit and train a militia when tensions first arose with the British. For New York's defence, Washington rallied 23,000 men, but he was vastly outnumbered. The majority of his troops were inexperienced recruits with meagre equipment. The battle for New York finished in late August with an American retreat following heavy losses. Michael Graham, a Continental army volunteer, depicted the chaotic withdrawal on August 27, 1776.

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Later on, the British had pushed the army of Washington across the Delaware River into Pennsylvania. The vast mainstream of Washington's army had either deserted or had been killed or captured. Less than 8,000 army men remained under Washington's command, and the terms of their recruitment were due to end on December 31. Washington desperately needed some kind of triumph for his men to keep them from going home.

(x) The Battle of Trenton

One bold stroke was set for Christmas night, 1776 by Washington resolved everything. Boldly, he led 2,400 men in small rowboats across the ice-choked Delaware River. By the next morning 8 o'clock, nine miles had been marched by the men through sleet and snow to reach Trenton, New Jersey, assumed by a garrison of Hessians. Lulled into confidence by the storm, most of the Hessians had drunk too much rum the night before and were still sleeping it off. The Americans killed 30 of the enemy in a surprise attack and took 918 captives and six Hessian cannons. Eight days later, the Americans were rallied by another amazing victory against 1,200 British stationed at Princeton. Confident by these triumphs, Washington marched his military into winter camp near Morristown, in northern New Jersey.

(xi) The Fight for Philadelphia

In the spring of 1777, the muddy fields dried out. So, General Howe started his movement to seize the American capital at Philadelphia. His army sailed from New York to the head of Chesapeake Bay, and in late August, landed near the capital. The Continental Congress fled the city. The troops of Washington ineffectively proceeded to block the redcoats at nearby Brandywine Creek. Philadelphia was captured by the British, and the pleasure-loving General Howe settled in to take pleasure in the warmth of the city's appreciative Loyalists.

(xii) Triumph at Saratoga

Meanwhile, one of British generals, John "Gentleman Johnny" Burgoyne set out with 4,000 redcoats, 3,000 mercenaries, and 1,000 Mohawk under his command. Along with extra personal items, such as fine clothes and champagne, his military had to haul 30 wagons containing 138 pieces of artillery. Burgoyne's army was bogged down because of the south of Lake Champlain, swamps and gullies, as well as thick underbrush. Even, Food supplies ran low.

General Horatio Gates had been appointed by the Continental Congress to command the Northern Department of the Continental military. Gates was a popular commander. From all over New York and New England, he gathered militiamen and soldiers. Burgoyne suffered numerous hundred men each time his armed forces clashed with the Americans.

Finally, on October 17, 1777, Burgoyne was surrounded by Massed American troops at Saratoga, where he surrendered his battered army to General Gates. The surrender at Saratoga dramatically transformed Britain's

war strategy. From that time on, the British commonly kept their troops along the coast, close to the big guns and supply bases of the British fleet.

(xiii) American–French Alliance (A Turning Point)

France continued to be Great Britain's biggest rival in the struggle to build a world empire. The French were still bitter from their defeat by the British in the French and Indian War, resulting in loss of North American territory. This rivalry caused the French to work with the Americans against the British.

To begin the American–French alliance, the French had secretly sent weapons to the Patriots since early 1776. The Saratoga triumph bolstered French trust in the American army. France now agreed to support the Revolution. In February 1778, the French recognized American independence and signed an alliance or treaty of cooperation with the Americans. As per the terms of the treaty, France decided not to build peace with Britain unless Britain also accepted American independence.

The French government helped the Americans by sending gunpowder, artillery, and muskets. Then in 1776 the Americans sent Benjamin Franklin to France as an influential diplomat. In his fur cap and homespun coat, he became a favourite with both aristocrats and the ordinary individuals. Franklin was in Paris when the news of Saratoga reached there in December 1777. As a consequence of Saratoga and Franklin's diplomatic skills, France soon signed two treaties. One treaty officially accepted the United States as a country. The other promised armed help. In 1780, France sent 6,000 soldiers to assist the Americans to fight the British.

(xiv) The British Move South

After their devastating defeat at Saratoga, the British transformed their military strategy. They began to shift their operations to the South in the summer of 1778. Because, the British hoped Loyalists' support, regain control over former colonies in the area, and then gradually fight their way back north.

British general Cornwallis succeeded for most of 1780. As the redcoats advanced, they were joined by thousands of African Americans who had freed from Patriot slave owners to join the British and win their freedom. In August, Cornwallis's army smashed American forces at Camden, South Carolina. However, when Cornwallis and his forces advanced into North Carolina, Patriot bands attacked them and cut British communications lines. The continuous harassment forced the redcoats to retreat to South Carolina.

(xv) The British Surrender at Yorktown

Now, Americans were favoured with good time and luck. In 1780, after the British left the city to focus on the South, a French army of 6,000 had landed in Newport, Rhode Island. The French had kept one navy there and were operating another in the West Indies. As soon as the news of Cornwallis's tactics reached him, the Marquis de Lafayette recommended that the American and French armies unite forces with the two French fleets and attack the British armed forces at Yorktown.

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The Americans and the French closed in on Cornwallis, following Lafayette's plan. A British fleet was defeated by a French naval force. Then, French prevented a British rescue by sea by blocking the entrance to the Chesapeake Bay. In the meantime, about 17,000 French and American troops surrounded the British on the Yorktown peninsula and bombarded them day and night. It took only three weeks to siege Yorktown. Finally, Cornwallis raised the white flag of surrender on October 17, 1781, with his troops outnumbered by more than two to one and exhausted from constant shelling.

(xvi) Treaty of Paris

In 1782, peace talks began in Paris. The negotiations was joined by representatives of four nations—the United States, Great Britain, France, and Spain. Britain was interested to avoid giving America complete independence. Though, France supported American independence but was afraid of America's becoming a foremost power. Spain was interested in acquiring the land between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River. Numerous observers expected the savvy European diplomats to outwit the Americans at the bargaining table. But, an able team of negotiators—John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and John Jay of New York was chosen by the Continental Congress. Before any other negotiations began, the three together demanded that Britain recognize American independence. The talks officially opened, once Britain agreed to full independence.

The delegates signed the **Treaty of Paris** in September 1783. This treaty set the boundaries of the new nation and confirmed U.S. independence. The border of the United States now fixed from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River and from Canada to the Florida boundary. Some of the provisions promised future problem. No attempt was made by the British to protect the land interests of their Native American allies, and no specify date was declared when the British would leave their American forts. On the other side, the Americans approved that British creditors could amass debts owed them by Americans and vowed to permit Loyalists to take legal action in state courts for revival of their losses. Later, the state governments failed to honour this contract.

3.3.3 Consequences and Significance of the Revolution

Far beyond the North American continent, the American Revolution had a lot of significance. It fascinated the attention of a political intelligentsia all through the European continent. Many thinkers such as Thaddeus Kosciusko, Friedrich von Steuben, and the Marquis de Lafayette connected its position to insist liberal ideas they hoped to transfer to their own nations. Its victory strengthened the notion of normal rights all through the Western world and furthered the Enlightenment rationalist analysis of an old order built around hereditary monarchy and an established church.

(i) Thirteen Colonies Got Independence

Declaration of independence in 1776 granted freedom to the thirteen American Colonies which were a group of colonies of Great Britain on the Atlantic coast

of America founded in the 17th and 18th centuries and formed the United States of America. Very similar political, constitutional, and legal systems were there within these thirteen Colonies and they were dominated by Protestant English-speakers. The southern colonies were founded for financial profit and business expansion, while northern colonies were founded primarily for religious reasons.

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(ii) First Written Constitution

The first written constitution was drafted by the new states. It was a significant improvement from the conventionally unwritten British Constitution. Virginia's declaration of "**bill of rights**" in their constitution was followed by many states to protect the rights of individuals and circumscribe the prerogative of the government. The most radical and democratic state constitution was of Pennsylvania. They formed a unicameral legislature and an Executive Council but without an authentic executive. All free men, including those who did not own property could vote. In 1780, Massachusetts' constitution was passed which was less democratic but underwent a more popular process of sanction. A constitutional convention in Cambridge was held in 1779 to which 312 delegates attended. Town meetings offered suggestions after debating about the draft of the constitution. Massachusetts established a three-branch government based on checks and balances between the branches as anticipating the later federal constitution. It also offered the executive veto power over legislation unlike some other states. Though, 1776 was the year of independence, but it was also the commencement of an extraordinary period of constitution preparing and state building.

(iii) Importance to the Rights of Men

The Rights of Human beings were laid stress by the American War of Independence. The 'Declaration of Rights' by Thomas Jefferson aroused individuals about their rights. The words of the Declaration of Independence concerning the equal opportunity of all men and the 'absolute rights' of man motivated the situation in America and outside. Thus, The American Revolution inspired to strengthen the idea of the 'right of revolution', the right of individuals to overthrow a tyrannical government. Thus, the principles of the English revolutions of the 17th century were expressed more fully. The establishment of a republic in America as well as by the gradual growth of democracy deeply influenced the whole world.

(iv) Political Participation Increased

After independence, Political and social life of the individuals transformed drastically. Political participation grew as more individuals gained the right to vote. In addition, more common citizens (or "new men") played increasingly significant roles in local and state governance. Hierarchy within the states underwent significant changes. The Declaration of Independence and the state constitutions hold Locke's ideas of "natural law" as the central theme. Society became less deferential and more democratic, less upper-class oriented and more meritocratic.

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Every section among Americans started to re-examine politics. Even though they finally returned to a more centralized government similar to Britain, they wanted to change how they govern their society. Women experienced more freedom and slaves and Loyalist experienced a large quantity of change in society. Some Loyalists left America and some slaves were decided the freedom. Overall, political and social changes were expected everywhere in America.

(v) Big Blow to Noble Society and Aristocratic Privilege

The Revolution in America dealt a big blow to noble society and aristocratic privilege. The loyalists, those who supported Britain during the American war of Independence constituted half a million individuals or 20% of white Americans. About 80,000 loyalists left the United States during the course of the Revolution and their leaving undermined the old colonial patrimonial power organization. The way out of several important members of the old colonial society no doubt formed room for what Jefferson called “the aristocracy of virtue and talent”. After the Revolution, all the states promised protecting large estates and significant families and abolished legal strategy of primogeniture. In matters concerning inheritance and possession of property, the equal rights of widows and daughters were recognized. The patriarchal control of men over their wives declined after the Revolution, The wives gained the right to hold property separately and contracts to do business in the absence of their husbands. Except South Carolina, all the states introduced liberal laws on divorce. Widows got absolute possession of 1/3rd of the lands rather than just the lifetime use which had been the traditional practice earlier. Not only feudal forms of land tenure were finished but the American Revolution supported more enlightened attitude towards the family.

(vi) The War Made Britain Financially Weak

The British government was nearly ruined financially, after the huge expenses it had made attempting to keep hold of the colonies. After the war, the national debt of Britain skyrocketed and the government was required to put new taxes to mend the problem. Import and export imbalances emerged as Britain’s trade routes, of which colonial America had been an intricate part, were thrown into disarray. Shortly after the conclusion of the war, luckily, Britain was able to recommence trade with the colonies. And these trade inequalities were short-lived. Furthermore, the reputation of the British military received a huge hit. Often regarded in the eighteenth century as the best-drilled army and largest navy in the world, the British army now appeared mortal after being defeated by a alliance of rebellious colonists with French aid.

(vii) An Inspiration to France

The increasing of middle class in France was attractive, they saw that America had debated for and won freedom for the individual. The French thought they could do the same. The French revolution began in 1789, not more than a period after the American Revolution had finished. America became a symbol of freedom and democracy after the Revolution. The Revolution was moving

to individuals in Europe and Latin America who was organizing them to fight for their own freedom. Some new democracies used the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. constitution, along with earlier documents such as the English Bill of Rights as their own documents.

(viii) Importance of Women Felt

Though, women played a distinct role during the war by managing the household things carefully, they got little as the consequence of the war. In the aftermath of the Revolution, as women pushed the limits that had governed their colonial grandmothers, leaders of the new Republic undertook a redefinition of female roles. The issue aroused considerable public debate, especially among newspaper and magazine editors. Men no longer could accept unthinkingly the faith in feminine limitation, fragility, and dependence. But, discarding such traditional characterizations of female nature was not everything. A new relationship between the state and women's public role was needed to be started. Yet, few citizens were willing to declare that men and women were equal. Thus, by recognizing the value of women's work, society endowed domesticity with political meaning. As a consequence of the American Revolution, republican ideology emphasized the importance of female education.

(ix) End of Mercantilism

The Revolution's most significant long-term economic consequence was the end of mercantilism. Various restrictions on the colonial economies including limiting trade, settlement, and manufacturing were imposed by the British Empire. New markets and new trade relationships were opened by the Revolution. The Americans' triumph also opened the western territories for invasion and settlement, which created new domestic markets. Americans' own manufacturers began to create products.

(x) Lesson to Native American

The Revolution also affected the Native Americans those who participated in it. Numerous Native American tribes and confederacies, such as the Shawnee, Creek, Cherokee, and Iroquois, sided with the British. They had anticipated for a British victory that would carry on restraining the land-hungry colonial settlers from moving west away from the Appalachian Mountains. Unluckily, the Americans' victory and Native Americans' support for the British formed pretence for justifying the rapid and often fierce extension into the western territories. Throughout the nineteenth century, Native American tribes would continue to be displaced and pushed further west. In the end, independence of America marked the commencement of the end of what had remained of Native American independence.

(xi) Impact of the Revolution on other Countries

In the whole of Europe, the influence of American War of Independence was felt. To the French and others (who were being oppressed by autocrats or imperialists), the American revolutionaries served as a source of great inspiration. The imperialist countries of the east regarded the Revolution as a

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good lesson for them. The revolution inspired the down trodden masses of France to revolt against despotism and aristocracy, barely six years after the agreement of Paris was signed. Thus, with the birth of the United States of America, the spirit of nationalism began to spread. In 1789, French rebels fought in protection of "*Liberty equality, and Fraternity*". The principles of the American Declaration of Independence: "*Men are born and remain free and equal in rights*" was repeated by French revolutionaries.

(xii) Constitutional Recognition of Slavery

The issue of slavery was a significant factor influencing the constitution of 1787. The democratic ideas of the Enlightenment as well as economic and class interests influenced the Founding Fathers of the American Republic. Slavery separated the Northern Free States from the Southern Slave states, the latter reluctant to discard their economic self-centredness in the continuation of slavery. It was good that slavery had not been recognised by the Constitution of 1787. Otherwise, there was a risk that the slave dominated states might have denied to join the Union or might have come under the pressure of Spanish territories to the South of the slave states. For creating and preserving the American Union, Legal and constitutional recognition of slavery was deemed a necessary condition.

Though slavery was recognised by the Constitution the word itself was used only once in the Thirteenth Amendment which abolished it. In the constitution itself the slaves are mentioned only as "person assumed to service or labour". There were five constitutional provisions which recognised slavery explicitly.

(xiii) A Super Power Evolved out of this

After the independence of thirteen colonies, the United States of America emerged as a planned nation on the way of socio-economic build up. A new avenue of trade for America was opened by this war. America established her trade relationship with other countries and became prosperous. The United States of America grew from strength to strength and became super power in the world.

3.3.4 Conclusion

The American Revolution had significance far beyond the North American continent. It involved the concentration of a political intelligentsia all through the European continent. Optimistic notables like Thaddeus Kosciusko, Friedrich von Steuben, and the Marquis de Lafayette connected its ranks to insist liberal ideas they anticipated to move to their own nations. Its triumph strengthened the idea of natural rights all through the Western world and preceded the Enlightenment rationalist evaluation of an old order built around traditional monarchy and a recognized cathedral. Correctly saying, it was a forerunner to the French Revolution, but it lacked the violence and chaos of French Revolution because it had happened in a society that was already basically liberal. The American Revolution resulted numerous changes-independence to thirteen colonies, a written constitution, bill of rights, etc.

Check Your Progress

3. What was American Revolution?
4. What was the first Continental Congress?

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3.4 FRENCH REVOLUTION

The year 1789 was the year of epoch-making events in the history of France. All these events were connected to the outbreak of the French Revolution which brought a drastic change in the socio-economic and political life of the people of France. The despotic rule of the Bourbon monarchy in France, mal-administration, inefficiency of Louis XVI, arrogance of Marie Antoinette, unequal social conditions of the people and financial bankruptcy of the state are the examples of the crisis during the old rule or regime in France. The French philosophers like Jean Jack Rousseau, Montesquieu and Voltaire awakened the people against this injustice and motivated them for the revolution. They worked like charging the batteries of the people to fight against the Bourbon rule and bring a change in France. So the revolution took place in France in the year 1789. Many events happened in the course of the revolution. It began with excellent role played by the National Assembly from 1789-1791. Fall of the fort of Bastille, declaration of freedom and human rights with liberty, equality and fraternity, the assassination of the king and queen, end of Reign of Terror with Robespierre, etc. were the main events in the course of the revolution. Revolution made a great change in France by overthrowing the despotic and corrupt regime in France, changing the orthodox thoughts with the new moderate ones, abolishing feudalism and unlimited power of monarchy. Not only in France, even the revolution had impacts on the whole world. It gave a lesson to the world that **‘King is not the representative of the God but of people’**. **‘People are the supreme citizens who can overthrow the despotic rule by their will’**. The revolution spread the democratic message to near and far countries who realised the importance of freedom and rights of people and they started a change in their own countries. Now the whole world understood that **‘Man is born free’, and ‘a constitution is a must for any country’**. Thus French Revolution was the beacon of light for the whole world.

3.4.1 Causes of French Revolution

A. Social Causes

‘The revolution of 1789 was much less a rebellion against despotism than against inequality.’ The revolution came as the monarch could not solve the question of privileges and satisfy the need of the unprivileged. The feudal structure of the society of France was full of inequality and cruelty. The French society was divided into two classes namely the privileged and the unprivileged.

1. Privileged Class

The clergy, the first estate and nobility, the second estate belonged to the privileged class. Both of them formed a small minority of the total population

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of the country. In the total population of 24 million, there were 150,000 nobles and 130,000 clergymen. Total strength of both clergy and noble was about one percent. In spite of their smallness in size, they excelled in all other matters of rank, possessions and privileges.

Clergy (The First Estate)

The Clergy of the Roman Catholic Church constituted the first order in the state. The Church was very powerful and rich. It perhaps occupied one-fifth of the land of France. They were the holders of the religious offices under the Roman Catholic Church. It had the extraordinary influence on the government and monarch. It dominated the life of the people in France.

Clergies collected a tax, the Tithe from the common people's agricultural products. It had been exempted from giving any tax to the government. Its contribution to the welfare of the people was zero. To make the king happy, it was frequently giving financial grants to the king. The Archbishops and Bishops had their huge income and were living in the splendid palaces with so many servants.

Taxpayers hated the tithe levied by the church, even though the full 10 percent implied by the word tithe was seldom demanded. They also complained about the church's exemption from taxation. While the peasants remained moderately faithful Catholics and regarded the village priest, if not the bishop, with esteem and affection, the bourgeoisie increasingly accepted the anticlerical views of the philosopher.

Higher Clergy and Lower Clergy

Clergies were further divided into higher and lower clergy. Most of the income of the church went to the higher clergy, i.e. bishops and archbishops, and a small number of abbots, canons and other dignitaries. The total number did not exceed five or six thousand. They were living in such extravagance.

On the other hand, the condition of the lower clergies who did the real spiritual work was not living in satisfaction. They were humble, poorly paid, and generally hardworking; the priests resented the wealth and arrogance of their ecclesiastical superiors. The higher posts were monopolised by younger sons of nobility but the lower clergies were the sons of the third estate. These people were coming under the direct contact with the hardships of the general mass and experiencing the same. The lower clergies were always opposing the extravagance of the higher clergy and they supported the reactions of the common people for a revolution. As Leo Gershoy rightly said, "the relations between the upper and lower clergy were an exchange of arrogance on the one part and open or suppressed hostility on the other.

Nobles (The Second Estate)

The second privileged class was the nobility. The rank of nobility was acquired by birth, by military service, by the purchase of patent of nobility or by possession of certain public offices. A noble was addressed as "My Lord", "Your Grace", etc. The man in the street was required to salute him as his

superior. The best seats were reserved for him both in the church and in the theatre. He was not expected to marry below his class.

Every noble left to his son either a castle or a mansion and also a lot of territories from which he could collect taxes. *Montesquieu, a noble himself, wrote thus: "A great noble is a man who sees the king, speaks to his ministers and who possess ancestors, debts and pensions."* They were exempted from giving any tax to the state. They monopolised all the key posts in the sphere of administration and also in the army.

The nobles were divided into two classes namely- the nobility of the sword and the nobility of the robe. The nobility of the sword gave military assistance to the king and enjoyed the feudal property. The nobility of the robe enjoyed the judicial offices. The nobility of the sword was divided into two classes- nobility of the court and provincial nobles.

The nobility of the court had their all type of amusement in the court. But the provincial nobles lived in distant provinces far away from the pleasure and amusements of the royal court. They worked as ordinary soldiers in the army with very less salary. They were living with the common peasants and always opposed the amusements enjoyed by the superior nobles.

2. Unprivileged Class (Middle Class and Peasants)

Upper Middle Class (The Bourgeoisie)

The upper middle class consisted of lawyers, bankers, physicians, teachers, literary men, merchants and manufacturers. They were the enlightened mass who actually led the revolution in France. They were also called bourgeoisie. *According to C.D. Hazen, "intelligent, energetic, educated and well-to-do, favoured, therefore, a political reorganisation which should enable them to participate in the government to control its expenditures and to assure its solvency."*

Peasants

More than 25 million peasants were living in France on the eve of the France Revolution. Though all depend on their small plots of land, no governmental help and development took place in the production of agriculture. They were very poor as the whole burden of society fell upon them. They had to pay several kinds of taxes to the state and to their feudal lords. He was compelled to use the landlord's mill and had to pay a high price. Different taxes they paid were such as Taille or land tax, Vingtieme or income tax, Curvee or road tax, Gabelle or salt tax, etc. Road making was the duty of the peasants. A lot of works they had to do for landlords, the king and church. Around 80% of their income they were paying to the state as tax. The state was not directly collecting the taxes. Some individuals were given the power to collect the tax and they exploited the people in many ways.

After paying all the dues, the French peasant was left with only about 20% of the total produce. In a few districts of France, the peasants were able to pay

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their taxes and still live comfortably, but in the rest of France, their conditions were most miserable and can be better felt than described.

A dry summer and a long winter completely finished them. Starving peasants tried to satisfy their hunger with roots and herbs and thousands of them died of starvation. It is rightly pointed out that, “in France, nine-tenths of the population died of starvation and a tenth of indigestion.”

Hungry belly became angry. Thus the dissatisfied and exploited peasants started opposing the feudal cruelty and a mass uprising started in France in 1789.

B. Political Causes

The term Ancient Regime of France is used for the “old rule” which was the political, social and economic system of the kingdom of France from the Late Middle Ages (15th century A.D.) until the year 1789, when hereditary monarchy and the feudal system of France were abolished by the French Revolution. The major part of the regime was ruled by the Bourbon dynasty. This unpopular dynastic rule before 1789 was a rule of corruption, unjust administration, unequal feudal status and faulty judicial system. That spread the crisis in every sphere of France and more often the country faced economic bankruptcy, poverty and shortage of food which spread continuous unsatisfactory feeling and chaos among the people.

The political and administrative conditions in France were related to each other. The autocratic and corrupted monarchy could not establish a fair administration for the people. All type of administration such as legal, local, revenue, etc. created chaos and confusion in the minds of the people of France. Different taxes such as land tax (taille), salt tax (gabelle), tax to church (Tithe), etc. were collected from common people only. So they became overburdened and stressed in the society.

The following situations in France aggravated the political and administrative crisis in the country.

1. Divine Right Theory

French monarchs always wanted to be despotic. But they were spreading the message that they were the representative of God. So, all subjects of the country should obey the order of the king. This is called Divine right theory of king. Under this kingship, the king did not rule by the consent of the people but by the blessings of God. The king was absolute and the Estates general or parliament was subordinate to the King. He was the head of all the three powers of the government such as legislative, executive and judiciary. He makes the law, executes the law and protects the people from tyranny.

2. Autocratic Monarchy

During the 18th century, France was the centre of autocratic monarchy. The France monarchs of Bourbon dynasty had absolute and unlimited power to levy taxes, execute laws, and declare a war or signing a peace settlement. They engaged themselves lavishly and luxurious activities in the royal court at

Versailles. They used their unlimited power by issuing Letters de Cachet to arrest a person any time and put him into jail. The very heart-rending sight was that they were not giving any attention towards the betterment of their subjects.

Louis XIV (1643-1715), of the Bourbon dynasty, was a powerful king and declared himself as "I am the state". Though he was an efficient, hardworking and confident ruler, he couldn't do anything for the people. He wanted a centralised administration but he left France with acute hunger, poverty and financial disorder. He spent his time in war and luxury by which country went through a great financial loss.

After Louis XIV, his grandson Louis XV (1715-1774) ascended the throne of France. He was famous in history as butterfly monarch'. He tried his best to preserve all the tradition of the ancient regime. His defective overseas policy weakened the economic situation of France. He participated in 'Seven Years War' against England. As consequence, it brought nothing but a great loss for France. France became bankrupt because of over expenditure in luxury and war. Though he realised it in his later life, no recovery was made.

Louis XVI, the successor of Louis XV, was an inefficient ruler. He sincerely wanted to bring a good administration for the subjects but due to lack of confidence and determination, he couldn't do so. His weakness was his wife Marie Antoinette who was very beautiful and influenced the king in every matter of administration.

3. Defective Administration

To run the administration smoothly, France had been divided into a number of administrative units. These units were known as intendancies or generalities. The head of the intendancies or the provinces were the intendants. King was directly appointing these provincial governors and they were always helping the king in misgovernance. They had the control over army, court and religious affairs of their units According to Leo Gershoy, 'the weakness of the governmental system lay not with individual intendants, nor even with the intendants as a class of administrators. It lay first with the theory of government, in the fact that the newer forms of centralised administration were superimposed upon a semi-feudal society in which privileged individuals clung tenaciously to innumerable older offices and prerogatives and secondly with the chaos of the central administration and incompetence of Louis XVI.'

4. No Uniform Laws

The defective administrative system of France can be determined by its non-uniformity in-laws. There was no uniformity and coordination in the administration of law and administration in the state. Frequent tussles were seen between administration regarding their unscientific and inefficient jurisdictions. Even people were confused about laws and administration. Before the revolution of 1789, France had as many as 285 different systems of laws. Even civil laws which were related to the social life of the people were different from province to province. There were also variations in the system of weights and measures.

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5. Defective Fiscal System

There was also more confusion in the sphere of revenue administration and taxation. King's income and the national income was one. Revenue of the state was derived from the variety of taxes. Important direct taxes like Taille or land tax, Viengtieme or income tax and the capitation or poll tax were levied. The main indirect taxes were like salt tax or Gabelle and excise tax. The system of assessment of taxes and collection method was very defective. The privileged classes like Nobles and Clergies were exempted from giving tax. Only the burden of tax was on the common people. According to Gershoy, 'the method of collection was financially wasteful and corrupt, socially offensive and economically indefensible, in the case of indirect taxes, the methods were vexatious and brutal as well.' In some cases, the private agent was auctioned to collect taxes from the people.

6. No Individual Liberty

People had no freedom of thought and expression. Anyone opposed to the traditional belief system, they were imprisoned. Even the commoners were not given a fair trial to prove their innocence. The royal order, so-called Letter de Cachet had the power to imprison anybody any time. People had no political right to elect any leader, to conduct a meeting or to form an association. The majority, the common people were always seen as down trodden and had to respect other two classes in the public. A constitution in France was a bare necessity.

7. Luxurious Living Style

Total 18,000 persons were appointed in the court of Versailles out of which 16,000 were deputed for the personal service of the king and his family. Other two thousand persons were engaged in various work of the Court, always busy to maintain any small pleasure of the courtiers. All-sided luxury was given to the courtiers.

Separate establishments were provided to the king, queen, the royal children and the brothers, sisters and aunts of the king. Queen alone had more than 500 servants always ready to serve. There were more than 1900 hoes and 200 carriages in the royal stables which costs more than four million dollars a year. The table of the king cost more than a million and a half dollars. All these expensive lifestyles of the royal court increase the annual expenditure of the king and led to the fiscal deficit.

8. Influence of Marie Antoinette (1755-93)

Louis XVI married to Marie Antoinette who was the daughter of Maria Theresa, Empress of Austria-Hungary. The main aim behind this marriage was to strengthen the relationship between Austria and France. Marie was very beautiful and had a strong willpower and determination. But she was lacking in judgement and wisdom.

Born in a royal family, she did not understand the temperament of the common people in France. She was always extravagant, proud, impatient and fond of luxury.

She always interfered in the government affairs and committed a large number of mistakes. That's why people of France hated her a lot.

Once Holy Roman Emperor Joseph II, Marie's real brother wrote about her: "Let me, my dear sister, address you with frankness justified by my affection for you and my interest in your welfare. From what I hear, you are becoming involved in a great many matters that are no concern of yours. This conduct may well impair your happiness and sooner or later must provoke serious trouble between you and the king, which will detract from his affection and esteem for you, and cause you to fall into disfavour with the public...why should you, my dear sister, employ yourself in removing ministers from their posts, in banishing one and giving office to another, in seeing that some friends of yours win his law-suit or in creating a new and expensive court appointment, in brief, in discussing affairs in a manner that is little suited to your position?"

C. Religious Causes

Clergies were the upper class of the society of France. There were nearly five thousand religious centres in the country. There were about 25 thousand men and women working in these religious centres. The religious institution from village to the pope of Rome was a very strong chain system. Their officials were Pope, Cardinal, Archbishops, Archdekin, Bishop, Bikan, Abat, etc.

Catholicism was the major religion in France. Protestants were the minority. All worst things were going on in the name of God in the Church and in the noble's court by the help of Church. Clergies were divided into two groups- upper clergies and lower clergies. Lower clergies were neglected by the upper clergies in the order.

The main duty of the religious institutions was to spread peace and increase social and religious morality in the society. But they were busy in influencing the government. So they were getting every right, concessions, money and luxury in the church. Church people were living very rich like the feudal.

As the king needed religious sanction in different works of the court, Clergies were given a lot of benefit in their lifestyle. So Church had the right to collect a separate tax from the common people.

D. Economic Causes

It was correctly remarked that "The revolution was triggered by the economic factor and the train which had been laid by the philosophy was fixed by finance." "The financial causes lay the root of the Revolution."

All the three Bourbon kings Louis XIV, Louis XV and Louis XVI were responsible for the financial crisis. Louis XIV fought several wars and wasted national treasury. He realised his mistakes and advised Louis XV to take measures to improve the finance. But later did not care for these words. He

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wasted a lot of money on palaces, court, and taking in wars. He participated in the War of Polish Succession. He also took part in the 'War of Austrian Succession' and The 'Seven Years War'. France was on the verge of bankruptcy when Louis XVI ascended the throne. In spite of that Louis XVI joined in the War of American Independence which drained away the remaining treasury of France.

The financial system of France was rotten. The nobility and Clergy who were the upper classes of the society and owned 40% of the total wealth of the country did not contribute anything to the revenue of the country. All burdens of taxes were on the common people who were the unprivileged class of the society.

So the national debt increased tremendously and is estimated to have reached the figure of 4,467,478,000 livres. Now it became impossible to reduce these necessary expenses related to the court, public or nation's security. Only the solution was to take some radical measures to save the economy of France.

Turgot (1774-1776)

Louis XVI appointed Turgot as the Controller General of Finance. He gave his own slogan to rescue France from debt. The slogan was "No bankruptcy, no increase of taxation, no more borrowing." He realised that if the annual deficit of the Central Government was allowed to continue, it was bound to result ultimately in bankruptcy. He tried to reduce the royal expenditure and maintained financial control over all the departments. He wanted to develop public wealth by introducing the regime of liberty into agriculture, industry and commerce. By these policies he succeeded in saving many millions.

By this, he annoyed the court and rich people who were enjoying this expenditure. They all joined hands with Marie Antoinette and put pressure on the king to dismiss Turgot. Thus in 1776, the king dismissed Turgot from the post.

Necker (1776-1781)

Necker was a banker in Geneva. He was appointed as the successor of Turgot. He was the first person to publish a financial report which showed the annual income and expenditure of the state. Necker improved the collection of taxes, reduced expenditures like Turgot, and audited the account of the state. For the first time, he disclosed the secret of Royal Treasury before the people for which he was praised by the bankers of that period.

But these activities were vehemently opposed by the court people and they joined hands with Marie Antoinette and demanded the dismissal of Necker. At last, Necker was dismissed from the post.

Colonne (1783-1787)

Colonne was an agreeable person who supported the court people in regard to borrowing. He secured fresh loans to meet the deficit of the state and within a period of three years nearly 300 million dollars were borrowed. As the result, by August 1786, the royal treasury was completely empty. The only mistake of

Colonne was to propose a general tax to be paid by both privileged and unprivileged classes. He had to face the opposition from the privileged classes. Ultimately he was also removed from the post.

Assembly of Notables 1787

Louise XVI could not control the aggravated financial situation in France. And he called the Assembly of Notables in 1787. It was advised by the assembly of Notables to summon the Estates General.

The Estates General was summoned on May 1, 1789, and it served as the prelude for the outbreak of the Revolution. This assembly was not met since 1614. On 5th May 1789 the Estates General met and as usual, the three orders had their separate sitting. It was the demand in the meeting of the third estate that 'all the three orders should sit together and voting should be done not by order but by the head. This idea was opposed by both Clergy and Nobility.

Godwin has correctly commented, "The immediate cause of the French Revolution of 1789 must be sought neither in the Economic grievances of the peasants nor in the political discontents of the middle class but in the reactions of the French Aristocracy. The king did not support the popular clamour for reform and "it was the French monarchy which made the revolution."

Finally, the Third Estate left the meeting and declared them as the National Assembly. Thus it started the process of the revolution.

E. Philosophical Cause

The crisis might be manifold. No doubt people of France were going under continuous cruelty and exploitation. Those pain and miseries were continued to be oiled up. Only the work was left to motivate them and make them ready to fight against such injustice meted out to them. That work was carried out by the intellectuals with their unfolded and continuous current of inspiration and guidance. That culminated in the event of a revolution in the year 1789 in France. Many philosophers ignited and charged the minds of the people against absolute monarchy, religious intolerance, abuses of the Church and privileges under feudal society. Among them, Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau were the three intellectual giants of the age.

Montesquieu (1689-1755)

Montesquieu was an eminent lawyer and well versed in history. He was very famous for his book "Spirit of Laws." He criticised the corruption of the court and condemned the privileges of the aristocracy. After analysing the various form of governments in different countries, he realised that the constitutional monarchy like England was the better form of government. He believed in the supremacy of law and 'separation of powers'.

According to him, "the liberty of the people is only possible if the power is separated into different organs like legislative, executive and judiciary. The tyranny is there because of the combination of two or more powers in one hand. "He also preferred to check the arbitrary rule of the monarch.

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The spirit of laws, the great book, was the product of 20 years of labour and was published in 1748. It discusses various forms of governments and their merits and demerits. Prof. **Salvemini correctly said, “The spirit of laws awakened in cultivated persons a taste for juridical and political studies, brought the social science into the field of literature, and helped more than any other work to generate that atmosphere of sociological and philosophic dilettantism that empowered eighteenth-century revolutionary theories to grow.”**

Voltaire (1694-1778)

The most brilliant among the intellectuals of France was Voltaire. He was a prolific writer who wrote a number of dramas, poems and essays on a number of subjects. The old traditions, beliefs and abuses were attacked by him.

The Church in France was the main target of his attack. He stood for religious tolerance and attacked Christian bigotry and fanaticism. He cynically called the church as a ‘privileged nuisance.’ He was not an atheist. His view was that *“if God did not exist, it would be necessary to create Him.”* He attacked the old and useless dogmas, the accretions of theology, the complex mysteries and contradictory ceremonials of Christianity.

He advocated for the benevolent despotism. ‘He described a country where opinion was free and the government constitutional, where religious persecution was unknown and everyone was permitted to go to heaven in his own way, where the middle class was socially respectable as the nobility where civil liberties were guaranteed and men of letters and scientists were honoured.’

Rousseau (1712-78)

Rousseau was the real philanthropist who thought for the whole society. That’s why he was accepted as a true philosopher for ages. Rousseau stood for complete re-organisation of the society. He wrote his first book ‘Emile’ and propounded his thesis that man was by nature just and happy, but the vices of civilization have made him corrupt and degraded. He constantly advocated a return to nature.

He wrote his most famous book *‘The Social Contract’*. In this book, he argued that ‘men had certain natural rights and liberties which were life, liberty and property. He told, “Man is born free, but everywhere he is I chain”. He said that the surrounding of society destroyed the natural simplicity of man, tainted his virtues and was responsible for his sufferings and sins. He attracted the people in these arguments, “Sweep away, therefore, all the false fabric of society, the world of ugly want and insolent riches miscalled civilization, the oppression miscalled order, the error miscalled knowledge. Level its inequalities, repudiate its learning, break its functions, and shatter its chains. Let men return to the simplicity of ancient days, to the idyllic state, when uncorrupted instinct only ruled them, and then once again, innocent and ignorant, as nature made them, and directed only by the ‘Immortal and Celestial voices, of reasons, seek the high paths of felicity of life.’”

He formulated his famous social contract theory saying that people are sovereign and that governments derived their legitimate authority from the consent of all governed. Each individual was a part of that sovereign. The laws of the nation were merely the manifestation of the general will of the sovereign. Sovereignty rested with the people, no government or king could seize away that from them.

The people had the right to revolt against the government. Rousseau condemned all the existing institutions. His writings created a lasting impression on the mind of the people.

He alleged that people of France were suffering since the interests of the Crown were divorced from those of the state, because the nobles no longer battled and the clergy no longer prayed and all of them ruined the social contract.

Rousseau's philosophy of liberty, equality, fraternity and sovereignty created a revolutionary spirit among the common people who strongly resisted the old regime and became successful.

Diderot (1713-84)

Diderot was the chief editor and contributor to the Encyclopaedia to which many writers made their contributions. He was original, ingenious, reckless in expression and very imaginative in thought. He wrote several hundred articles and he damaged his eyesight by correcting the proofs and editing the less competent contributors.

He was a lover of wisdom. He loved facts and collected them for the encyclopaedia. Just like Socrates, he was inspiring the people to be self-conscious.

Helvetius (1715-71)

He was widely regarded as the father of utilitarianism. He believed that human behaviour could be made virtuous and socially beneficial through channelizing them in the right direction. He gave importance to right education to be imparted to the people. He said, "Men are born ignorant, they are made stupid by current education." He propounded the doctrine that self-interest dictates both the conduct and the views of men, and the attainment of pleasure is their final aim.

Holbach

Holbach indicated the vices of kings and the slavery of men. He stood for a revolution. To him, atheism and materialism were the only two philosophies of life. To quote him, "Religious and political errors have changed the universe into a valley of tears."

Economists or Physiocrats

The Economists or Physiocrats had a lot of influence on the people of France. They were much influenced by the philosophy of Adam Smith. One of the

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leaders was Mirabeau, the father of the well-known statesman of the French Revolution.

Quesnay was the real thinker of the movement. His “Tableau Economique” was accepted as an infallible remedy for the troubles of France.

According to Physiocrats, all wealth came from the application of labour to land and workmen were the most truly productive, perhaps the only productive class. The action of the Government should be reduced to the minimum. Complete free trade and a universal system of education were the immediate necessities of the state. All taxation should be reduced to a single land tax.

Turgot was a disciple of Economics. He wanted to introduce honesty and efficiency into public services. He wanted to check the power of the church. He stood for the jester method of taxation. He wanted to establish freedom of trade within and beyond France. He had a passionate zeal to work for the justice and humanity.

Encyclopaedists also contributed by hating unjust things, condemning slavery, inequality of taxation, corruption of justice and wastefulness of war. They dreamt of social progress and sympathy with the rising empire of industry.

Prof. Hazen rightly said, “The revolution was not caused by the philosophers but by the conditions and evils of the national life and by the mistakes of the government. Nevertheless, these writers were the factors in the revolution for they educated a group of leaders, instilled into them certain decisive doctrines, furnished them with phrases, formulas and arguments, gave a certain tone and cast the sheer minds, imparted them certain powerful illusions, encouraged an excessive hopefulness which was the characteristics of the movement. They did not cause the revolution but they exposed the causes brilliantly focussed attention upon them, compelled discussion and aroused passion.”

3.4.2 Course of the Revolution

1. Meeting of the Estates General

The crisis in France could not be tackled by Louis XVI. Realising the growing uprising of people against his rule and administration, he called for the constitution of Estates General. Basically, this was an assembly made out of representatives from each of the three orders of the French society (the nobles, the clergy and the rest), formed only in time of crisis.

The meeting was summoned at Versailles in 1789. In preparation for this, it had asked for **cahiers or lists of grievances**. It got over 60,000 of them. From every part of France the Third Estate sent up similar demands:

- Ending the privileged classes of the nobility and clergy;
- Abolition of the special feudal law courts of the nobility;
- Establishment of uniformity of law to equal all classes;
- Abolition of indirect and direct taxes;

- Promotion in the armed forces for all;
- Formation of an elected assembly responsible to the people and not to the king;
- Estates general to meet regularly, have control over taxation and not to be dissolved without its own consent;
- Demanded freedom of worship (religious toleration).
- Abolition of all feudal rights and dues.

The estates general meeting was called on 5th May 1789 which comprised of 621 representatives of the third estate, 308 clergy and 285 nobles. Louis XVI and his poor advisors thought that each estate representative would present a list of grievances (cahiers) and offer some advice which would help in solving financial crisis and other problems that France was facing. Many of the cahiers demanded for the abolition of social inequalities in the society. The mood of the third estate was expressed in a pamphlet written by Abbey Sieyes which was circulated in large numbers on the eve of the French revolution.

“Beloved and loyal supporters, we require the assistance of our faithful subjects to overcome the difficulties in which we find ourselves concerning the current state of our finances, and to establish, as we so wish, a constant and invariable order in all branches of government that concern the happiness of our subjects and the prosperity of the realm. These great motives have induced us to summon the Assembly of the Estates of all Provinces obedient to us, as much to counsel and assist us in all things placed before it, as to inform us of the wishes and grievances of our people; so that, by means of the mutual confidence and reciprocal love between the sovereign and his subjects, an effective remedy may be brought as quickly as possible to the ills of the State, and abuses of all sorts may be averted and corrected by good and solid means which insure public happiness and restore to us in particular the calm and tranquility of which we have so long been deprived.”

Louis XVI expected separate deliberations from each estate than a joint assembly of the clergy, nobles and third estates representatives. He insisted on the ancient system of sitting and voting where each estate would sit and vote as one house. By this procedure, the privileged estates (clergy and Nobles) would always out vote the third estate by a ratio of 1:2 (one vote for the third estate and two votes for the first and second). This was because the 1st and 2nd estates were the privileged class and had similar interest of defending their privileges.

This arrangement was objected by the third estate and a single assembly was demanded where deliberations and voting of the three classes would be on the principle of one man one vote. They were aware that a joint assembly would offer them opportunities for reforms since they had twice as many representatives as the clergy and the nobles combined.

Significance

- It was the beginning of the revival of the parliament and parliamentary democracy in France. For about 175 years, the estates general had never sat and the 5th May 1789 assembly resurrected it.

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- This event triggered off the revolution. The self-conversion of the 3rd estate into the national assembly marked the beginning of the French revolution. They had taken up the responsibility of acting on behalf of the whole nation.
- The meeting gave the third estate the chance to begin fighting for their rights. This is so because they used the disagreement over the sitting order as an excuse to revolt against Louis XVI and the monarchy.
- The event exposed the king's inconsistencies and weaknesses. His failure to settle the sitting arrangement and his order to the privileged class to join the assembly is a testimony of his wavering character.

2. Formation of National Assembly (1789)

In the Estates General meeting was summoned in 1789, all the representatives of the three orders disagreed on the decision system. Nobles and Clergy wanted to vote by order, which would have given them the control of the Estates General; the commons, being numerically the largest group, and representing the widest part of the population, wanted votes to be counted on the number of representatives. This shows the sharp influence of the philosophy of Rousseau on the commons.

Both privileged and non-privileged groups clashed, and finally, the common people left the Estates General meeting and formed their own assembly, which would become the **National Assembly**. Now they became determined to establish a new age in France which will be the age of Freedom and rights of the people.

3. The Tennis Court Oath (20th June, 1789)

Now the whole country was eyeing on the representatives of the third estate who led the main role in correcting the old order. After leaving the meeting of the Estates General, they now assembled in the hall of an indoor tennis court in the ground of Versailles on 20th June. They declared themselves as National Assembly and took an oath not to disperse till they had drafted a constitution for France. They really thought of the primary aim to make the constitution which could limit the powers of the monarch and spread freedom and rights to the whole country.

Here they were led by Mirabeau and Abbe Sieyes. Though Mirabeau was born in a noble family but he was a philanthropist of high order. He realized the need of an equal and just society which was the necessity of France. He wanted to establish justice by doing away with the feudal in equality. His powerful speeches and writings published in many journals made him popular in France. Abbe Sieyes belonged to a Clergy family, professionally a priest, wrote a pamphlet called 'What is the Third Estate' which influenced a lot to the mass of France.

4. The Royal Session (23rd June 1789)

On 23rd June 1789, a special royal session was held. In his speech, the king announced a number of reforms which satisfied the demands of the third estate

but made some fatal mistakes. He declared the recent actions of the 3rd estate in converting itself into the national assembly illegal and unconstitutional. He also ordered that the three estates should meet separately. The king, the nobility and the clergy left the hall in the spirit of victory.

However, the third class representatives remained in the hall. The master of ceremonies reminded them of the King's orders and told them to quit the assembly hall. In response Mirabeau one of the deputies of the third estate thundered a vibrant warning

“Go tell your master that we are here by the will of the people and that we -shall not leave except at the point of a bayonet”

Humiliated by the tough stand of the third estate, Louis ordered the 1st and 2nd estates to join the National Assembly. He allowed all the three estates to sit, deliberate and vote as one body. This was a triumph for the 3rd estates that had been in the backyard of French politics for centuries.

5. March of the Women (October 1789)

Women were chosen to stage a women's march to Versailles to press the people's grievances because the effect would be greater. Hearing of the March, thousands of citizens, including many members of the National Guard, gathered outside the Hotel de Ville in Paris. Eventually the Commune ordered Lafayette to set off after the marchers with several thousand of the National Guard. His task was to prevent disorder and if possible bring the King from Versailles to the capital.

Meanwhile at Versailles, Louis was recalled from his usual pastime of hunting, and he agreed to see a deputation of the women. He promised special food supplies, for Paris; and later he also decided to meet the renewed request of the Assembly that he should accept the decrees of 4th August and the Declaration of the Rights of Man.

Significance

- The role of women in the demonstration **shows the concern of everybody in the revolution**. Since the beginning of the revolution women had not been very active and their participation in the marching shows the national outlook of the French revolution.
- It **upheld the revolutionary principle of equality** since women had actively joined men in the revolution.
- It acted as a preamble for the **transfer of the national assembly from Versailles (a monarchical stronghold) to Paris (a revolutionary centre)**. From then onwards, French politics and the revolution was championed from Paris by the Paris commune.

The king was forced to accept some reforms which went a long way in meeting the demands of the revolutionaries. He promised special food for Paris and to reduce the price of bread. He agreed to sign the declarations of the rights of man and citizens and he also accepted the National Guard to be entrusted with the defence of Versailles.

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6. The Storming of Bastille (14th July 1789)

Dismissal of Necker created a strong agitation among the commoners. It was feared that the king was determined to use force to suppress the National Assembly. In this chaos and confusion a riot started. The target was to demolish the infamous Bastille fortress. Bastille was considered as the symbol of ancient regime. It was the state prison where those arrested under the infamous lettres-de-cachet were imprisoned. The rebels also heard the store of ammunition in that fortress. So it was stormed and captured on 14th July 1789 and razed to the ground.

Significance of the Fall of Bastille

The fall of Bastille in France was the greatest and most significant event of the century. It signified the fall of despotism, the end of **lettres de-cachet** and other forms of oppressions in France. This was because the Bastille was a symbol of despotism where the victims of lettres-de-cachet were thrown.

- It's fall led to the **release of prisoners** most of whom were innocent. However, the freed prisoners took up to revenge against those who had imprisoned them (nobles). They killed such nobles and looted their farms and homes.
- The fall of Bastille **ushered in violence** not only in Paris and other surrounding provinces but also in other French cities. The revolutionaries acquired more arms, which they used against the hated nobles and clergy.
- It also led to the **dissolution of the Royal guard** which was replaced by the National Guard. The National Guard was to protect the revolution.
- The storming of Bastille was quickly followed by an almost **complete decentralization of government**. The appointed Royal intendants in the local government were replaced by elected council leaders signifying the rise of democracy in France.
- The success of the revolutionaries bonded the 3rd estate together and **gave them courage to fight for more reforms**. It became a day for liberty not only in France but the whole world. Indeed this event is so important that 14th July has remained a day of national celebrations in France.

3.4.3 Effects of the Revolution

1. The Decrees of 4th August 1789 (Abolition of Feudal Privileges)

On 4th August, the national assembly abolished feudalism and all its forms throughout France. The nobles and clergy denounced their privileges and the ancient system of taxation was scrapped off. Thus, the long-term grievances, which had made the revolution inevitable, were removed. This was a total destruction of the foundation of the ancient regime and a relief to the peasants.

The event is memorable because it guaranteed equality of all men before the law and other forms of taxation, thus burying social class discrimination in France.

The way feudalism was destroyed makes it significant. It was very peaceful where the nobles and clergy just denounced their privileges hence compromising with the third estate in the spirit of brotherhood. It guaranteed admission and promotion into public offices on merit than birth. This gave way to competent and talented men of ability to rise to power irrespective of birth right. This event became a social revolution that laid a firm foundation of fraternity between the three classes compared to their position prior to 1789.

However, this event forced most nobles and clergy to flee to exile from where they regrouped in Austria and started planning a counter-revolution. This took France to war with foreign powers and contributed to the reign of terror in the course of the revolution. In short, the destruction of feudalism was a landmark that modernized France in Europe compared to Austria, Germany, Italy, Russia and Poland. It was a stepping-stone for the declaration of the rights of man and citizens.

2. Declaration of the Rights of Man (August 27, 1789)

The most awaiting work that was done by the National Assembly was the Declaration of the Rights of Man on 27th August. This document reflected the spirit of Rousseau's philosophy and incorporated some of the provisions from the constitutional laws of England and the U.S.A. This declaration influenced the countries everywhere in 19th and 20th century. It states that "the representatives of the French people constituted as National Assembly, believing that ignorance, forgetfulness or contempt of the rights of man are the only causes of public misfortunes and of the corruption of governments, have resolved to set forth in a solemn declaration, the natural, inalienable and sacred rights of man; in order that this declaration being constantly before all members of the social body may always recall to them their rights and their duties; in order that the acts of the legislative and executive powers being constantly capable of comparison with the objects of all political institutions may on that account be the most respected; in order that the demands of citizens being founded henceforth on simple and incontestable principles may be always directed to the maintenance of the constitution and the happiness of people."

The following Rights of Man and the Citizen were declared by the National Assembly:

- Men are born and remain **free and equal in rights**. Social distinction can only be founded on public utility.
- The aim of every political association is the reservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man. These rights are **liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression**.
- **Liberty** consists in being allowed to do whatever does not injure other people.

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- The **free communication of thought and opinion** is one of the most precious rights of man.
- **No person shall be accused, arrested, or imprisoned** except in the cases and according to the forms prescribed by law.
- Since **private property** is an invaluable and sacred right, no one shall be deprived thereof except where public necessity, legally determined, clearly demanded, and then only on condition that the owner shall have been previously and equitably indemnified.
- **Law** is the expression of the general will. All citizens have the **right to take part** personally or through their representatives in its formation.
- **Sovereignty** resides in the nation and nobody or individual can exercise authority if it does not take its origin from the nation.
- The people have the **right to control the finances** of the country.
- All officials of the State are **responsible to the people**.

Significance and Evaluation of the Declaration

The “declaration of the rights of man and citizens” was the noblest side of the 1789 French revolution, without which it might not have been a great event in European History. The human rights that were declared became the foundation for people’s rights and freedom not only in France but the entire world. These have been adopted by USA and the present UNO. The UNO charter has a special article (16) on the rights of man and citizens, which was a copy from that of France.

- The declaration **destroyed the remains of old social system** that had characterized the French society prior to 1789, i.e., between the nobles and the clergy against the third class. It asserted equality of all men by nature irrespective of social status or birth.
- The declared rights of man **abolished feudalism** and feudal dues in the history of France. However the abolition of feudal dues worsened the financial crisis in France.
- **David Thomson** describes the declaration of the rights of man, as the most important event in the development of democratic and republican ideas. This is justifiable because every citizen had the right to influence state policies through elected representatives. This was through national elections (direct or indirect), a parliamentary debate in framing national laws as against royal decrees. These were drastic measures that challenged and reformed
- Declaration of rights also **inspired the mass outside France** who demanded their rights in different countries. This was witnessed in the future revolutions of Germany, Italy, Belgium, Poland, and Russia.
- The declaration of the rights of man **ignored the rights of women** until 1791 when it was adopted. Madam Olympe-de-Gouges pleaded for the rights of women and citizen in vain. When she submitted it to

the national assembly in 1791, she was condemned as outrageous and scandalous and consequently she was guillotined. This was against the principle of equality and gender balance.

- The document **made the Frenchmen knowledgeable** about their rights and it became a yardstick for measuring the worth of any government in France.

3. Reform in the Church

Before the revolution, the pope and the Catholic Church had a lot of influence on the political, economic, social and religious affairs of France. The Catholic Church and the clergy were the most privileged in France. It's on this account that the revolutionaries targeted the vast resources and influence of the church. So in July 1790, the national assembly passed a law, which incorporated the church into state and the clergy into civil service. This became known as **the civil constitution of the clergy**. It had the following implications/effects on France and Europe.

- **It abolished the church tithe** since it was a sign of feudalism and a source of exploitation. This was a relief to the peasants who were able to save part of their meagre/little incomes.
- **The Catholic Church monopoly over land was terminated.** The church land was nationalized and sold to the French citizens at a fair price. By this the national assembly temporarily raised some money for the administration of the country.
- **The clergy were to be elected by the people of France** and their salaries were to be paid by the government. The salaries of the lower clergy were increased while those of the upper clergy were reduced.
- **The church administration was now decentralised.** Beside the title of Arch Bishop was abolished but each of the 83 Districts of France were to have a Bishop.
- **It resulted with a deathblow to religious intolerance** that was dominant in France by 1789. It asserted freedom of worship by legalizing other religions besides Catholicism.
- **The civil constitution of the clergy brought hostility and war** between France and the rest of the Catholic states in Europe. The pope condemned it and sought support from all Catholic states against the revolutionary government in France. Besides, it forced the clergy into exile from where they organised counter revolutionary forces with assistance from Catholic states like Austria, Prussia and Russia.
- **The civil constitution of the clergy made Louis to attempt the abortive flight** to exile i.e. Austria. He had hesitantly signed it out of the fear that his veto might bring him more troubles with the revolutionaries. However, when the Pope denounced it, Louis XVI regretted signing it. He confessed; "I ask God to accept my profound repentance for having affixed my name, though against my will to acts

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which are in conflict with the discipline and belief of the Catholic Church”.

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4. The King's Flight to Varennes (22nd June 1791)

As Louis XVI was forced to accept reforms from the national assembly against his free will, he felt the condition under which he was kept at the Tuilleries were unbearable. He said; “**I would rather be a king of Metz, than remain king of France in such a position but this will end soon.**” Eventually, he decided to join the émigrés in Austria for a counter-revolution. So Louis and the royal family stealthily left the Tuilleries at night and headed for Austria. However, he was detected and arrested by peasants at Varennes, a few miles from the boarder of Austria and France. They were brought back to Paris amidst great humiliation.

Significance

- It **depicted King Louis and his family as traitors** and conspirators against the revolution. This event made the revolutionaries to lose the little trust that was left in the king.
- It **revealed further the king's inconsistent nature** and his wavering character. This is because he succumbed to ill advice of the queen and the aristocrats to flee abroad and fight against the reforms he had endorsed.
- The event was a **serious humiliation to the king** amongst his subject. He was arrested by peasants and escorted back to Paris as an enemy of France and the revolution. The king and his family were kept as prisoners in the Tuilleries, which was a disgraceful event.
- It **strengthened the spirit of republicanism** in France.
- The event **increased the hostility between revolutionary France and her neighbours**. European monarchs condemned the French revolutionary mistreatment and humiliation of Louis XVI. Prussia and Russia issued the Pilnitz declaration of August 1791 in which they threatened war against France in case the king was hurt.

5. The New Constitution (Sept 1791)

The Assembly was now very anxious to complete the constitution, secure its acceptance by the King, and then make way for the new body to be elected under the fresh scheme of government. **At last, in September 1791, the complete constitution was duly accepted** by the helpless Louis XVI.

The constitution stated that:

- A **new Assembly was to be elected** and was to be called the legislative assembly and was to be the dominant partner in government i.e. to protect and champion revolutionary ideas.
- The **members to the new Assembly were to be 745** who were to be chosen by a system of indirect election for 2 years.

- The **right of voting was to be exercised only by active citizens** i.e. those citizens who paid taxes.
- **Only property owners would qualify for elections** to the legislative assembly. The assembly was therefore to be dominated by the Bourgeoisie or middleclass.
- The **monarchy was maintained** and the king was to serve as the executive but he lacked real political power.

In, addition the constitution became unpopular to the poor and extremists who were denied the voting right. Leading extremists like Marat Robespierre and Camille Desmoulin loudly protested and carried out a violent campaign against the constitution. The New constitution however set up a new political structure and cultivated the spirit of constitutionalism in France.

6. Constitutional Monarchy

The main objective of the new constitution of 1791 was to limit the powers of the monarch. These powers instead of being concentrated in the hands of one person, were now separated and assigned to different institutions- the legislative, executive and judiciary. This made France a constitutional monarchy.

The constitution of 1791 vested the power to make laws in the National Assembly, which was indirectly elected. That is, citizens voted for a group of electors, who in turn chose the Assembly. Not all citizens, however, had the right to vote. Only men above 25 years of age who paid taxes equal to at least 3 days of a labourer's wage were given the status of **active citizens** and were given right to vote. The remaining men and all women were classed as **passive citizens**.

7. Administrative Measures

The National Assembly set up a uniform system of administration all over the country. The old provinces, governments, intendancies, pay d'état, pays d' election, parlements and bailliages were abolished. The country was divided afresh into 83 departments. These departments were uniform in size and population and named after natural features such as rivers and mountains.

Each department was divided into cantons and communes. The heads of the local divisions were to be elected by the people and not nominated by the executive. Provision was made for the local councils which were to be elected by the people.

A new system of court was provided for the country. The judges of these courts were to be elected by the people. Attempts were also made to simplify and unify the legal system of the county. But the work could not be accomplished till the time of Napoleon as first Consul.

8. Financial Reforms

The National Assembly also tried to tackle the problem of finance. The state treasury was practically empty and no wonder the Assembly resorted to extreme measures to meet the situation.

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In November 1789, the Church property in France was confiscated. That property was valued at many hundred million dollars. With Church property as security the National Assembly issued paper currency known as Assignats. Paper money works well so long as too much use of the printing press is not permitted. The paper currency must be kept within reasonable limits. However, the natural temptation of printing more paper currency and there by adding to the revenue of the state could not be checked by the National Assembly and consequently by 1791, inflation was already well under way. This process was continued in the succeeding years and consequently the whole of the paper currency had to be cancelled during the directory. It is true that issuing of Assignats tackled the financial problem for the time being, but otherwise the using of assignats was one of the sorriest chapters of the French Revolution.

Prof. Salvemini says, "Of all the Assembly measures; the issue of Assignats was one of that most contributed towards consolidating the new regime and preventing any form of counter-revolution. The Assignats were, in fact, a paper currency based not on gold but on the security of Church lands. Should a counter –revolution enable the clergy to recover their possession, the assignats would lose their guarantee, therefore their fate depended upon that of the Revolution. Whoever accepted an Assignat- and everyone had to accept them, since they were legal tender- was committed to the revolutionary cause, if he did not want his money to become worthless through a return to feudal and ecclesiastical rule."

9. Political Clubs and Parties

The most important political clubs emerged in France were the **Jacobin Club** and **Cordelier Club**. As two moderate leaders of Jacobin- Mirabeau and Lafayette left the Club, the club came under the radical leadership of Robespierre. With the spread of radical views, Jacobin Clubs were opened all over France. The Cordelier Club was made by Danton and was radical from the very beginning. Most of the members of this clubs were from lower sections of France. These clubs had the strong influence on the mass of France.

Among the political groups in Legislative Assembly, **Constitutionalists** were the people who supported the constitutional monarchy and the king with limited powers. The Republicans were divided into two main groups, the Girondists and the Jacobins. Girondists were moderates but they were in favour of a republican form of government. They were more theoretical than practical in their approach. The Jacobins were the extreme republicans. They wanted a republican form of government in the country in any means. Though Girondists were the majority members in the Assembly, Jacobins grew their membership in course of time due to the influence of extreme ideas on people.

Check Your Progress

5. In which year did the French Revolution take place?
6. Who were the privileged classes in France?
7. Who were the clergy?

3.5 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. It was called Glorious Revolution as it was a bloodless Revolution. No war or battle fought to find the change in the political scenario of England.
2. The individuals of England decided to dethrone James and invited his son-in-law, William of Orange to occupy the throne of England.
3. American Revolution was also called War of American Independence which culminated with the winning of political independence by 13 Great Britain’s North American colonies and forming of the United States of America between 1775 to 1783.
4. The First Continental Congress was assembled. 56 delegates met in Philadelphia and drew up a declaration of colonial rights in September 1774.
5. In the year 1789, French Revolution took place.
6. The clergy, the first estate and nobility, the second estate belonged to the privileged class.
7. The Clergy of the Roman Catholic Church constituted the first order in the state. The Church was very powerful and rich

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3.6 SUMMARY

- The Revolution of 1688 was really a unique Revolution, not only in the history of England but also in the history of Europe. It was called Glorious Revolution as it was a bloodless Revolution. No war or battle fought to find the change in the political scenario of England.
- After English Civil wars Individuals of England were expecting a peaceful reign out of the agreement between the Ruler and parliament. But the religious interest and partial judgment to create a Catholic England harmed much to the individuals. Ultimately the revolution broke out in England.
- James II was not as intelligent and farsighted as his father who could rule over England for twenty-five years in spite of the adverse circumstances. But as James II was not equipped with such qualities, he failed to reign for a long time. He could never gain the confidence of his individuals for want of political farsightedness.
- An amazingly smooth development of events led to the Glorious Revolution. The individuals of England decided to dethrone James and invited his son-in-law, William of Orange to occupy the throne of England.
- Thusly with the escaping of James II without setting up a battle, the bloodless Glorious Revolution occurred. The Revolution of 1688 was

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- a one of a kind Revolution, throughout the entire existence of England as well as most likely throughout the entire existence of Europe.
- Although the reasons of this revolution were socio-political and religious, its tendency was political. It was cultivated without bloodshed. Prior to the revolution of 1688, all-critical political changes were brought in the wake of great bloodshed and excesses.
 - The glorious revolution not only influenced the history of England but it was the most influential event of the European continent. It influenced the tripartite politics of England, France and Holland.
 - With the passage of the Bill of Rights, the glorious revolution stamped out once and for all any possibility of a Catholic monarchy, and finished moves towards absolute monarchy in the British rulerdoms by circumscribing the ruler's powers.
 - American Revolution was also called War of American Independence which culminated with the winning of political independence by 13 Great Britain's North American colonies and forming of the United States of America between 1775 to 1783.
 - Among the significant consequences of the revolution was the creation of the United States Constitution, establishing a relatively strong federal national government that incorporated an executive, a national judiciary, and a bicameral Congress that represented states in the Senate and the population in the House of Representatives.
 - The American Revolution was motivated by numerous different reasons such as defective administration, restrictions on colonial trade, influence of Seven years war, arbitrary taxation by the English, impact of different acts, etc.
 - The war for independence was a long, hard fought, struggle between the skilled army of Britain, the most powerful country and the American who were aspiring freedom, independence and sovereignty.
 - Far beyond the North American continent, the American Revolution had a lot of significance. It fascinated the attention of a political intelligentsia all through the European continent.
 - The French Revolution took place in France in the year 1789 which brought a drastic change in the socio-economic and political life of the people of France. The despotic rule of the Bourbon monarchy in France and mal-administration was ended in France.
 - The despotic rule of the Bourbon monarchy in France, mal-administration, inefficiency of Louis XVI, arrogance of Marie Antoinette, unequal social conditions of the people and financial bankruptcy of the state are the causes of the revolution.
 - The French philosophers like Jean Jack Rousseau, Montesquieu and Voltaire awakened the people against this injustice and motivated

them for the revolution. They worked like charging the batteries of the people to fight against the Bourbon rule and bring a change in France.

- Fall of the fort of Bastille, declaration of freedom and human rights with liberty, equality and fraternity, the assassination of the king and queen, end of Reign of Terror with Robespierre, etc. were the main events in the course of the revolution.
- Revolution made a great change in France by overthrowing the despotic and corrupt regime in France, changing the orthodox thoughts with the new moderate ones, abolishing feudalism and unlimited power of monarchy. Not only in France, even the revolution had impacts on the whole world.
- Many philosophers ignited and charged the minds of the people against absolute monarchy, religious intolerance, abuses of the Church and privileges under feudal society. Among them, Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau were the three intellectual giants of the age.
- Montesquieu was an eminent lawyer and well versed in history. He was very famous for his book “Spirit of Laws.” He criticised the corruption of the court and condemned the privileges of the aristocracy.
- The most brilliant among the intellectuals of France was Voltaire. He was a prolific writer who wrote a number of dramas, poems and essays on a number of subjects. The old traditions, beliefs and abuses were attacked by him.
- Rousseau was the real philanthropist who thought for the whole society. That’s why he was accepted as a true philosopher for ages. Rousseau stood for complete re-organisation of the society. He wrote his first book ‘Emile’ and propounded his thesis that man was by nature just and happy, but the vices of civilization have made him corrupt and degraded.

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3.7 KEY TERMS

- **Glorious Revolution:** This revolution took place in the year 1688 in England. It was blood less in nature. It involved the depose of the Catholic ruler James II, who was replaced by his Protestant daughter Mary and her Dutch husband, William of Orange.
- **Bill of Rights:** As the Glorious revolution, numerous parliamentary acts were passed. The Bill of Rights formed the third great charter of English liberties and completed the work which the Magna Carta had started.
- **American Revolution:** American Revolution was also called War of American Independence which culminated with the winning of political independence by 13 Great Britain’s North American colonies and forming of the United States of America between 1775 to 1783.

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- **French Revolution:** The French Revolution took place in France in the year 1789 which brought a drastic change in the socio-economic and political life of the people of France. The despotic rule of the Bourbon monarchy in France and mal-administration was ended in France.
- **Tithe:** Clergies collected a tax, the Tithe from the common people's agricultural products.
- **Privileged Classes:** The clergy, the first estate and nobility, the second estate belonged to the privileged class.
- **Ancient Regime of France:** The term Ancient Regime of France is used for the "old rule" which was the political, social and economic system of the kingdom of France from the Late Middle Ages (15th century A.D.) until the year 1789.

3.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What was Glorious Revolution?
2. Who was James II?
3. What was the Bill of Rights?
4. What was the other name of the American revolution of 1776?
5. What was Second Continental Congress in America?
6. Who was George Washington?
7. How many colonies got independence as the result of American revolution?
8. What was the contribution of Thomas Jefferson?
9. During which rule in France the revolution of 1789 took place?
10. Who was Turgot?
11. Name any three philosophers who inspired the individuals of France for the revolution.
12. Who wrote the 'Spirit of Laws'?
13. Who wrote the book 'The Social contract'?
14. Who was Diderot?
15. What was 'The Tennis Court Oath'?

Long Answer Questions

1. What were the causes of the Glorious Revolution? Explain.
2. Explain the effects of the Glorious revolution.
3. Describe the Political, social and economic causes behind the rise of American Revolution?

4. Explain the events during the course of the American Revolution.
5. What were the consequences and significances of the American Revolution? Explain.
6. Explain political and social back ground of the French revolution.
7. Explain economic, philosophical and immediate causes of the French revolution.
8. Examine the course of the French revolution of 1789.
9. What were the consequences of the French revolution of 1789? Explain.

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UNIT 4 AGE OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE – RISE AND FALL, VIENNA CONGRESS (1815), AGE OF METTERNICH, REVOLUTION OF 1830 AND 1848 A.D. AND THEIR IMPACT OVER EUROPE, EASTERN QUESTION UP TO CRIMEAN WAR

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Age of Napoleon Bonaparte – Rise and Fall
 - 4.2.1 Rise of Napoleon
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- 4.3 Vienna Congress (1815)
 - 4.3.1 Leaders of Vienna Congress
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 - 4.3.3 Functions of Vienna Congress
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- 4.4 Age of Metternich
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 - 4.4.3 Metternich System
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 - 4.4.5 Impact of Metternich System on Europe
 - 4.4.6 Fall of Metternich
- 4.5 July Revolution of 1830
 - 4.5.1 Background
 - 4.5.2 Causes of Revolution of 1830
 - 4.5.3 Importance of July Revolution
 - 4.5.4 Impact on Europe
- 4.6 Revolution of 1848
 - 4.6.1 Background
 - 4.6.2 Causes of February Revolution of 1848
 - 4.6.3 Significance of Revolution of 1848
 - 4.6.4 Comparison between the Revolution of 1830 and 1848
- 4.7 Eastern Question up to Crimean War
 - 4.7.1 Background
 - 4.7.2 Napoleonic Era
 - 4.7.3 Serbian Revolution
 - 4.7.4 Greek Revolt
 - 4.7.5 Muhammad Ali of Egypt

- 4.7.6 Revolutions of 1848
- 4.7.7 Crimean War
- 4.8 Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’
- 4.9 Summary
- 4.10 Key Terms
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- 4.12 Further Reading

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4.0 INTRODUCTION

The year 1789 changed the socio-political and economic condition of France in many ways. But the people of France did not get a structural change and a feeling of pride for their nation as France was lacking a strong leader. One such leader who really gave a strong and revolutionary government in France was Napoleon Bonaparte. The rise of Napoleon to power is a Romance in the history of world. He changed many things in Europe and brought liberty and equality which gave a severe blow to the old conservative dynasties who now unitedly crushed the power of Napoleon and assembled at Vienna to restore the old system of monarchy. But the impact of Napoleonic system of administration continued in France and Europe. France saw other two revolutions like July and February revolution in 1830 and 1848 respectively. We see another issue which is known as the Eastern Question was of the political and economic instability in the Ottoman Empire from the late 18th to early 20th centuries and the subsequent strategic competition and political considerations of the European Great powers in light of this.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Know the causes and effects of the organisation of Vienna congress
- Understand the personality and the age of Maternich
- Compare the revolution of 1830 and 1848 in France
- Describe the events related to Eastern Question up to Crimean War
- Examine the rise and fall of Napoleon Bonaparte

4.2 AGE OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE – RISE AND FALL

Though France gave a clear picture of revolution in the society, the people of France did not get a structural change and a feeling of pride for their nation as France was lacking a strong leader. The period of reign of Terror and Directory could not satisfy the people’s want those who needed a drastic structural change in France and popularity of France outside. And one such leader who really gave a strong and revolutionary government in France was Napoleon Bonaparte. The rise of Napoleon to power is a Romance in the history of world.

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He started his career as a sub-lieutenant in the French army and through a Coup d'Etat seized power and as per the provision of the constitution of 1799 he became the first Consul of France. And finally in 1804, he declared himself as the emperor of France by saying that “the crown of France was lying on the ground and I picked it up in my sword.”

4.2.1 Rise of Napoleon



Napoleon Bonaparte
Credit-biography.com

Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821), otherwise called Napoleon I, was a French military pioneer and ruler who vanquished quite a bit of Europe in the mid nineteenth century. Brought into the world on the island of Corsica, Napoleon quickly rose through the positions of the military during the French Revolution (1789-1799). In the wake of holding onto political force in France in a 1799 overthrow, he delegated himself sovereign in 1804. Wise, aspiring and a talented military specialist, Napoleon effectively battled against different

alliances of European countries and extended his realm. In any case, after a terrible French attack of Russia in 1812, Napoleon resigned the seat two years after the fact and was ousted to the island of Elba. In 1815, he momentarily got back to control in his Hundred Days crusade. After a devastating annihilation at the Battle of Waterloo, he renounced indeed and was ousted to the distant island of Saint Helena, where he died at 51.

Napoleon’s Education and Early Military Career

Napoleon Bonaparte was brought into the world on August 15, 1769, in Ajaccio, on the Mediterranean island of Corsica. He was the second of eight enduring youngsters destined to Carlo Bonaparte (1746-1785), an attorney, and Letizia Romalino Buonaparte (1750-1836). Despite the fact that his folks were individuals from the minor Corsican respectability, the family was not well off. The year prior to Napoleon’s introduction to the world, France gained Corsica from the city-territory of Genoa, Italy. Napoleon later embraced a French spelling of his last name.

As a kid, Napoleon went to class in terrain France, where he took in the French language, and proceeded to move on from a French military foundation in 1785. He at that point turned into a second lieutenant in an ordnance regiment of the French armed force. The French Revolution started in 1789, and inside three years progressives had toppled the government and broadcasted a French republic. In France, Napoleon got related with Augustin Robespierre (1763-1794), the sibling of progressive pioneer Maximillian Robespierre (1758-1794), a Jacobin who was a critical power behind the Reign of Terror (1793-1794), a time of viciousness against adversaries of the upheaval. During this time, Napoleon was elevated to the position of brigadier general in the military.

In 1795, Napoleon stifled a traditionalist uprising against the progressive government in Paris and was elevated to significant general.

His Personality

His personal qualities helped him to rise to this post. He was a man extraordinary brain and character. He had great powers of work and of organisation, rapid insight, courage, a willingness to accept responsibility, etc.

Circumstances of France

The then circumstances of France also helped Napoleon to rise to power. After the revolution of 1789, there was everywhere chaos and confusion in the country which led to the situation of violence and lawlessness. Napoleon established peace and order in France. During the rule of Convention, the reign of terror under Robespierre spread fear and violence in France. Next, the Directory could not able to tackle any situation of France. Thus it was the demand of the situation of France for a great leader like Napoleon who could give a safe rule to France.

Military Achievements of Napoleon

His military achievements made him more popular and he became the messiah among the people of France. He was appointed as the sub-lieutenant in the French army in the year 1785. He was the protector of the revolution. He helped the French republic to recover Toulon from the British. In September 1795, he saved the Convention from the attacks of the Persian mob.

Napoleon was also appointed as the commander of the army to attack Italy and in his Italian campaign, he exhibited his daring actions. He succeeded in defeating the larger armies of Austria, one of his country's primary rivals, in a series of battles in Italy in 1796. And in 1797, France and Austria signed the Treaty of Campo-Formio, resulting in territorial gains for the French.

The Directory appointed Napoleon as the Commander of the army which was to invade England. Napoleon determined that France's naval forces were not yet ready to go up against the superior British Royal Navy. Instead, he proposed an invasion of Egypt in an effort to wipe out British trade routes with India. Napoleon's troops scored a victory against Egypt's military rulers, the Mamluks, at the Battle of the Pyramids in July 1798.

In 1799, with the political situation in France marked by uncertainty, the ever-ambitious and cunning Napoleon opted to abandon his army in Egypt and return to France.

The Directory failed to check the growth of militarism and the financial situation of France had also become deplorable. Now Napoleon had no other way but to seize the power of France.

The Coup of 18 Brumaire

In November 1799, in an event known as the coup of 18 Brumaire, Napoleon was part of a group that successfully overthrew the French Directory.

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The Directory was replaced with a three-member Consulate, and Napoleon became first consul, making him France's leading political figure. In June 1800, at the Battle of Marengo, Napoleon's forces defeated one of France's perennial enemies, the Austrians, and drove them out of Italy. The victory helped cement Napoleon's power as first consul.

4.2.2 Reforms by Napoleon

Napoleon turned into the primary Consul in 1799. In 1804, he delegated himself ruler of France in an extravagant function at the Cathedral of Notre Dame in Paris. He attempted to reestablish steadiness to post-progressive France. He unified the public authority; founded changes in such zones as banking and instruction; upheld science and expressions of the human experience; and looked to improve relations between his system and the pope (who addressed France's principle religion, Catholicism), which had endured during the upheaval. One of his most huge achievements was the Napoleonic Code, which smoothed out the French overall set of laws and keeps on shaping the establishment of French common law right up til today.

Napoleon used to name himself the offspring of Revolution and he was an ally of the standards of Revolution, viz., freedom, balance and crew, however he laid more noteworthy weight on uniformity than freedom. He used to say that individuals of France requested balance, for some, individuals had been slaughtered in France because of freedom. Henceforth in the wake of turning into the main representative, he worked so that all the forces were gathered at a certain point. He additionally attempted to build up the old system in France.- With this point in view he gave over all the forces of organization of the divisions to the Prefects of Arrondissement, to the sub-Prefects and of the Communes to the Mayors yet he, at the end of the day, had the force of selecting every one of these authorities.

Subsequently he caught the genuine forces of the common government by setting every one of these authorities under the focal government. Truth be told, he restored the antiquated system of Louis XIII's time, and with all the privileges of Judiciary and Executive vested in him, he used to live in the royal residence of Tuileries like the total Bourbon rulers. Followings are the changes of Napoleon Bonaparte.

New Constitution of 1799

A new constitution was drafted for the France by the new consulate consisting of Napoleon, Ducos and Sieyes. The new constitution vested the executive power on three Consuls. Napoleon was made as the first Consul and he was given the absolute power. After becoming the first Consul, Napoleon dismissed his colleagues Sieyes and Ducos. Under the new constitution, provision was made for four assemblies: the Council of State, the Tribunate, Legislative body and the Senate.

- The Council of State drafted laws and drew up public ordinances and sometimes acted as a court of appeal.

- The Tribunalate was consisted of 100 members. It was authorised to pass or reject but not to alter the laws submitted to it by the Government.
- The Legislative Body accepted or rejected the laws having no power of discussion.
- The Senate members nominated the members of the Legislative body, Tribunalate and Consuls. It could reject the laws contrary to the principles of constitution.

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Equality

Napoleon took away the liberty of the people but provided then equality. He completely abolished the distinction between the lower class and the upper class. Anybody could get the highest post in the government on the basis of merit.

Napoleon used to appoint his servants from all sections like Cromwell. He got the cooperation of Jacobins Girondists both and pardoned the emigres. Consequently forty thousand families came back to France.

Beautification and Art

Napoleon was an extraordinary admirer of workmanship and he empowered it a ton. He needed to improve the city of Paris and for this reason he had carried a few creative items to Paris from Italy. Napoleon requested the artworks from France to make lovely articles, and hence many jobless specialists could get work. He additionally supported writing. When commented in this specific circumstance: “Individuals gripe that we have no writing that is the issue of Minister of the Interior.”

Seeing the need of the country, Napoleon did numerous valuable works. He constructed numerous wide streets in Paris and obscure trees were planted on the two sides of these streets. The Royal castle of Versailles looked considerably more delightful than at any other time during the system of Napoleon. The imperial castles of St. Cloud, Fontainebleau and Rambouillet were redesigned and their magnificence and wonder was upgraded. Hence he bent over backward for the beautification of Paris.

The Legion of Honour

Napoleon established the Legion of Honour in order to inject feeling of honour among the French people. The people were added to it on the basis of their merit and not on that of hereditariness. Those who influenced Napoleon by their ability, courage or by any other work of outstanding quality were given the title of Legion of Honour.

He also developed a new kind of nobility by awarding pieces of land to his well-wishers. In fact, both these were against the principles of Revolution because it gave birth to new classes. But Napoleon thought that the instituting of the Legion of Honour was necessary to encourage his supporters.

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Administrative Reforms

As per the new constitution of 1799, Napoleon was made the executive and legislative head of the state and subsequently the law courts were also put under his control. Napoleon was made all powerful. The whole local government was made subordinate to Napoleon. The first consul appointed all heads of departments and their councils, the Mayors or heads of communes. The Mayors of the small communes were appointed by the prefects and the mayors of towns of more than 71000 population were nominated by Bonaparte. Due to this the elective councils lost their power. They only met for a fortnight in the year to deal with the assessment of taxes. So new government was a centralised despotism just like absolute monarchy.

Economic Reforms

The economic condition of France had deteriorated rapidly during the course of Revolution. The taxes were not realised properly. The trade and commerce and agriculture were badly affected.

- The assignats were being devalued rapidly. The government of France was almost on the verge of bankruptcy. Napoleon paid his earnest attention to reforming the ailing economy. First of all, he cut down the state expenditure and the responsibility for collecting taxes was made over to the central government.
- It proved to be beneficial for the government as well as for the tax-payers. To increase the credit of France he established a Bank of France. Hayes writes about it, "It is one of the soundest financial institutions in the world."
- He abolished the guild system and prohibited the merchants from making fresh guilds, because according to Napoleon Bonaparte these guilds were the centres of corruption and indiscipline.
- In order to settle the disputes between the merchants and the labourers, an Industrial Committee was formed by Napoleon, but the merchants had their majority in this committee.
- Napoleon never endeavoured to bring about economic equality in France. He used to say that the principle of equality in every sphere was not practicable.

Legal Reforms

After Napoleon came to power, a commission of four jurists was appointed in 1800 to frame a civil code. The code was finished in 1801 but published in 1804 which was known as "the Civil Code of French". It was also renamed as the "Napoleonic Code". The code provided a rule of law in France. With regard to family, the code established the supremacy of man over the wife and children. A woman was not given many rights. Divorce by mutual consent was abolished in 1804. The following codes were designed.

- (i) The Civil Code
- (ii) Code of Civil Procedure

- (iii) Code of Criminal Procedure
- (iv) Penal Code
- (v) Commercial Code

According to Hayes, “These codes preserved the social conquest of Revolution, such as, civil equality, religious toleration, equality of inheritance, emancipation of serfs, abolition of feudalism and privileges.” The complicated procedure of legal system was now over. French got uniformity in laws and the legal system was simplified. According to Fisher, “The codes preserve the essential conquests of revolutionary spirit, civil equality, and religious toleration, the emancipation of the land, public trial and jury of judgement.”

Educational Reforms

Napoleon carried out several reforms in the field of education but he was of the opinion that the educational institutions should be under the control of the state. He used to say:

“There will never be a fixed political state of things in this country until we have a body of teachers instructed on established principles. So long as the people are not taught from their earliest years, whether they ought to be Republicans or Royalists, Christians or infidels, the state cannot properly be called a nation.”

- During the consulate period, education was nationalised by Napoleon.
- The payment of the salaries of the trained teachers in various schools was made by the government but the teachers and the students had to swear fidelity towards the country.
- The courses of Paris University and the affiliated colleges were decided by the government. Some limitations were placed on the study of politics, philosophy and history.
- Napoleon used to think that the study of these subjects raised several problems in the smooth way of life. The following schools were flourishing in France during the reign of Consuls.
 - (i) **Primary Schools:** These schools were under public control and the communes looked after their management through prefects and sub-prefects, but the state had no control over them.
 - (ii) **Grammar Schools:** The Secondary or the Grammar Schools were under the supervision of the Central Government; and Latin, Greek and French were taught in these schools.
 - (iii) **High Schools:** They were meant for higher education. They were established in big towns, and the courses in these schools were decided by the government and appointments of the teachers were also made the government.
 - (iv) **Vocational Schools:** Vocational schools were established vocational training, and military schools were also opened to imp military training to the students. A Normal School was also started the training of the teachers.

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- (v) **Paris University:** All the educational institutions controlled by the University of Paris. It was essential to pass the Higher Secondary Examination to get admission in the University.

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Religious Reforms (Concordat)

Napoleon used to say that “a state without a religion is like a without a compass.” He explained his religious policy in these words an attaining power:

“The people must have a religion and that religion must be under the control of the government people say that I am a Papist. I am nothing. I was a Mohammedan in Egypt; I shall be a Catholic France for the good of the people. I do not believe in religion the Idea of God.”

The National Assembly of France had framed a civil constitution for the clergy who had created a breach with the Pope but Napoleon wanted to narrow down these differences due to the following reason

1. The clergy and the vast majority of the French people were dissatisfied. Not only France but most of the European countries had a great reverence for the Pope; hence, Napoleon wanted to befriend the Pope.
2. There were a number of Bishops in France who propagating against the Revolution in the country. They getting honorarium from the British Government. Napoleon wanted to patronise them for the safety of the country but could not be done without the active cooperation of the Pope.

After a prolonged discussion he succeeded in arriving at agreement on 15th July, 1801 which is known as **the Concordat** in the history of Europe. The following were the terms of this agreement

- The **Pope agreed to the decision of the revolutionary period** that the property of the Church which was confiscated during the course of Revolution would not be given back.
- The **educational institutions would be controlled by the state**. No official of the Church was to be allowed to open educational institution without the prior permission of state.
- **No clergyman was to be allowed to leave his parish.**
- All the **Bishops would be appointed by the Pope from the proposed list of the state**. The lower clergy were to be appointed by the Bishops.
- All the officials of the Church would **receive their salary and take an oath of loyalty** to the government.
- The **clergymen who were imprisoned during the course of Revolution were to be released**; and those who had fled France, were to be permitted to return to France.
- **Catholicism was declared the state religion** and the right of public worship was granted to the Catholic Church.

Thus the Church became a part of the state due to the Concordat, and Napoleon received the favours of his opponent Church. He did never approve the atrocities perpetrated by the miscreants in the name of liberty. Napoleon held the view that the French Revolution was an outcome of social maladjustment and economic inequality. He, therefore, curtailed liberty and chose equality.

Public Works

For the welfare of the people, Napoleon took a lot of measures. He took up the construction of a number of canals and linked the chief river systems of France. He started construction of roads on the left bank of Rhine and on the Alpine to promote trade and commerce and to protect the boundaries of France. He did the work for the extension of French sea ports and promoted the naval ports of strategic importance. He wanted to beautify the city of Paris to make it the model city of Europe. So all marshes were drained, roads were cleaned, trees were planted and dykes were strengthened.

4.2.3 Napoleon's Downfall and First Abdication

In 1810, Russia pulled out from the Continental System. In reprisal, Napoleon drove a gigantic armed force into Russia in the mid year of 1812. Instead of connecting with the French in a full-scale fight, the Russians embraced a procedure of withdrawing at whatever point Napoleon's powers endeavored to assault. Subsequently, Napoleon's soldiers traveled further into Russia in spite of being not well ready for an all-inclusive mission. In September, the two sides endured weighty losses in the hesitant Battle of Borodino. Napoleon's powers walked on to Moscow, just to find practically the whole populace cleared. Withdrawing Russians set flames across the city with an end goal to deny adversary troops of provisions. Subsequent to hanging tight a month for an acquiescence that never came, Napoleon, confronted with the beginning of the Russian winter, had to arrange his destitute, depleted armed force out of Moscow. During the appalling retreat, his military experienced constant badgering an out of nowhere forceful and hardhearted Russian armed force. Of Napoleon's 600,000 soldiers who started the mission, just an expected 100,000 made it out of Russia.

Simultaneously as the disastrous Russian intrusion, French powers were occupied with the Peninsular War (1808-1814), which brought about the Spanish and Portuguese, with help from the British, driving the French from the Iberian Peninsula. This misfortune was continued in 1813 by the Battle of Leipzig, otherwise called the Battle of Nations, in which Napoleon's powers were vanquished by an alliance that included Austrian, Prussian, Russian and Swedish soldiers. Napoleon at that point withdrew to France, and in March 1814 alliance powers caught Paris.

On April 6, 1814, Napoleon, at that point in his mid-40s, had to relinquish the seat. With the Treaty of Fontainebleau, he was banished to Elba, a Mediterranean island off the bank of Italy. He was given power over the little island, while his better half and child went to Austria.

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Hundred Days Campaign and Battle of Waterloo

On February 26, 1815, after not exactly a year estranged abroad, Napoleon got away from Elba and cruised to the French territory with a gathering of in excess of 1,000 allies. On March 20, he got back to Paris, where he was invited by cheering groups. The new lord, Louis XVIII (1755-1824), fled, and Napoleon started what came to be known as his Hundred Days crusade.

Upon Napoleon's re-visitation of France, an alliance of partners the Austrians, British, Prussians and Russians—who considered the French sovereign an adversary started to plan for war. Napoleon raised another military and wanted to strike pre-emptively, crushing the associated drives individually before they could dispatch a unified assault against him.

In June 1815, his powers attacked Belgium, where British and Prussian soldiers were positioned. On June 16, Napoleon's soldiers crushed the Prussians at the Battle of Ligny. In any case, after two days, on June 18, at the Battle of Waterloo close to Brussels, the French were squashed by the British, with help from the Prussians.

On June 22, 1815, Napoleon was indeed compelled to relinquish.

Napoleon's Final Years

In October 1815, Napoleon was exiled to the remote, British-held island of Saint Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean. He died there on May 5, 1821, at age 51, most likely from stomach cancer. (During his time in power, Napoleon often posed for paintings with his hand in his vest, leading to some speculation after his death that he had been plagued by stomach pain for years.) Napoleon was buried on the island despite his request to be laid to rest "on the banks of the Seine, among the French people I have loved so much." In 1840, his remains were returned to France and entombed in a crypt at Les Invalides in Paris, where other French military leaders are interred.

Napoleonic War

The Napoleonic Wars were a progression of contentions proclaimed against Napoleon's French Empire by contradicting alliances that ran from 1803 to 1815. As a continuation of the wars started by the French Revolution of 1789, they upset European armed forces and worked out on a remarkable scale, principally because of the use of current mass enrollment. French force rose rapidly as Napoleon's militaries vanquished a lot of Europe yet imploded quickly after France's lamentable attack of Russia in 1812. Napoleon's domain at last endured total military thrashing bringing about the rebuilding of the Bourbon government in France. The wars brought about the disintegration of the Holy Roman Empire and planted the seeds of incipient patriotism in Germany and Italy that would prompt the two countries' combination later in the century. Then, the Spanish Empire started to disentangle as French control of Spain debilitated Spain's hold over its settlements, giving an opening to patriot unrests in Spanish America. As an immediate consequence of the Napoleonic wars, the British Empire turned into the principal politically

influential nation for the following century, along these lines starting Pax Britannica.

No agreement exists with regards to when the French Revolutionary Wars finished and the Napoleonic Wars started. An early applicant is 9 November 1799, when Bonaparte held onto power in France with the upset of 18 Brumaire. 18 May 1803 is presumably the most usually utilized date, as this was the point at which a restored presentation of battle among Britain and France (coming about because of the breakdown of the Treaty of Amiens), finished the solitary time of general harmony in Europe somewhere in the range of 1792 and 1814. The most recent proposed date is 2 December 1804, when Napoleon delegated himself Emperor.

The Napoleonic Wars finished after Napoleon's last thrashing at Waterloo on 18 June 1815 and the Second Treaty of Paris.

1. **War of the First Coalition:** The French Revolution of 1789 had a significant impact throughout Europe, which only increased with the arrest of King Louis XVI of France in 1792 and his execution in January 1793 for "crimes of tyranny" against the French people.

The first attempt to crush the French Republic came in 1793 when Austria, the Kingdom of Sardinia, the Kingdom of Naples, Prussia, Spain and the Kingdom of Great Britain formed the First Coalition. French measures, including general conscription (levée en masse), military reform, and total war, contributed to the defeat of the First Coalition, despite the civil war occurring in France. The war ended when General Bonaparte forced the Austrians to accept his terms in the Treaty of Campo Formio. Only Great Britain remained diplomatically opposed to the French Republic.

2. **War of the Second Coalition:** The Second Coalition was formed in 1798 by Austria, Great Britain, the Kingdom of Naples, and the Ottoman Empire, Papal States, Portugal, Russia, Sweden and other states. During the War of the Second Coalition, the French Republic suffered from corruption and internal division under the Directory. France also lacked funds, and no longer had the services of Lazare Carnot, the war minister who had guided it to successive victories following extensive reforms during the early 1790s. Napoleon Bonaparte, the main architect of victory in the last years of the First Coalition, had gone to campaign in Egypt. Missing two of its most important military figures from the previous conflict, the Republic suffered successive defeats against revitalized enemies whom British financial support brought back into the war.

3. **War of the Third Coalition:** The peace proved short-lived and Britain and France resumed fighting in 1803. Led by Napoleon Bonaparte, who crowned himself emperor in 1804, the French began planning for an invasion of Britain while London worked to build a new coalition with Russia, Austria, and Sweden. The anticipated invasion was thwarted when Vice Admiral Lord Horatio Nelson

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defeated a combined Franco-Spanish fleet at Trafalgar in October 1805. This success was offset by an Austrian defeat at Ulm. Capturing Vienna, Napoleon crushed a Russo-Austrian army at Austerlitz on December 2. Defeated again, Austria left the coalition after signing the Treaty of Pressburg. While French forces dominated on land, the Royal Navy retained control of the seas.

4. **War of the Fourth Coalition:** Shortly after Austria's departure, a Fourth Coalition was formed with Prussia and Saxony joining the fray. Entering the conflict in August 1806, Prussia moved before Russian forces could mobilize. In September, Napoleon launched a massive attack against Prussia and destroyed its army at Jena and Auerstadt the following month. Driving east, Napoleon pushed back Russian forces in Poland and fought a bloody draw at Eylau in February 1807. Resuming campaigning in the spring, he routed the Russians at Friedland. This defeat led Tsar Alexander I to conclude the Treaties of Tilsit in July. By these agreements, Prussia and Russia became French allies.
5. **War of the Fifth Coalition:** In October 1807, French forces crossed the Pyrenees into Spain to enforce Napoleon's Continental System, which blocked trade with the British. This action began what would become the Peninsular War and was followed by a larger force and Napoleon the next year. While the British worked to aid the Spanish and Portuguese, Austria moved towards war and entered a new Fifth Coalition. Marching against the French in 1809, Austrian forces were ultimately driven back towards Vienna. After a victory over the French at Aspern-Essling in May, they were badly beaten at Wagram in July. Again forced to make peace, Austria signed the punitive Treaty of Schönbrunn. To the west, British and Portuguese troops were pinned in Lisbon.
6. **War of the Sixth Coalition:** While the British became increasingly involved in the Peninsular War, Napoleon began planning a massive invasion of Russia. Having fallen out in the years since Tilsit, he attacked into Russia in June 1812. Combating scorched earth tactics, he won a costly victory at Borodino and captured Moscow but was forced to withdraw when winter arrived. As the French lost most of their men in the retreat, a Sixth Coalition of Britain, Spain, Prussia, Austria, and Russia formed. Rebuilding his forces, Napoleon won at Lutzen, Bautzen, and Dresden, before being overwhelmed by the allies at Leipzig in October 1813. Driven back to France, Napoleon was forced to abdicate on April 6, 1814, and was later exiled to Elba by the Treaty of Fontainebleau.
7. **War of the Seventh Coalition:** In the wake of Napoleon's defeat, members of the coalition convened the Congress of Vienna to outline the post war world. Unhappy in exile, Napoleon escaped and landed in France on March 1, 1815. Marching to Paris, he built an army as he travelled with soldiers flocking to his banner. Seeking to strike at the

coalition armies before they could unite, he engaged the Prussians at Ligny and Quatre Bras on June 16. Two days later, Napoleon attacked the Duke of Wellington's army at the Battle of Waterloo. Defeated by Wellington and the arrival of the Prussians, Napoleon escaped to Paris where he again was forced to abdicate on June 22. Surrendering to the British, Napoleon was exiled to St. Helena where he died in 1821.

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Aftermath of the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars

Concluding in June 1815, the Congress of Vienna outlined new borders for states in Europe and established an effective balance of power system that largely maintained peace in Europe for the remainder of the century. The Napoleonic Wars were officially ended by the Treaty of Paris which was signed on November 20, 1815. With Napoleon's defeat, twenty-three years of near-continuous warfare came to an end and Louis XVIII was placed on the French throne. The conflict also sparked widescale legal and social change, marked the end of the Holy Roman Empire, as well as inspired nationalist feelings in Germany and Italy. With the French defeat, Britain became the world's dominant power, a position it held for the next century.

4.2.4 Foreign Policy of Napoleon

Napoleon was too ambitious that he wished to control the whole Europe. He wanted to be the emperor of Europe. His aims and objectives were to conquer and dominate the whole of Europe and spread the revolutionary ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity. He believed that it was only him who had the immediate solution to problems facing Europe.

1. The Second Coalition (1789-1802)

Napoleon came to power at a time when the second coalition (Britain, Turkey, Austria, Russia, Portugal and Naples) had defeated the French troops. Napoleon re-organized the French army and defeated Austria at the battle of Morengo in March 1800. Austria was forced to sign the treaty of Luneville(1802) in which she surrendered Italy, Holland, Switzerland and the Rhine territory to France. However, although Napoleon defeated the rest of coalition powers, he failed to defeat Britain because of her naval superiority.

2. The Treaty of Amiens (March 1802)

By 1802, both France and Britain were fed up of wars and they had failed to defeat each other. They resorted to peace agreement known as the treaty of Amiens. According to the provision of this treaty,

- Britain was to recognize French boundaries of 1802
- Britain was to evacuate Egypt, Malta and West India
- France was to evacuate Southern Italy
- France was to evacuate Sri-lanka which was to be retained by Britain

However, the treaty of Amiens short lived as Britain refused to evacuate Malta and France did not surrender Egypt and Turkey.

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3. Napoleon and the Third Coalition

By 1805, the third coalition was formed against France. It was made of Britain, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. Their aim was to force France out of Italy, Belgium, and the Rhineland. Britain blocked the French troops and cut them off from the French colonies. This made Napoleon to plan to invade England. He is reported to have remarked that “if I can be the master of the sea for six hours, England would cease to exist.” Consequently, Napoleon attacked Britain and he was assisted by Spanish fleet. However, he was finally defeated by the British Naval commander Nelson at the battle of Trafalgar on 21st October 1805. It was a disaster to Napoleon as he lost all his naval troops in Atlantic Ocean.

4. The Continental System

The continental system was an economic war that was started by Napoleon in an attempt to defeat Britain. It was an effort to bring Britain to her knees. Napoleon was advised that Britain could easily be defeated by attacking her trade. Montgaillard remarked “it’s through her commerce that England must be attacked”. Napoleon and his advisors had realized that British military power rested on her strong economy and her dominance of international trade. They therefore, started destroying the British trade throughout the continent. To implement the continental system, Napoleon passed the Berlin decree of 1806 and Milan decree of 1807. Through these decrees, Napoleon put a ban on British ships and ordered French access to confiscate British goods whenever they were found.

Reasons for the Failure of the Continental System

- Napoleon’s naval inferiority compared to British naval supremacy rendered the continental system a failure. Britain used her naval power to bully those who had accepted the continental system to abandon it. Napoleon lacked a strong naval to patrol far and distant coastline where European goods were still smuggled.
- The battle of Trafalgar destroyed Napoleon’s naval power and weakened his ability to affect the continental system hence its failure.
- The confiscation of the Danish fleet by Britain in 1807 frustrated Napoleon’s plan of using the fleet to patrol European coastline.
- Smuggling of British goods continued and was unchecked in some places. There was also corruption that facilitated the consumption of the British goods.
- Britain was the workshop of Europe and Napoleon’s continental system led to lack of essential commodities, inflation and starvation which made the system to be rejected in Portugal and Russia.
- The French substitute to the British goods (products) which were of poor quality yet very expensive compared to the British products. This made European public opinion to pressurize their governments to withdraw from the system. It’s for this reason that Portugal; Papal States had to open their ports for the British products and trade.

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- The timing of the continental system was unfortunate since it was implemented during economic depression following a long period of war and instability in Europe. This is why it was impossible for Napoleon to divert European economy from depending on British trade.
- The peninsular war tied Napoleon's 300,000 troops in acute guerilla warfare and made him unable to affect his continental system. It diverted his attention from implementing the continental system and brought Spain and Portugal in an alliance against him.
- The Moscow campaign of 1812 that was due to the continental system diverted Napoleon's effort from enforcing the system in other states. Besides, he lost over 500,000 troops who would have assisted in patrolling European coastlines against the British goods.
- Severe winter in Europe made those who could not do without coal and winter clothing's to abandon the continental system. That is what partly forced Russia out of the continental system hence rendering it a failure.
- Napoleon's own mistake was a cause for the failure of the continental system. He over concentrated on the British exports and not imports. He did not stop the export of wheat to Britain for fear that it would provoke European resistance against him. He miscalculated that the cause of British prosperity was her export and not import. He failed to realize that export leads to export hence failure of the continental system.

5. Napoleon and the Pope

The Papal States were the first to denounce the continental system. This was due to economic hardship caused by the system and the Pope's desire to remain neutral as a spiritual leader. It made the Pope to open his ports to the British trading ships in 1808. Napoleon ignored the concordant of 1801, invaded the Papal States, abducted the Pope and imprisoned hi in France. This greatly undermined Napoleon's popularity amongst Catholics in France and the whole catholic states in the whole world.

6. The Peninsular War

Napoleon's ambition to enforce the continental system drove him to invade Portugal and Spain. When Prince John the regent of Portugal refused to abide by the continental system, Napoleon attacked Portugal through Spain. The Spaniards rose against their King Charles IV for his weakness that made it possible for the French troops to march through their territory up to Portugal. Napoleon used this confused situation to force Charles to resign and imposed his brother Joseph Bonaparte on the Spanish throne (1808). However, Spain and Portugal combined and defeated Napoleon. He lost above 300,000 soldiers. He remarked, "The Spanish ulcer that destroyed me".

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7. The Moscow Campaign (1812)

The negative effects of the continental system made Alexander of Russia to abandon the continental system and opened the Russian ports to British goods. Napoleon mobilized over 600,000 troops the largest in history to teach Alexander a lesson that he would never forget. He crossed River Niemen with a lot of expectations as he remarked, "Moscow is the half-way house of India". The Russians reacted by withdrawing and using scorched earth policy in which they destroyed everything that would be useful to the French soldiers. Napoleon reached Moscow only to find the city burning without anyone. Above all, there was no safe water, foods and there was outbreak of cholera that led to the death of Napoleon's soldiers. The bridges also had drawn thousands of soldiers. The above circumstance made Napoleon to reach France with about 20,000 out of which only 10,000 soldiers were useful for the military service.

Reasons for the Defeat of Napoleon during the Moscow Campaign

- Lack of common sense and military erroneous conclusions subverted Napoleon's success of Russia. Russia was a major state which required legitimate arranging and two years to achieve the mission. Tragically, Napoleon needed the mission just in one year that is the reason he pulled out subsequent to vanquishing Moscow.
- The topographical scene of Russia was an obstruction to the French attacking armed force. It was rough and frigid that supported the Russian who were utilized to it contrasted with the French soldiers.
- The Russian seared earth strategy was an all out irritation to Napoleon. The Russian obliteration of food, cover, water, wells, gardens and scaffolds prompted gigantic demise of Napoleon's troopers. That is the reason he pulled out from Russia.
- The Russian withdrawal and the consuming of Moscow was a major hit to Napoleon's victory. At the point when Napoleon arrived at Moscow town, he vanquished a vacant spot without any individuals. He was unable to proclaim himself fruitful and that is the reason he pulled out from Moscow.
- Winter turned into a characteristic weapon that assisted Russians with crushing Napoleon. Napoleon and his fighters had not foreseen to get them in Moscow. They consequently abandoned winter clothing's. At the point when winter came, his troopers hence, froze and kicked the bucket in enormous numbers because of outrageous virus condition.
- Napoleon's intrusion of Moscow city was a lethal technique that prompted his disappointment. It excited Russian patriotism to the most elevated level. This is the reason there was serious opposition that constrained him to pull out from Moscow.
- The Russian close quarters combat was a major hit to Napoleon's endeavor to overcome Russia. Mindful that they couldn't withstand the strength of the French armed force, the Russians chose to pull out

and draw in the French soldiers in intense hit and run combat that debilitated him for example in the clash of Boradine, napoleon lost 30,000 ponies and 50,000 authorities.

- Loss of feeling of judgment and premonition likewise sabotaged Napoleon's endeavor to attack Russia. By 1812, Napoleon had battled such countless wars that debilitated him prompting depletion, weariness and mind devaluation. This is the reason he neglected to appropriately design and predict winter condition that obliterated large number of his fighters.
- The distance among France and Russia additionally neutralized Napoleon's prosperity. Russia is situated in the Far East of Europe and France is situated in the extraordinary West of Europe. This significant distance made it unimaginable for Napoleon to get additional grub and ponies when the ones he had kicked the bucket of starvation and cold.
- While in Moscow, abnormal things happened to Napoleon's fighters that compromised them mentally for example the lightning and thunder that they had never experienced in their lives.

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Consequences of the Moscow Campaign

The mission was the most noticeably awful calamity throughout the entire existence of France and Napoleon positioned it high in his life time. Napoleon lost more than 580,000 officers that made him military frail. As indicated by Tally Rands his unfamiliar clergyman, "is the start of the end". It was subsequently a defining moment against his command over Europe.

Napoleon's thrashing in Moscow crusade added to the arrangement of the fourth alliance and even the fifth alliance against him. It was an unmistakable declaration that Napoleon was not unapproachable. This prompted solidarity of Europe, significantly more vulnerable states against him.

The Moscow calamity prompted the ascent of European patriotism against Napoleon's strength over Europe. It turned into a wellspring of motivation for the states that were overwhelmed by Napoleon to begin battling for their autonomy. This prompted battle of freedom among the Germans, Italians and Australians against Napoleon.

The Russian triumph expanded the Russian esteem and aspiration in Europe. She began meddling in the French overwhelmed states like Poland and German states to annihilate Napoleon's impact in those nations for example it made Prussia guarantee to help Russia against Napoleon.

The thrashing denied Napoleon inward help from a part of the French. Napoleon turned to enrollment into the military for example enrolled youthful, poorly prepared and unpracticed armed force that was effectively crushed.

Napoleon's disappointment in the Moscow lobby was the last hit to the mainland framework. His inability to overcome Russia denoted the finish of the mainland framework and he had to desert it.

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Numerous individuals and nations figured out how to crush Napoleon and they later received similar arrangements utilized by the Russians to overcome Napoleon for example hit and run combat and so forth.

4.2.5 Causes of the Downfall of Napoleon

By 1808, Napoleon was so dominant in France and in Europe that no one prophesized about his downfall. However between 1808-1815, there was resistance against Napoleon that made his downfall inevitable. The factors that led to the downfall of Napoleon were both internal and external, long term and immediate, his own making and circumstances beyond his control as seen below:

- 1. The Continental System:** The continental system which was designed by Napoleon to defeat Britain became a boomerang that finally led to his own downfall. The system denied Europe, France inclusive the British cheap goods yet of high quality. Many people had to oppose his policy leading to his downfall. The system led to famine, unemployment, inflation, starvation and decline in international trade. These conditions undermined Napoleon's earlier achievements hence his downfall. The continental system led to the formation of the 4th and 5th coalitions that defeated Napoleon. That is to say the 4th coalition defeated Napoleon at the battle of Leipzig and imprisoned him at Elba. But Napoleon escaped and ruled for more 100 days. The 5th coalition was formed that defeated Napoleon at the battle of Waterloo and Napoleon was imprisoned in the island of St. Hellena where he died in 1821. It made Napoleon impose heavy taxes to raise revenue to finance the continental system that was met with opposition. Continental system made Napoleon to imprison the Pope hence loss of popularity especially from the Catholics. It made Napoleon to get involved into peninsular war which he called the "Spanish ulcer that destroyed me". The continental system dragged Napoleon into the disastrous Moscow campaign where he lost over 580,000 troops. The system made Britain to spearhead and to mastermind most of the wars against Napoleon e.g. *peninsular, 4th, 5th coalition, etc.*
- 2. Imprisonment of the Pope:** The continental system made Napoleon to arrest and imprisons the Pope. This was because the Pope complained bitterly about the side effects of the system over Rome, Italy and the entire Europe and he refused to implement it in the Papal States. Napoleon reacted by invading Papal States, arrested the Pope and imprisoned him. This reduced his popularity among the Catholics in France and the whole Europe. This is why the alliance of catholic states like Austria, Prussia, Russia and Italy was formed against him hence his downfall.
- 3. The Peninsular War (1808-1814):** Napoleon's ambition to implement the continental system dragged him to the peninsular war which he called "an ulcer that destroyed me". The Portuguese and

Spaniards turned and united against him at the battle of Trafalgar. This defeat proved to the world that Napoleon could be defeated, over 20,000 of his soldiers surrendered and it also weakened Napoleon's military strength. This led to the downfall of Napoleon in 1815.

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4. The Moscow Campaign (1812): The continental system entangled Napoleon into disastrous Moscow campaign which was the turning point in his military and political career in France and Europe. He experienced the heaviest military loss in the history of the world. It led to his downfall in that; He lost over 580,000 troops which weakened Napoleon military that is why he was defeated by the 4th and 5th coalitions European powers learnt that Napoleon was not untouchable, he could also be defeated. It made a number of military officials to desert Napoleon. The heavy losses of the French soldiers, horses, conscription and over taxation forced Tallrand to join allied forces that defeated Napoleon. The massive loss of 580,000 troops made Napoleon to resort to forceful recruitment, inexperienced, ill trained young men.

5. The British Naval Superiority: Napoleon's lack of a strong navy relative to the British naval superiority led to his downfall. This explains why Napoleon was defeated at the battle of Trafalgar in 1805. By 1807, Napoleon had defeated nearly all European powers except Britain. This made Napoleon to; He had to resort to the continental system, i.e., economic war to bring Britain to her knees the naval weakness partly accounts for the failure of the continental system. It explains why Napoleon was defeated at the battle of Leipzig and Waterloo by the 4th and 5th coalitions. In these wars, Britain dominated mostly the sea.

All the wars fought against Napoleon were masterminded by Napoleon, e.g., 3rd, 4th, 5th coalitions headed by Britain. During the peninsular war, Britain took the advantage of her naval superiority to defeat Napoleon at the battle of Trafalgar.

6. Overwhelming Ambition: Napoleon was too ambitious and he wished to control the whole Europe. Napoleon's ambition could be gauged from his statement that "I have known the limits of my legs, I have known the limits of my eyes, and I have never known the limit of my work." By 1812, he had forged the heterogeneous empire that was too big and too difficult to maintain by an individual. His ambition made him to fight endless wars. It's what made him to embark into the continental system which made his downfall inevitable by 1815.

7. The Rise of European Nationalism: The rise and growth of nationalism undermined Napoleon's effort to dominate Europe. Napoleon had sown seeds of nationalism by preaching the French revolutionary ideas of equality, liberty and fraternity. However, he contradicted his preaching by over taxing people in the conquered Papal States. His attempt to create Bonaparte family rule (Bonapartism) over Europe made him very unpopular in Europe e.g.

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he imposed his brother Joseph Bonaparte in Spain, Louis Bonaparte in Holland and Jerome Bonaparte in West Phalia. Napoleon was seen as fooling Europe and this led to the rise of Nationalism leading to his downfall.

- 8. The Endless Wars:** Throughout his career, Napoleon was involved in several wars that greatly contributed to his downfall. In the process of fighting many wars, the quality and quantity of his army deteriorated (declined) and his military ability to fight against opponents reduced. It's true that Napoleon fought 60 battles (differently) and emerged victorious in 49. But the quality and quantity of his army declined that is why he was defeated at the battle of Trafalgar, Leipzig and Waterloo. In the peninsular war, he lost 300,000, Moscow campaign 580,000 troops. He resorted to recruiting young boys of below 15 years and these ones could easily surrender to the opponents hence his defeat and downfall.
- 9. His Old Age:** By 1814, Napoleon had completely lost his sense of judgment due to brain depreciation that contributed to his downfall. Napoleon had fought too many wars to the extent that at the age of 45 years only, he appeared too old and exhausted. He was no longer capable of making proper judgment and planning. This is why he failed to foresee winter in Russia and he also foolishly relied on food from Russia during the peninsular war which actually made him to be defeated. His failure to use the former warfare and resorted to new tactics led to his defeat at Leipzig and Waterloo hence his downfall.
- 10. Economic Decline in France:** By 1815, the French economy had declined. The revolutionary and Napoleonic wars drained the French resources and caused socio-economic problems like industrial breakdown, unemployment, inflation, famine and starvation. Besides, the wars had isolated France from the rest of Europe. It made France unable to finance, arm, train and pay her soldiers which affected their performance and led to the defeat of Napoleon by the allied powers. This was made worse when Napoleon imposed heavy taxes in order to maintain his large army making him unpopular hence his downfall.
- 11. The Role of Britain:** Britain played a very crucial role towards the downfall of Napoleon Bonaparte. She had the strongest economy, superior naval force, and she was the force behind the formation of all coalitions that were formed against Napoleon and France at large. It was the British navy that defeated Napoleon in the battle of Trafalgar. The need to defeat Britain dragged Napoleon into the continental system. The British supported and allied with states like Italy and German as such support gave them courage to resist Napoleon's rule and rise of nationalism. All these contributed to the downfall of Napoleon.
- 12. Concert of Europe:** Lastly, the alliance of Europe against Napoleon finally contributed to his downfall. Napoleon in his military career was never defeated by a single power. But when the European powers

combined their resources and armies in the 4th coalition, it became too much for him to withstand and he was consequently defeated when he escaped from Elba, he ruled for 100 days and the 5th coalition was formed that defeated him.

Thus, this was the end of the history of a legendary figure not only in France but also in Europe who had a lasting impression in the minds of the people for liberty, equality and fraternity. Napoleon Bonaparte was not only an indomitable warrior but also a motivator, a man with high courage and ambition. The modern European political and social phenomenon started with him. He was the child of the revolution of France. His revolutionary ideas spread to many countries like Germany and Italy where the seeds of unification spread and later made them united to achieve their nation's unification.

Thus the three phases with the starting of the revolution in France led the country into many more events full of struggle, terror and reform. The Moderate phase (1789 -1791) involved many events and resolutions passed by the national Assembly over political, social, Judicial and administrative structures of France. The Radical Phase (1792– 1794) marked with turning of the peaceful revolution into a reign of terror, shifting to dictatorship and anarchy. And, ultimately the Sensitive Phase (1795 -1799) was under the Directory Government ruled by five directors followed by the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte in 1799 who staged a coup against the Directory Government and assumed power in France. He was not only an indomitable warrior but also a motivator, a man with high courage and ambition. The modern European political and social phenomenon started with him.

Check Your Progress

1. Who said, “the crown of France was lying on the ground and I picked it up in my sword.”?
2. How was the personality of Napoleon Bonaparte?
3. What do you know about the New Constitution of 1799?

4.3 VIENNA CONGRESS (1815)

Napoleon Bonaparte had great influence on the Europe unit 1811. In 1812 Napoleon invaded Russia, but was defeated by Russia. This gave very hard setback to his reign and impact over Europe. In order to take advantage of this defeat, Russia, Austria and Persia started War of Liberation against Napoleon. He was very badly defeated by them in the battle of Lipzil in 1813. This defeat deteriorated his regime, but he still did not accept the proposal of compromise. Hence the battle continued for a long time. The ally nations like Austria, Persia, Russia and England signed a pact on March 1, 1814 to cooperate each other still the demise of Napoleon. The ally nations captured Paris on 30 March, 1814 and interim government was formed under the leadership to Teri land. Napoleon was sent as sovereign king on Elba Islands. Louis 18 of Bourbon dynasty was made king of France.

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4.3.1 Leaders of Vienna Congress

Napoleon had badly mutilated the political map of Europe. However, with his overthrow in 1814, there was a need to relocate each region. As Metternich had played the most important role in the overthrow of Napoleon, Vienna was chosen as the venue of negotiations and settlement of Europe. Many emperors, foreign ministers and statesmen assembled at Vienna and carried deliberations during the winter of 1814-15. Still the congress had the impact of England, Austria and Russia. After some time France also joined this congress.

1. **Metternich: Chancellor of Austria:** He was the most important person of Vienna Congress. He emerged after the deterioration of Napoleon. The European political scenario was under his influence from 1806 to 1848. Hence this period is known as Metternich era. He worked day in and day out for the outgrowth of Napoleon. He regarded Napoleon as the prime enemy of Austria. He was the president of Vienna Congress. He was great diplomat and executioner of diplomacy. He was against extreme nationalism, democracy, liberalism and individual freedom. Hence, he was conservative. He influenced all decisions of Vienna Congress.
2. **Czar Alexander I of Russia:** He was also one important persons of Vienna Congress. He had internal cordial relations with Metternich, because Russia faced much trouble due to Napoleon invasion on Russia and demanded much compensation. Though Czar was against revolutions, still he was not ready for any changes in Poland and western frontiers of Russia, which territory was under his control. Alexander tried to build the European Union by using the Christian principles; by and large he was successful. He had a great impact on Vienna Congress.
3. **Foreign Minister of England: Castlereagh:** England certainly played very important role in destroying Napoleon's regime. Castlereagh successfully made alliance of European nations against Napoleon. Hewas one of the important representatives of Vienna Congress still 1815. He was charismatic politician and diplomat. He proposed important issues for the peace and security of European Countries. He especially tried to stop slave trading and to have unlimited control of England on sea.
4. **Talleyrand of France:** He was a clergyman. Later on during revolution, he left church and actively participated against revolution. Initially he was a minister in Napoleon's cabinet, but later he went against him. He represented Louis XVIII of Bourbon dynasty at Vienna Congress. He was also a great diplomat as Metternich. He tried to compensate France on large scale, but as he was the representative of defeated nation, the victorious allies did not give attention to him.
5. **Hartrenberg of Prussia:** He was the Prussian representative who believed in nationalism and militarism.

4.3.2 Objectives of Vienna Congress

The work of the congress was completed after the overthrow of Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815.

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- 1. Restoration of Europe:** The Vienna settlement was based on three principles, viz. restoration, legitimacy, and compensation. As regards the principle of restoration, it was decided to restore as far as possible, the boundaries and reigning families of the several European countries as they were before the French Revolution and the rise of Napoleon. Talleyrand tried to save further territorial spoliation of France. The Vienna settlement restored the Bourbons in Spain, Naples and Sicily. The House of Orange restored in Holland. The House of Savoy was restored in Piedmont and Sardinia. The Pope was also restored with all his possessions in Italy. The various German princes whose territories had been included by Napoleon in his confederation were also restored. The Tyrol was restored to Austria. The right of Austria to the Austrian Netherlands was recognized but she was allowed to exchange it for some other territory.
- 2. To Isolate France in European Politics:** The French Revolution of 1789 gave the principles like Liberty, Fraternity and Equality to the Europe and the world. But Napoleon Bonaparte created violent atmosphere everywhere. It was difficult to control Napoleon and war. The warlike situation became everywhere. It had great impact on national budget of every nation. They had to share more on the military and then other welfare measures. Hence each nation tried to isolate France in European politics.
- 3. To Compensate the War Affected Countries:** During Napoleon wars, Great Britain had captured the important Dutch colonies of Ceylon, Cape Colony, South Africa and Guiana. However, with a view to compensating Holland and also creating a strong state on the northern frontier of France, the Austrian Netherlands were given to Holland. The King of Holland was made the king of the United Netherlands. The members of the Hapsburg family were put on the thrones of Tuscany, Parma and Modena. Finland and Swedish Pomeranian were taken away from Sweden and given to Russia and Prussia respectively. Sweden was compensated in the form of Norway which was taken away from Denmark. Denmark was punished on account of her alliance with Napoleon for a long time. Prussia got back all the German territories which had been taken away from her by Napoleon. With the object of maintaining the balance of power and creating a ring round France, it was decided to enlarge and strengthen the kingdom of Sardinia. To that Kingdom, Savoy and Piedmont were restored and Genoa was added.
- 4. To Check the Revolutionary Ideologies:** As regards the settlement of Germany, it was decided not to restore all the petty states which existed before the French Revolution. The Holy Roman Empire had

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been abolished by Napoleon in 1806. The loose German confederation of 38 states was established. Although the German Confederation as a whole was normally guaranteed by all the European Powers, but Austria dominated her politics.

This was the first congress of European powers at Vienna, but many problems were before the congress. The congress was divided over compensating the territories Prussia and Russia in one group, while Great Britain and Austria in another group. Napoleon tried to make hay of this split, but working of this congress was adjourned by these powers for three months and unitedly defeated Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815. The work of congress was completed after the overthrow of Napoleon at Waterloo in June 1815.

4.3.3 Functions of Vienna Congress

Vienna Congress did not have specific functioning. Initially, England, Prussia, Russia and Austria tried to control the decision and policy making of congress, but Talleyrand challenged it. He demanded the committee of 8 nations which included England, Austria, Russia, Prussia, France, Spain, Portugal and Sweden. In January 1815, France was also made ally. The functioning of the sub committees changed as per the conditions and England, Russia, Austria, France and Prussia had control over the congress. *According to Hazen, "Vienna Congress was not congress in reality. It was a congress of aristocrats, to whom the ideas of nationality and democracy as proclaimed by the French Revolution were loathsome."* The rulers rearranged Europe according to their desires, disposing of it as if it were their own personal property, ignoring the sentiment of nationality.

1. Settlements about France

Metternich wanted the total devastation of France. He desired that France should not emerge as power in Europe. But British foreign Minister Castlereagh was liberal and tried to balance the European powers. Castlereagh and Talleyrand were successful to control devastation of France. In 1815 the Vienna Congress laid War compensation on France.

1. The other territories which acquired by Napoleon after 1789 revolution were taken away from France. The ring of the powers like British, Spain, Piedmont, Sardinia, Switzerland, Germany, Denmark, Norway and Sweden was made around France.
2. **Restoration of old Royal Families:** Metternich tried to restore the royal families in to the throne, which were destroyed by Napoleon, because he was against such revolution and with kingship.
 - (a) He restored Bourbon family in France, Spain and Naples.
 - (b) Orange family restored in Holland.
 - (c) Pope was restored in Italy.
 - (d) In Piedmont and Sardinia, Savoy family was restored.
3. **Regional Changes:** The nations, who allied Napoleon, were severely punished. The powers like Austria, Prussia, Russia and England

collectively defeated Napoleon; obviously they tried to get more compensation.

- (a) **Austria:** Metternich certainly tried to get more compensation for Austria.
 - (i) Austria was given the territories of Venetia and Lombardy, Erillian territory and Tirol of Bavheria.
 - (ii) Hapsburg Princes were given power of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. These territories were of Italy; hence Austria had increased influence over it.
 - (iii) The German confederation was made and given under control of Austria.
- (b) **Prussia:** Prussia had been a large territory in order to weaken France. She got back all the German territories which had been taken away from her by Napoleon. She was also given Swedish Pomeranian, two-fifths of Saxony, the whole of Westphalia and most of the Rhineland. One of the reasons why Prussia was given these territories. That it was intended to make Prussia a bulk work against France. These concessions added to her mineral resources and helped her to become a great industrialized country.
- (c) **Russia:** Russia was allowed to retain Finland which she had conquered from Sweden. She was also given Bessarabia which she had captured from the Turks. She also got most of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. As Thomas rightly stated, “The roll back from Russia changed the history of Napoleon.”
- (d) **Great Britain:** England occupied Heligoland in the North Sea, Malta and the Ionian Islands in the Mediterranean, Cape Colony in South Africa, Ceylon another islands. Though Britain got much compensated by Vienna Congress, still tried to balance in European Politics.
- (e) **Italy:** There was discrimination in compensation. The small powers were exploited and injustice was done with them. Napoleon had destroyed the small states in Italy and made Republic Italy. The people of Italy wanted to have same kind of union and sovereignty. But Metternich and other powers divided Italy. They gave Venetia and Lombardy to Austria, while Piedmont, Savoy and Guiana were attached to Sardinia. Savoy family restored and their power was called “Sardinia-Piedmont regime.” In this way, Vienna Congress used conservations for Italy.
- (f) **Germany:** As Napoleon abolished Germany; no attempt was made to revive it. Neither Prussia nor Austria showed enthusiasm for a unified Germany. A loose German Confederation of 38 states was established. Austria dominated German Politics.

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- (g) **Norway:** Norway was rejected the right of independent nation. It was under control of Denmark. Denmark was ally of Napoleon; hence as a punishment to Denmark, Norway was attached to Sweden.

4.3.4 Criticisms of Vienna Congress

According to Prof. Fyffe is that 'Standing on the boundary line between towages, the legislation of Vienna forms a landmark in history.' He rightly told the statesmen to present at Vienna that they had assembled not a distribute the trophies of war but to make such a settlement as would give peace to the people of Europe. The principle of compromise was applied wherever possible. It cannot be denied that Napoleon was responsible for acts of wanton aggression and had disturbed Europe in a very bad way, but France was not held guilty for all his misdeeds. Even when Napoleon was defeated for the second time in 1815 at Waterloo, a very mild treaty was imposed on France. Her frontiers were restricted to those of 1791.

France was required to restore her treasures of arts which Napoleon had plundered from other countries. She was merely asked to pay a war indemnity of 700,000,000 francs. The big-5 powers not only ignored the small nations but insulted them. They tried to thrash them for their selfishness. *According to Hazen, "To restore the peace was the dream of Vienna Congress; unfortunately it remained as dream forever."* The big-5 powers divided the territories as per their convenience and it was fact that, it would not last for long. In short, the decisions and polices made by Vienna Congress were short lived.

4.3.5 Drawbacks of Vienna Congress

It was a just show to restore peace and law and order in Europe. This congress was the organization of Royal Families and not common man. All had their selfish motto behind it.

1. Unnatural Unification

- (a) The unification of Belgium and Holland was totally unnatural. Belgium was Catholic while Holland was Protestant. Later on in 1830, Belgium revolted against Vienna Congress.
- (b) Norway was given to Sweden snatching from Denmark.
- (c) Vienna Congress tried to divide Poland in many parts and dissolved Finland against her will in Russia.
- (d) In 1789 Bourbon king XVI Louis was executed and Louis XVIII was restored. Actually, French people were very much hated Bourbon Family.

2. **No Place for Sentiment:** French Revolution of 1789 gave the principles of Equality, Liberty and Fraternity. Vienna Congress took total against step of it. It divided Italy and restored hateful Royal dynasties. It thrashed nationhood of Germany and gave under control of Austria by making it confederation. Vienna Congress disregarded

Liberalism and Nationalism. They saw that the issues of peace and war are decided by the great powers and by them alone. Hence, simple fact that the Vienna settlement contained no cause that offered any of the great powers a pretext for war is its complete and sufficient justification.

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- 3. Revenge on France:** It was true that the Victorious powers talked of the 'rights, freedom and independence of all nations. But they looked at France, very badly. The Big-5 powers took back all territories which Napoleon had won. Her frontiers were restricted to those of 1791 and not even those of 1789 when the French revolution actually started.
- 4. Profit to Big-5 and Loss to Small Nations:** In the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815, the small nations played important role; but 'the reconstruction of the social order' and 'the regeneration of the political system' – sought only a show. The Big-5 powers came together for their desires; they ignored the contribution of small nations and even insulted them by doing divisions. As the secretary of Vienna Congress, Gents wrote 'The reconstruction of the social order', 'the regeneration of the political system in Europe etc. were intended to tranquilize the people of Europe; but the real object was to divided among the conquerors the spoils of conquered.'
- 5. Negligence of Eastern Disputes:** The Turkish Emperor conquered much part Europe still 15th century. But it became powerless in 18th Century. Many problems aroused in the eastern part of Europe. Vienna Congress just ignored these issues. Each power lost in her selfishness and Vienna Congress should have tried to resolve these things.
- 6. Austria Emerged as a New Power:** Austria played important role in the defeat of Napoleon. Hence Austrian chancellor Metternich was made president Vienna Congress. Austria always suppressed the national movements. Along with the peace, European countries needed the economic development. But Austria ignored this thing. After the downfall of Napoleon, Metternich led Europe from 1815 to 1848.
- 7. End of Holy Roman Empire:** Roman Empire was one of the ancient empires in the world. But Napoleon Acquired Rhine province also. Later on Vienna Congress distributed all those and with it there was an end of Roman Empire.

4.3.6 Merits of Vienna Congress

Though Vienna Congress by and large proved failure, still it has some good point. Such as:

- 1. Protest against Slavery:** The sale of slaves was rampant in Europe. The condition of slaves was very pitiable. This was a stigma on European Humanism. Vienna Congress passed the important

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resolution against Slavery. This resolution legally stopped the sale of slaves in Britain, Spain, Portugal, France and Holland. This helped to eradicate social inequality.

2. **Strong Action against Pirates:** Vienna Congress particularly under the leadership of British Naval officer Lord Exmouth took strong action against sea pirates.
3. **Restoration of Peace in Europe:** With the emergence of Napoleon, the European peace had lost. Whole Europe sought to be the battle field. It was necessary to restore peace for progress. Vienna congress was by and large successful to restore peace in Europe. Still 1854 there was no war in Europe.
4. **No Oppose to Unification of Germany:** The unification of Germany lasted still 1870-71, still Vienna Congress could not be made responsible for it. The contemporary German chancellor Frederick William III not opposed or supported the unification. On the contrary, Metternich founded confederation of Germany with 38 provinces and actively supported unification of Germany.
5. **Reconstruction of Europe:** Vienna Congress reconstructed the Europe which was very badly dislodged due to French Revolution and Napoleon. Due to Napoleon's policies of imperialism, many small countries lost their freedom. It was necessary to think of restoration of all these things, after the downfall of Napoleon. Vienna Congress made the reconstruction of Europe possible.

However, it cannot be maintained that the Vienna Settlement was an ideal one. Another defect of the settlement was that it ignored altogether the nationalist movement that had stirred the poles and Spaniards; the Italians and the Germans. The hopes of the liberals were frustrated. It was mean and hypocritical not to extend the doctrine of legitimacy of Republics.

Napoleon had badly mutilated the political map of Europe. He had torn away territories from some states and added them to other states to suit his convenience. However, when he was overthrown in 1814 and sent to the Island of Elba, the problem before the European statesmen was how the map of Europe was to be redrawn. As Metternich had played the most important part in the overthrow of Napoleon, Vienna was chosen as the venue of negotiations and settlement of Europe. Many emperors, foreign ministers and statesmen assembled at Vienna and carried on deliberations during the winter of 1814-15. The work of the congress was completed after the overthrow of Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815. The Vienna Settlement was based on three principles, viz. restoration, legitimacy and compensation. As regards the principle of restoration, it was decided to restore, as far as possible, boundaries and reigning families of the several European countries as they were before the French Revolution and the rise of Napoleon. The real object of Vienna congress was to create a sing round France. Many positive things came out of this congress, but at the same time it was severely criticized. *As Prof. Hayes said, "In all these territorial readjustments, there was little that was permanent and much that*

was temporary.” It ignored the nationalist movements that had stirred the poles and Spaniards. The hopes of the liberals were frustrated. It was defective in so far as the people were regarded as so many pawns in the game of dynastic aggrandizement. It was mean and hypocritical not to extend the doctrine of legitimacy of Republics.

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Check Your Progress

4. What was Metternich era?
5. Who was the leader from Russia to participate as the leader in Vienna congress?

4.4 AGE OF METTERNICH

Austria-Hungary played a prominent part in the overthrow of Napoleon and no wonder Vienna was chosen as the place of deliberation for the resettlement of the map of Europe. Metternich, the chancellor of Austria, gave to Austrian policy that ‘vigorous and certain direction which enabled him afterwards to boast himself as the conqueror of Napoleon.’ Between 1815 and 1818, Austria-Hungary was ruled by Francis-I (1792-1835), Ferdinand-I (1835-48) and Francis Joseph (1848-1918). Vienna Congress gave birth to the leadership of Metternich. Being the president of Vienna Congress, whole power got centralized in his hands. Hence, the period from 1815 to 1848 is known as ‘Metternich Era’ in Europe. He ruled for 33 years on Austria. His philosophy had a great impact on every ideology of Europe.

4.4.1 Life



Metternich
Credit- Wikipedia

Count Clemens Von Metternich was born of 15 May 1773 in Austria. He was born with a silver spoon in his mouth and entered the diplomatic service of Austria at a very young age. He was able to acquire a lot of diplomatic experience within a short time as he was transferred from one capital to another. When he was hardly 36, he was appointed the chancellor of Austria and he occupied that position for nearly 40 years when he had to run away from Vienna to England. He led Austrian delegation at the Congress of Vienna. In recognition of his service to the Austrian Empire he was raised to the title of Prince in October 1813. He received a good education at the universities of Strasbourg and Mainz. As he was in favour class system and influence of church and lords, he was against French Revolution and democratic principles. He married Eleonore Kaunitz, daughter of Austrian Chancellor in 1795. Metternich was the central figure not only in Austrian and German politics but also in European diplomacy. He was the most famous statesman produced by Austria in 19th century. He was the prince of diplomats and was thoroughly at ease in the intrigues of the European politics. His vanity had no boundaries. He felt that the whole world was resting

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on his shoulders. He always felt that his death would leave behind a void. In 1801 he was an ambassador at Dresden and in 1804 at France. He worked as an ambassador in many countries.

Metternich was the enemy of the French Revolution and all that it stood for. He described it as “the disease which must be cured, the volcano which must be extinguished, the gangrene which must be burnt out with hot iron, the hydra with jaws open to swallow up the social order.” According to him, democracy could “Change daylight into darkest night.”

At the Congress of Vienna, Metternich was given the greatest amount of the attention and under him the leadership of Europe passed from France to Austria. He was able to secure as much as could possibly be got for Austria. In exchange for the distant Austrian Netherlands, he got Lombardy and Venetia in Italy. He was able to put the members of the Habsburg royal family on the thrones of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. In this way, he secured effective control over Italy. Likewise, he secured for his country a dominant position in the affairs of Germany. Austria was to be the controller of the German Diet and without her approval nothing could be done. He was able to create a strong barrier on the frontiers of France so that she might not be able to create any trouble in the future. Metternich stood for the maintenance of the status quo in Europe. He wanted to make the Vienna settlement permanent and for that purpose he entered into the quadruple alliance with Prussia, Russia and Great Britain.

The Austrian people called him as ‘Prince’. In 1848, Austrians protested against him and demanded his removal from the power. He ran away to England and led miserable life and died in 1859. The historian wrote about him that Metternich did not change with changing world. He stuck to old conservative mentality, which led him to his doom.

4.4.2 Ideology of Metternich

1. **Centralization of Power:** Metternich, though he was intellectual and great diplomat, misused his ideologies to expose conservativeness. He was in favour of centralization of power. He was egoist and had very imaginary conceptions about himself. He felt himself as a ‘God’s Lieutenant.’
2. **Oppose to Revolutionary Ideals:** Metternich was an enemy of French Revolution. His ideology was based on hatred of democracy, liberalism and nationality. He felt that these ideas were hopeless and useless. He always thought that, though Napoleon created chaos in Europe, but it was French Revolution responsible for the rise of Napoleon. He described it as the disease which must be cured and the volcano must be extinguished.
3. **Oppose to Nationality Ideologies:** People from various creeds were residing in Austria. He had feared that, this idea leads to uncontrolled monarchy and he would lose his power. Hence, he used his power to crush nationality ideas.

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- 4. Oppose to Democratic Ideals:** Metternich was a staunch opponent of democracy. According to him, democracy could “Change daylight into the darkest night.” He always tried in his life to crush down democratic powers and its favourable things. Metternich himself was conservative and against progressiveness and made Europe to follow it for some years.

4.4.3 Metternich System

Metternich Wanted to crush the nationalist democratic and republic powers in Europe. He restored many traditional royal families. He wanted to create situations as before the French Revolution. He not only restored royal families but tried to sustain it powerfully. He painstakingly tried to keep Europe away from nationalistic and democratic ideals. He was successful to build a dictatorial power in Europe. In this way, he established strong conservative power in Europe. This way of ruling is known as Metternich system. In 1809 Metternich became the chancellor of Austria. He was an essentially man of status quo. His doctrine was of pure immobility. He was ready to yield an inch against the change. He did not like the new ideas in his State. His system was at war with human nature. He tried to suppress the liberal ideas. The universities and educational institutions were strictly controlled by government of Austria and it would not likely impart any new thought to the students, or it could be included in the courses of study or allowed to be kept in library. He wanted to construct an iron wall in his state.

The people were divided into three classes. The nobles, clergy and the commons including peasants, and other pretty persons. The nobles enjoyed privileges. The Clergy were favoured. But the common people had no rights. These nobles were troubling the common people had no rights. The country was passing through unsystematic way. The country was divided into many parts. And the officials of Government were always ignoring the languages and racial things. The King and clergy and the nobles, rolled the wealth or the country. Rest of the people were poor. The industries and commerce was not encouraged.

4.4.4 Concert of Europe

Metternich wanted to have the formation of United Europe for the restoration of peace in Europe. He proposed the idea of united Europe of Big-4 and formed on 20th July, 1815. Russia, Austria, Prussia and England were included in the united Europe. Later in 1818 France was made part of this group and called it as United Europe.

Objectives of United Europe

1. To execute the resolutions of Vienna Congress.
2. To restore peace in Europe and implement treaty with France.
3. To conduct continuous used discussions with all members and restore peace in Europe.
4. To review the policies made in Vienna Congress.

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Conferences of United Europe

The whole of Europe was disturbed by the revolutionaries and Napoleon who had trodden it fully. The people of Austria wanted peace and Metternich wanted to take advantage of it. In order to restore law and order and peace in Europe. Metternich took advantage of this conditions and he proposed the concept of United Europe and to control it.

1. **Congress of Aix-La-Chapelle (1818):** The first congress was held at Aix-La-Chapelle in 1818. The following important steps were taken by the Congress.
 - (i) As France had paid off the indemnity to the Allied Conquerors, it was included, in the concert.
 - (ii) The army of occupation was ordered to leave the French Soil.
 - (iii) The king of Sweden, Bernadotte was called to account for ignoring the treaty rights in his dealings with Norway and Denmark.
 - (iv) The rule of Monaco was ordered to improve the administrative system of his country.
 - (v) It curbed the territorial ambition of Bavaria.
 - (vi) It discussed the question of the disputed succession to the Duchy of Baden.
 - (vii) The position of the Jewish Citizens in Austria and Russia was alsodiscussed.
 - (viii) A committee was formed for introducing reforms in the administrative, judicial and religious fields in the countries which were the members of the concert.
2. **Congress of Troppau (1820):** The second congress met at Troppau in 1820. It was convened to deal with the revolutions that had broken out in Naples, Spain and Portugal. The people of these countries had compelled their rulers to accept a constitution of the Spanish type of 1812. They joined together rulers to crush the revolutions forthwith. But they were sharply divided in regard to the steps to be taken. Russia offered armed assistance to the Spanish King to suppress the revolt. Metternich feared that it would enable the Czar to gain more influence than Austria. He decided to suppress the revolt in Naples in order to avert threat to the Austrian rule in Italy. There was heated exchange of words in the meeting between the Czar and Metternich. The Czar who earlier detested the motives of Metternich later agreed with him. It was due to the revolt of the royal guards of Petrograd and the murder of Kotzebue by the German Students who doubted him to be a Russian Spy.

Thus, by Metternich's effort the famous Troppau Protocol was signed by Russia, Prussia and Austria. Under the cover of this protocol, these powers prepared themselves to stamp out any sign of liberalism or

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democracy by means of armed intervention. England and France were opposed to this Protocol. Castlereagh said that, "The three powers have constituted themselves into a political supreme court directly an international police force against revolution." According to Kissinger; "The congress of Troppau marks the point of Metternich's diplomatic skill."

- 3. Congress of Laibach (1821):** The third Congress was held at Laibach. Austria was allowed to crush the revolt in Naples. This was easily done by the Austrian troops. They also crushed the revolution in Piedmont on their way back home. King of Piedmont Victor Emanuel was dictator, while people revolted against it. The impact of all these found at Sardinia Piedmont in Italy.
- 4. The Congress of Verona (1822):** The fourth and last congress was held at Verona in 1822. It was convened to deal with the Spanish and Greek revolts. Metternich supported Great Britain in the affairs of Greece as against Russia. He succeeded in preventing Russia in the Near East. After that the Greek question was postponed. There was a revolt in Spain in 1820. France interfered in the affairs of Spain. But Canning, who succeeded Castlereagh strongly opposed this intervention. When France finally intervened in Spain, England withdrew from the concert. With the English withdrawal, the concert broke up. Canning recognized the independence of the Spanish Colonies to safeguard England's Commercial interests Luckily President. Munroe of America also supported his policy.

Causes of Failure of Concert of Europe

The failure of the concert of Europe was due to many causes.

1. The first and foremost cause was the principle of intervention. Great Britain sternly opposed this principle. It indirectly helped the cause of democracy and nationalism. She could not support autocracy.
2. Metternich's policy of suppressing liberalism was another cause for the failure of the concert.
3. Mutual jealousies arose among the powers from the very beginning. There was no internal harmony among the powers. This led to its failure.
4. There was lack of commonality of purpose of interest. The members differed from one another in political, commercial and constitutional outlook.
5. The concert lost its importance when it adopted the policy of military interference.

4.4.5 Impact of Metternich System on Europe

Metternich was the Central figure in Austrian and German Politics as well as in European tact. He was the most well known legislator item by Austria in nineteenth Century.

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- 1. Metternich and Germany:** Despite the desires and endeavors of the German nationalists a free confederation was made in Germany as that was the lone thing in light of a legitimate concern for Austria. The 39 Sovereign conditions of German confederation could be utilized by Austria to serve her own closures. Metternich looks bit of leeway of the envy of the more modest German states against Prussia. With a view highlight put a keep an eye on the exercises of the mystery social orders in Germany, the Carlsbad Decrees were established in 1819. Control was forced on the Press. The colleges were to be leveled out of state. A commission was set up to follow out the tricks and smash them. The nationalists needed to work under troublesome conditions. Because of the July Revolution in France, there was some turmoil in certain conditions of Germany however it was squashed by Metternich, yet his hold finished in 1848.
- 2. Metternich and Italy:** Metternich alluded to Italy as only a “geological articulation.” He got for Austria Lombardy and Venetia which were joined into the Austrian Empire. Individuals from the Habsburg imperial family were to be one the seats of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. In 1815, Metternich went into a mystery union by which Austria was to help the leader of Naples and Sicily in the event of need. In 1820, there was a revolt in Naples and its ruler spoke to Austria for help. The Austrian soldiers were shipped off Naples and the ruler was reestablished to supreme force. There was likewise a revolt in Piedmont in 1821 and Austrian soldiers on their way back from Naples squashed that too.
- 3. Metternich and Spain:** Ferdinand VII was reestablished in 1815. He followed a traditionalist approach and dropped the liberal constitution in 1812. In 1820, there was an insurgency in Spain and individuals requested the rebuilding of the constitution in 1812. Ferdinand professed to concur yet he related with the Great Powers to help him. The outcome was that the congress of Verona 1822 approved France to mediate in Spain and reestablish the Bourbon King. Metternich was glad when the French armed forces entered Spain and reestablished Ferdinand to supreme force.
- 4. Metternich and Russia:** The liberal thoughts of Czar I went through a change after 1815. In 1815, there was a progressive connivance among the officials of the body gatekeeper of Czar. On the event of the congress of Troppau of 1820, he announced freely that he was an adherent of Metternich. He alluded to him as his lord and requested that he provide him any order. From 1820 to 1825, Alexander was totally under impact of Metternich. It was because of this reality that Alexander didn’t go to the assistance of Greeks when the last rebelled against Turkish oppression.
- 5. Metternich and Eastern Question:** The Greeks revolted under the authority of Ypsilanti and they certainly anticipated assistance from Russia. Russia despised Turkey and might want to go to the assistance

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of the Greeks who proclaimed a similar religion. Despite the local area of interests, Alexander was swayed by Metternich to abandon Ypsilanti. The outcome was that the revolt was put somewhere near the Turks and Metternich had the joy of detaining Ypsilanti in Austria for a very long time. The Greeks additionally revolted in the Morea and the Aegean Islands in 1821. Metternich again won Alexander from the assistance. In any case, after the passing of Alexander I Czar – Nicholas went to the seat and rebelled against Metternich's force.

6. **Metternich and France:** In the wake of having achieved the fall of Napoleon, Metternich attempted to encompass France in an "Iron ring." With that object in view, Belgium and Holland were consolidated, the Rhineland was given to Prussia and Genoa was given to Piedmont. Metternich was additionally not ignorant of the way that the progressive thoughts had given from France which could be a difficult situation by and by. Notwithstanding, when France took care of the path reimbursement in 1818, it was chosen to pull out the associated multitude of occupation. France was acknowledged as an individual from the Quadruple Alliance, which was changed into the Quintuple Alliance. Metternich was wary when an insurgency occurred in France in 1830.
7. **Metternich and Great Britain:** Metternich helped out Great Britain in the basic undertaking of the oust of Napoleon. Be that as it may, contrasts emerged between the two nations on the topic of the privilege of one nation to meddle in the interior undertakings of different nations. Incredible Britain restricted French intercession in Spain and left the congress.
8. **Metternich and Austria:** In spite of the fact that Metternich with his conciliatory force attached numerous locales to Austria, still his strategies at home were to pulverize radicalism and patriotism. In spite of the fact that he was a finished ruler of Austria. He set up restriction of the press. A detailed arrangement of esponge was kept up all through the country. The colleges put leveled out of the public authority. Unfamiliar travel was debilitate and each exertion was made to isolate Austria from the remainder of Europe. Training was at a low level and neither industry nor trade created.

4.4.6 Fall of Metternich

The February Revolution of 1848 in France reached to Austria and Hungary. Metternich tried to use force against them, but army refused to do so. Then Metternich ran away in disguise to England and with it the Metternich system came to an end.

Metternich dominated the politics of Europe from 1815 to 1848 and no wonder we talk of the Metternich era. For a long time, he decided as to how events were to shape them in Europe. But unfortunately he fought a losing game. It was Austria's destiny that in its years of crisis it was guided by a man

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who epitomized its very essence, it was its destiny and not its good fortune, for a Greek tragedy, the success of Clemens Von Metternich made inevitable the ultimate collapse of the state he had fought so long to preserve. Like the State he represented, Metternich was a product of an age in the process of being transcended. He was against democracy, revolution and in favour of dictatorship. But he had to run away to England in 1848.

Check Your Progress

6. To which country did Metternich belong?
7. What was the aim of Metternich in Europe?

4.5 JULY REVOLUTION OF 1830

The July Revolution of 1830 was of great importance in the history of France. It brought about a change in the ruling dynasty. The Bourbons were replaced by the Orleanists. The monarchical system was continued in spite of the protests of the Republicans. Minor changes were made in the constitution of France which was embodied in the charter of 1814. The king was deprived of his power of making ordinances in times of emergency or otherwise. It is considered as a landmark in the history of France itself. The revolution influenced several countries of the continent in wrong ways. The Revolution of 1830 was essentially a middle class revolution but that of 1848 was essentially a socialist revolution. After 1850, the winds of liberalism were started flowing in Europe. It gave boost to the unification of Italy and Germany. It reached at its zenith stage with its unification in 1870.

4.5.1 Background

Louis XVIII (1814 to 1842)

After the abdication of Napoleon in 1814 and his departure for the Island of Elba, Louis XVIII was put on the throne of Europe. He was the brother of Louis XVI. At the time of his succession to the throne, he was 59. He was corpulent and gouty and was unable to sit on horseback. Both intellectually and by character, he was well qualified to be a king. He had a lot of commonsense and realized the fact from the very beginning that it was impossible to put the hands of the clock back. Like Charles II of England he was not prepared to go on his travels again and he stood for a policy of compromise and reconciliation.

The Charter of 1814

On 4 June, 1814, Louis XVIII issued a liberal charter. That was partly due to the influence of Czar Alexander I. This charter embodied the constitution of France up to 1848. Its preamble ran: 'It is our duty according to the example of the kings, our predecessors, to appreciate the results of the constantly increasing progress of enlightenment, the new relations that this progress has introduced into society, the direction impressed upon opinion for half a century, and the important alterations which have ensued we have recognized that the wish of

our subjects for a constitutional charter was the expression of a real need but in yielding to this wish we have taken every precaution that this charter should be worthy of us and of the people whom we have to rule.’

The king was to be head of the state and he was given the power of making all, appointments, issuing ordinances, declaring war, making treaties of peace, alliance and commerce, commanding the army and the navy and initiating and sanctioning laws. Provision was made for a legislature of two houses viz. a chamber of Peers and a chamber of Deputies. The chamber of Peers was to have a number of members who were to be nominated by the king either for life or as hereditary members. It was to sit in secret and also act as a High Court of Justice. It was to try impeachment of the ministers. The chamber of Deputies was to be elected by those persons who paid 300 Francs annually as direct taxes. Its tenure was five years and one-fifth of its members were to retire every year. It was to meet once a year. It could request the king to introduce legislation on a particular subject.

Importance of Charter

The importance of charter lies in the fact that it accepted the work of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic regime. This is clear from the recognition of personal equality, eligibility for office, religious toleration, the code Napoleon, the concordat, etc. The charter was also not inconsistent with the principle of the Divine Right of Kings. It was not imposed by the people on the King. On the other hand, it was given by the king to the people as a matter of grace. According to Chateaubriand, ‘The charter is a treaty of peace between two parties into which France has been divided, a treaty by which both parties yield some of their pretensions in order to work together for the glory of their country.’

Rise of Political Parties

Due to liberal charter of 1814, there was a rise of political parties in France.

- 1. Ultra Royalist Party:** The Ultra Royalist Party stood for absolutism and privileges. They wanted an alliance between the altar and the throne. They wanted the church to control education. They stood for censorship of the press and the restoration of the confiscated property of the nobles. Louis XVIII followed a policy of moderation and consequently did not pay any heed to the demands of the Ultra Royalists.
- 2. Liberal Party:** They demanded the right to vote and insisted on King should not take any decisions without consent of legislature.
- 3. Moderate Party:** With the help of the Liberals, the Moderate Royalists formed the government in the new chamber of Deputies. During their rule, France became prosperous and the army of occupation was withdrawn from the country. But the moderate Royalists along with the Liberals were discredited by the murder of Duke of Berry the successor to the France throne. Louis dissolved the chamber Public opinion became against the Liberals.

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4. **Republican Party:** This party was against monarchy and wanted to have Republic in France.
5. **Bonapartists Party:** Those who felt proud of Bonaparte dynasty, they founded this party. France became important country in the world only because of Bonaparte. Hence, the members of this party thought that it would be good to throne the successors of Bonaparte dynasty. This party was against Louis XVIII from the beginning.

White Terror

The Ultra-Royalists launched terrorism against their opponents in the nook and corner of France. It is known as 'White Terror'. It happened during the time of Louis. He, therefore, dissolved the chamber of Deputies. The elections were taken during this terror. Count of Artois of Ultra Royalist got majority in legislative. He was brother of Louis XVIII. Richelieu was made prime minister. He imprisoned many people. The Royalist mobs attacked the Bonaparte's. The Protestants were attacked by the Catholics. There were outrages and murders everywhere, and the movement was called by the name of "White Terror". It was in this atmosphere of intimidation and violence the elections were held and no wonder of the Royalists were able to sweep the polls. Talleyrand and Fouché were dismissed. Richelieu was made the head of the new ministry and his chief lieutenant was Decazes. The newly-elected chamber of Deputies showed itself 'more royalist than the King' and came to be known as the 'Chambre Introuvable' (1815-16). Although the king, his ministers and chamber of Peers stood for a policy of moderation, the chamber of Deputies under the leadership of Count of Artois, the brother of Louis XVIII, the brother of Louis XVIII, who became the King of France in 1824, demanded revenge against the enemies. Marshal Ney, 'the bravest of the brave,' was shot a traitor. Thousands of Bonapartes were imprisoned or exiled. Some of them were executed and many of them were dismissed from their posts. In September 1816, the chamber Introuvable was dissolved. Duke of Berry was murdered in 1820, who was Antois's son.

4.5.2 Causes of Revolution of 1830

Regime of Charles X (1824 to 1830)

Charles X, the successor of Louis XVIII was the strong supporter of old regime. He followed many reactionary policies against the people. His minister Polignac gave his whole hearted support for the same. During the reign of Louis XVIII, he was the leader of the Ultra-Royalists. He was a man of prejudices and convictions. It was said about him that he "had learnt nothing and forgotten nothing." He curbed the freedom of the press and awarded high posts to the nobles and the feudal lords. He compensated the nobles for the loss they had suffered during the French Revolution. He consulted clergymen for running the administration. The autocratic rule of Charles made the people disgusted with him. To suppress those liberals he conducted thrice the elections of the Chamber of Deputies but each time, he could not gain majority in the house. Hence, he appointed Prince de Polignac, a reactionary as his Prime

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minister. In spite of stiff opposition Polignac could stabilize his administration. But the four Repressive Ordinances passed by Charles X on July 25, 1830 precipitated the Revolution. By means of four ordinances, Charles X suspended the freedom of the press, dissolved the newly elected Chamber of Deputies, reduced the life of the legislature from seven years to five years and ordered new elections under a restricted franchise. This led to the revolution.

Villele

Villele continued to be the head of ministry up to 1827. As the press was opposed to the church policy of the king, it was decided to make the press a creature of the executive. No newspaper was to appear without the sanction of the King. The contents of the newspapers were to be censored by the government. The writer of any article or the designer of any illustration which outraged or turned into ridicule the religion of the state or which executed contempt or hatred of any class was to be published with a heavy fine or imprisonment for seven years. An attempt was made in 1827 to pass a new law by which the liberty of the press was to be completely ended. Although there was opposition from all quarters, the chamber of Deputies passed the law but the Government was forced to rescind it on account of the opposition from the chamber of peers.

In 1825, a law was passed to indemnify the Emigres for the loss of their lands during the days of the French Revolution. In 1827, the National Guard was disbanded. That was due to the fact that while returning from a review held by the King, the members of the National Guard shouted the slogans of 'Down with the ministers and 'Down with the Jesuits'.

Martignac

Villele was succeeded by Martignac who remained in the power from January 1828 to July 1829. He was a man of ability, moderation, and experience and he followed a policy of compromise. The Jesuits were deprived of their control over education. The censorship of the press was stopped. Franchise was extended in the provincial assemblies. A large measure of local self-government was proposed. The reactionaries were furious and Martignac resigned.

Polignac

The view of Charles X was the "Concessions ruined Louis XVI" and therefore he decided not to give any concession. Prince Polignac, a fanatical reactionary and an Émigré, was made the head of the ministry. He did not possess any majority in the chamber of Deputies. There was a lot of criticism of the government all over the country. However, Charles X addressed the chamber of Deputies in March 1830, "The charter has placed the liberties of France under the guarantee of the rights of the crown. These rights are sacred and it is my duty to hand them over intact to my successor." This speech of the king was considered to be a challenge to the people. Men like Themis came forward to resist the reactionary politics of the King. The Polignac ministry was defeated. To begin with, the king prorogued the Chamber of Deputies and later

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on dissolved it. New elections were held in June and July 1830, but their only result was that the opposition was strengthened. The vote of confidence motion was put forth on 18 March and passed with 221 votes. Still instead of dismissing the cabinet, King dissolved the legislature.

July Ordinance

The ordinances were issued by Charles X on 25th July, 1830, and attached the following explanation. “A turbulent democracy is endeavouring to supplant the legal authorities. It dominates the elections by means of newspapers and associations; it endeavours to fetter the rights of the crown and to dissolve the chamber. A government that has not the right to take measures for the state cannot exist. That right, older than the laws, exists in the nature of things. An imperative necessity demands its application; the moments of legislation, are undoubtedly in accord with the charter.” By means of four ordinances, Charles X suspended the freedom of the press, dissolved and newly elected Chamber of Deputies, reduced the life of the legislature from seven years to five years.

The ordinances were a challenge to the people and it was accepted by them. Barricades were constructed in the streets but they were demolished by the government. However, the National Guard and the regular troops joined the people, who became the masters of Paris on 29 July, 1830. Charles X abdicated in favour of his grandson, Henry, Duke of Bordeaux, better known as count of chamber. However, nobody bothered about him and consequently Charles X and his family left for England. It was in these circumstances that the July Revolution took place in France in 1830.

The atmosphere in France was intense due to ordinances. The people of France revolted against it. The people shouted the slogans of “Down with the Ministers” and “Down with the Jesuits.” On 28th July 1830 civil war started in France. It lasted for three days, military refused firing because the rebels were not more than 100 and soldiers were 14,000 in numbers. On 31 July, 1830, Charles X ran away from France to England and died in 1836 in Austria.

4.5.3 Importance of July Revolution

The July Revolution of 1830 was of great importance in the history of France. It brought about a change in the ruling dynasty.

- The Bourbons were replaced by the Orleanists. The monarchical system was continued in spite of the protests of the Republicans. Minor changes were made in the constitution of France which was embodied in the charter of 1814.
- The king was deprived of his power of making ordinances in times of emergency or otherwise. The chambers were given the power to initiate laws. Catholicism was to be the official religion of France.
- The freedom of the press was restored. The franchise was extended. The king was to rule by the will of the people and not by Divine right. He was to be known as the ‘King of the French’.

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- The revolution of 1830 was the complement of the Revolution of 1789. It granted equality, liberty, secularization of property etc. The charter of 1814 became the right of the nation and not the free gift of the king who was forced to do so. Those tax-payers who could pay for their uniforms were to form the National Guard which was to maintain the charter.
- The July Revolution of 1830 spread to other parts of Europe where some minor revolutions broke out. Particularly in Italy and Germany minor revolutions broke out immediately
- According to Prof. Lipson, ‘The task of the French Revolution of 1789 which remained incomplete hitherto was now completed by this Revolution. Now the fundamentals of the revolutionary ideology, equality, and secularism and constitutional liberty became secure forever.’

4.5.4 Impact on Europe

1. **Belgium Revolution:** Vienna congress annexed Belgium with Holland and made Netherlands. But the people of Belgium started war and declared free Belgium on Oct. 4, 1830.
2. **Mutiny in Germany:** The mutiny in north Germany states like Saxony Hanover took place and passed liberal constitution.
3. **Impact on Italy:** Vienna Congress impaired Italy without and logical division. People rebelled in Parma, Modena and Pope reigns. Initially, Metternich suppressed this idea with the help of military.
4. **Movement in Spain:** There was a dispute between Ferdinand VII’s daughter Isabel and her uncle Don Carlos over throne. France, Portugal and Britain supported Isabel while clergymen and lords went with Carlos. Isabella won in the end and announced democracy in Spain.
5. **Portugal:** ‘Like Spain, In Portugal also dispute regarding power between Maria daughter of Pedro-I and her uncle Doi Miguel. France and Britain supported Maria and she came into power.’
6. **Poland:** Vienna Congress had given Poland to Russia. Though Russian Empire Alexander I had liberal regime and constitution. Still, Poland wanted freedom. Nicholas, in 1825, became emperor of Russia, who was very cruel. In 1830 Polish rebelled against him. But European nations did not support Poland.

Check Your Progress

8. What was July revolution?
9. What was July Ordinance?

4.6 REVOLUTION OF 1848

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The February Revolution of 1848 has its own importance in the history of Europe. It lighted the bacon fires of liberty throughout Europe. The French Revolution had given new life to the people. And there would be not a day, when the revolution was not seen in country of Europe in that year. This year, the people revolted in Germany, France, Italy and Austria against the despotic rule of the monarchs. The people of Rome, Ireland, Holland were not spared with the revolution. It has called the year of Revolution. The Revolutions broke out from Baltic to Mediterranean, from France to Russian countries. The Revolution of 1848 was a signal for the energetic nations. It also established a republic in France.

4.6.1 Background

Louis Philipe

Louis Philipe came to the throne of France after the July Revolution of 1830. He actively participated in the revolutionary wars of France against Austria and Prussia in 1789. He was a man of liberal ideas. He, therefore, called himself the 'Citizen King' – instead of the 'king of France'. He wanted to show that he owed his existence to the will of the people. Louis Philipe led a very simple and humble life. He avoided ostentations and affectations of Royalty. In order to gain public support, he walked the Paris streets to do the shopping himself and sent children to the ordinary schools. Therefore, he was called the 'Citizen King'.

Philipe tried to please various parties of France. This was his 'golden mean' to rule the country. He did not want to become either autocratic or democratic. Louis Philipe did not command public confidence. He did not get the support of the majority groups of the country. The legitimists were dissatisfied with the king and accused him of usurping the claims of the Bourbons. The Republicans also disliked him; the Bonapartists too were dissatisfied with the king due to his foreign policy. His government was considered as undemocratic. Louis Philipe ruled for 18 years and middleclass remained supreme during his regime. He was called the 'Citizen King'. He took certain steps to ensure that he lived like middle class people. He gave up the symbols of the ancient monarchy. The crown and the sceptre were set aside. He began to use a white tall hat and green umbrella. He was to 'reign but not to rule'. He sent his children to the ordinary schools and went to the streets to do the shopping himself. He gave up the title of 'King of France' and took up the title of 'King of the French'.

Home Policy of Philipe

The Orleans ruled for eighteen years. The conduct of Louis Philipe was not calculated to conciliate public opinion. He had two Prime ministers, Casimir-Perier and other was Ghizot who was the main and worked him. Lafitte (1830-31), Casimir Perier (1831-32), Sout (1832-1836), Thiers (1836-1840), Ghizot

(1840 to 1848). He abolished the restrictions of wealth for the eligibility of franchise.

1. He restored the freedom of the press.
2. He gave more rights to the people.
3. He boosted the national trade.
4. He encouraged various arts and crafts in his country.
5. He improved education and made it compulsory up to 12 years children.
6. He reduced the working hours in factories and mills.

In spite of his reforms, he failed miserably because of his conservative and reactionary minister Guizot. He ran the Government by means of political corruption. At this juncture a reform party led by Thiers demanded extension of the suffrage, limitations of the royal power and faithful implementation of the principle that 'the king reigns but does not govern.' But Guizot refused to accept this demand. At this critical moment of the socialists under Louis Blanc demanded some Liberal reforms.

Oppose to Louis Philipe

1. **The party of Legitimists:** This party demanded that the Duke of Bordo of Burbon dynasty should get the throne. They had very less followers. They rebelled against king but he easily suppressed it.
2. **Progressive Party:** They were in favour of the economic and social progress in France; but not influential.
3. **Conservative Party:** They thought that the king should not encourage democratic principles. They felt that king should make kingship strong and powerful.
4. **Republican Party:** They wanted to establish France as a Republic party after 1830. The revolutionary Lafayat initially gave support to Louis Philippe. But they got frustration due to Louis's conservative policies. The split between these two started.
5. **Bonapartist:** This was the party of those people who had pride of Bonaparte. They always demanded that the king should be from Bonaparte dynasty. But they could not make any impact.

Foreign Policy of Louis Philipe

The people of France were not satisfied with the foreign policy of Louis Philipe. The desire of the people was to raise the honour and glory of the country. But he could not do so. The France was facing instability in ministry. From 1830 to 1840, those ministers were changed. One of ministers said that, 'What have they done for the last seven years, Nothing, Nothing, Nothing', 'France is bored' said Lamartine. Louis Philips reign was really unfortunate to France, but it was not without benefits to Europe. The French people that the king should interfere in the matters of the oppressed nationality. The French people were ready to fight war, and they were remembering the old monarchical forms to

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kindle the flame of revolution out side France. On the whole, Louis Philippe followed a policy of peace in foreign affairs. Louis Philippe concluded the First Entente Cordiale with England thereby ending a long period of rivalry and enmity between the two countries. But there was difference of opinion between the two countries. But there was difference of opinion between Louis Philippe and Palmerston. He ignored Louis Philippe in the settlement of Eastern Question. He refused to go to the help of the Italian and Polish revolutionaries. It greatly lowered his prestige before the public eye. He was very timid and poor in this foreign policy. Hence, People began clamouring for his removal.

1. **Belgium:** He was to solve the problem of Belgium. France was ready to support the independence to Belgium. He sent his army to Belgium. They declared the son of Louis to become the king of Belgium. But the foreign minister of England Palmerston was not prepared for it. He drew the army to keep the good terms with England.
2. **Partugal:** Maria was deposed by her uncle Mignel. In 1831, Petro abdicated the throne of Brazil. He came to Portugal as head of liberal movement tooust Mignel. Civil war was seen. France, England and Spain supported Petro. In 1834, Maria was restored.
3. **Spain:** Isabella, was the daughter of Ferdinand VII of Spain. She was made regent with her mother. Ferdinand's brother did not like it. Civil war was seen here. France supported liberals, which French people did not like. At that time of the marriage of Isabella's sister, Louis Philippe wanted to propose, French Prince, to make the tie strong with Spain. But England objected. It was the matter of again conflict with England. War did not follow, but hostility did and Louis Philippe had lost a good friend. Though, some memorable epoch in history happened in 1845, between the two countries as Royal visit took place.
4. **Eastern Questions:** France had much interest in Egypt. And the Pasa Mehmata Ali was increasing commerce and trade navy and army with the help of France experts. In 1839, Mehmata Ali declared war with Turkey, France helped it. But this could not be done; as the Treaty of London of 1840 was done. Poland and Italy were no revolutionary as France, anything were fighting for national independence, and not a democracy. Italy had made revolution, but she was also making nation. Italy and Germany succeeded. But France was weak and produced no new ideas for the country. It was ripe for another revolution in 1848 of course, Louis Philippe's interest was seen, and that he married his daughter with king Leopold I of Belgium, and other to the King of Warttemberg. He married his son to the sister of Isabella of Spain.

The end of his rule – No one was the supporter of the king. Had he worked well, then the throne must be in his hands for more than 18 years. He created a gap between the ruler and the ruled. France was sleeping on a volcano, during his rule. He left the throne in 1848, which ended his rule.

Rise and Development of Socialism

There was an intellectual beginning of socialistic movement. Robert Owen (1771-1858) was the founder of English Socialism. Saint Simon was the founder of French Socialism. His work brought a social change in the pattern of society. Louis Blanc was another advocate of socialism. He advocated that state should be run by democratic process. Labour is according to the capacity and reward according to services. He demanded that the state must guarantee a living wage to all the workers. A socialist party was formed in France.

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4.6.2 Causes of February Revolution of 1848

The French Revolution of 1848 has its own significance. It happened due to political and economic causes.

- 1. Political Parties in France:** There were four political parties in France. Louis Philippe was supported by one-party. The Legitimists, Bonapartists and Republicans, Constitutionalists, Legitimists supported the Bourbons. Bonapartist advised glory of France, had no sympathy with Louis. Only constitutionalists liked his policies. All were not willing to cooperate with the king.
- 2. Parliamentary History of France:** The Parliamentary history of France during this period from 1830-40 shows the signs of instability. This hindered the work of the King. It showed the lack of cooperation of people and government.
- 3. The Liberals in France:** Louis Philippe did not know the pulse of the people. He did not like the activities of the liberals, and he did not cooperate with them. He also did not give them share in the work of government.
- 4. The Franchise System:** The people wanted liberal franchise system in France. They demanded the lower qualifications for property. The king did not hear them. The king was guided by his ministers, who did not give him the proper suggestions. For the popular demands of the people, king remained silent.
- 5. No Reforms in France:** The home policy of the king was dull. He could not win the hearts of the people. He never gave them any nice reforms. The repressive and narrow policy of the king became the cause for revolt and revolution.
- 6. Weak Foreign Policy:** The Foreign policy of Louis Philippe had shown no ambition of the people. The French people were always after the glories of their Empire, and foreign conquest. Heranshaw says that "France ceased to count in the affairs of Europe and French nation was bored, and humiliated by the inactivity of the government."
- 7. Economic Causes:** The industrial revolution had given the problems of unemployment and other labour problems Socialism raised. The king always supported capitalists and showed no sympathy for labours. The theories of Fourier, St. Simon and Louis Blanc stirred people. But

king Louis Philippe refused do anything for them. Then republicans and the socialists joined together. But still the king was sleeping.

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4.6.3 Significance of Revolution of 1848

According to E. Lipson, the Revolution of 1848 invites comparison with the earlier movements. The earlier movements were engineered against Louis XVI and Charles X. First revolution was directed arbitrary monarchy, second against aristocratic privilege, and third against middleclass government, in other words legal equality was established in 1789, social equality in 1830 and political equality in 1848.

Impact on Europe

February Revolution of 1848 had widespread repercussions in Europe. The Austrian states in the Northern Italy (Milan and Venetia) revolted under Charles Albert but failed. The German states also revolted but the delay at Frankfurt parliament caused their future. The Austrian revolts failed for they were mutually hostile. In Switzerland liberal constitution was gained by the patriots. In Holland the autocratic rule of William II was ended. The Chartist movement was further intensified by the French Revolution. The people had to fight more from 1815 to 1848 for their democracy and independence. They wanted to achieve their goals, but they were not successful. The theory of the sovereignty of people had to be there in place of the Divine Right Theory. The devices like Holy Alliance, Vienna Congress, concert of Europe, were short systems. The Metternich system and other forces were only temporary measures. The time was going fast. The revolutions of 1830 and 1841 were the real legacies for the people of Europe that inspired great moral force in the people for the national struggle.

4.6.4 Comparison between the Revolution of 1830 and 1848

1. The Revolution of 1830 was essentially and middle class revolution; but that of 1848 was essentially a socialist revolution.
2. The Revolution of 1830 broke out as a protest against the reactionary policies of Charles X of France.
3. The uncompromising character of Charles X was responsible for the July Revolution; the unpopularity of Louis Philippe was responsible for Revolution.
4. The July Revolution was democratic in character; the February Revolution was purely nationalist in Character.
5. The July Revolution stood for constitutional government; but the February Revolution of 1848 stood for nationalistic government.
6. The July Revolution put another Bourbon King on the throne that of 1848 established a republic.
7. The promise of right to vote was given in July 1830 and the February Revolution 1848, the actually right to vote practiced.

8. The Revolution of 1830 overthrew the divine right monarchy, but that of 1848 uprooted the middle class limited monarchy and set up a republic which lasted for 4 years.

The February Revolution of 1848 has its own importance in the history of Europe. It lighted the bacon fires of liberty throughout Europe. The French Revolution had given new life to the people. And there would be not a day, when the revolution was not seen in country of Europe in that year. The Revolutions broke out from Baltic to Mediterranean, from France to Russian countries. The Revolution of 1848 was a signal for the energetic nations. It also established a republic in France.

Check Your Progress

10. Who came to the throne of France after the July Revolution of 1830?
11. Why was Louise Philipe called the 'Citizen King'?

4.7 EASTERN QUESTION UP TO CRIMEAN WAR

The Eastern Question was the issue of the political and financial precariousness in the Ottoman Empire from the late eighteenth to mid twentieth hundreds of years and the resulting key rivalry and political contemplations of the European Great forces considering this. Portrayed as the “debilitated man of Europe”, the general debilitating of the domain’s military strength in the second 50% of the eighteenth century took steps to subvert the delicate overall influence framework to a great extent molded by the Concert of Europe. The Eastern Question incorporated heap interrelated components: Ottoman military thrashings, Ottoman institutional bankruptcy, the progressing Ottoman political and financial modernization program, the ascent of ethno-strict patriotism in its areas, and Great Power competitions.

While there is no particular date on which the Eastern Question started, the Russo-Turkish War (1828–29) carried the issue to the consideration of the European forces, Russia and Britain specifically. As the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire was accepted to be unavoidable, the European forces occupied with a force battle to defend their military, key and business interests in the Ottoman spaces. Royal Russia remained to profit by the decay of the Ottoman Empire; then again, Austria-Hungary and Great Britain considered the conservation of the Empire to be to their greatest advantage. The Eastern Question was settled after the First World War, one of the results of which was the breakdown and division of the Ottoman property.

4.7.1 Background

The Eastern Question arose as the force of the Ottoman Empire started to decrease during the eighteenth century. The Ottomans were at the stature of their influence in 1683, when they lost the Battle of Vienna to the consolidated

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powers of the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth and Austria, under the order of John III Sobieski. Harmony was made a lot later, in 1699, with the Treaty of Karlowitz, which constrained the Ottoman Empire to surrender a significant number of its Central European belongings, including those parts of Hungary which it had involved. Its toward the west extension captured, the Ottoman Empire never again represented a genuine danger to Austria, which turned into the prevailing force in its district of Europe. The Eastern Question didn't really create until the Russo-Turkish Wars of the eighteenth century.

4.7.2 Napoleonic Era

The Napoleonic period (1799–1815) carried some help to the wavering Ottoman Empire. It diverted Russia from additional advances. Napoleon attacked Egypt yet his military was caught there when the British conclusively vanquished the French armada at Aboukir Bay. A harmony recess in 1803 permitted the military to get back to France.

To get his own mastery and to deliver the remainder of Europe essentially frail, Napoleon set up a collusion with Russia by finishing up the Treaty of Tilsit in 1807. Russia vowed to give help to Napoleon in his battle against Britain; thusly, the Emperor of Russia would get the Ottoman domains of Moldavia and Wallachia. On the off chance that the Sultan would not acquiescence these regions, France and Russia were to assault the Empire, and the Ottoman spaces in Europe were to be divided between the two partners.

The Napoleonic plan undermined the Sultan, yet in addition Britain, Austria and Prussia, which was practically feeble even with a particularly intense partnership. The partnership normally demonstrated obliging to the Austrians, who trusted that a joint Franco-Russian assault, which would most likely have totally crushed the Ottoman Empire, could be forestalled by tact; yet on the off chance that political estimates fizzled, the Austrian clergyman Klemens von Metternich concluded that he would uphold the parcel of the Ottoman Empire—an answer disadvantageous to Austria, yet not as hazardous as a total Russian takeover of Southeastern Europe.

An assault on the Empire, notwithstanding, didn't happen, and the union finished up at Tilsit was broken down by the French intrusion of Russia in 1812. Following Napoleon's annihilation by the Great Powers in 1815, delegates of the victors met at the Congress of Vienna, yet neglected to make any move identifying with the regional trustworthiness of the rotting Ottoman Empire. This oversight, along with the prohibition of the Sultan from the Holy Alliance, was deciphered by numerous individuals as strong of the position that the Eastern Question was a Russian homegrown issue that didn't concern some other European countries.

4.7.3 Serbian Revolution

The Serbian upset or Revolutionary Serbia alludes to the public and social upheaval of the Serbian individuals somewhere in the range of 1804 and 1815, during which Serbia figured out how to completely liberate itself from the

Ottoman Empire and exist as a sovereign European country state, and a last period (1815–1833), set apart by extraordinary exchanges among Belgrade and Ottoman Empire. The term was imagined by a celebrated German student of history, Leopold von Ranke, in his book *Die Serbische Revolution*, distributed in 1829. These occasions denoted the establishment of current Serbia. While the primary period of the transformation (1804–1815) was truth be told a battle of freedom, the subsequent stage (1815–1833) brought about true acknowledgment of a suzerain Serbian state by the Porte (the Ottoman government), accordingly carrying the upheaval to its end.

The transformation occurred by stages: the First Serbian Uprising (1804–13), drove by Karađorđe Petrović; Hadži Prodan's revolt (1814); the Second Serbian Uprising (1815) under Miloš Obrenović; and official acknowledgment of the Serbian state (1815–1833) by the Porte.

The Proclamation (1809) by Karađorđe in the capital Belgrade addressed the pinnacle of the insurgency. It called for solidarity of the Serbian country, underscoring the significance of opportunity of religion, Serbian history and formal, composed guidelines of law, all of which it asserted the Ottoman Empire had neglected to give. It additionally approached Serbs to quit paying the *jizya* duty to the Porte.

A definitive consequence of the uprisings was Serbia's suzerainty from the Ottoman Empire. The Principality of Serbia was set up, represented by its own Parliament, Government, Constitution and its own illustrious line. Social component of the unrest was accomplished through presentation of the common society esteems in Serbia, which is the reason it was viewed as the world's easternmost average revolt, which finished with the abrogation of feudalism in 1806. The foundation of the first constitution in quite a while in 1835 (later annulled) and the establishing in 1808 of its first college, Belgrade's Great Academy, added to the accomplishments of the youthful Serb state. By 1833, Serbia was authoritatively perceived as a feeder to the Ottoman Empire and in that capacity, recognized as a herary government. Full autonomy of the Principality was globally perceived during the second 50% of the nineteenth century.

4.7.4 Greek Revolt

The Eastern Question by and by turned into a significant European issue when the Greeks pronounced autonomy from the Sultan in 1821. It was at about this time that the expression "Eastern Question" was authored. Since the time the annihilation of Napoleon in 1815, there had been gossip tidbits that the Emperor of Russia looked to attack the Ottoman Empire, and the Greek Revolt appeared to make an intrusion considerably more probable. The British unfamiliar clergyman, Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh, just as the Austrian unfamiliar pastor, Metternich, advised the Emperor of Russia, Alexander I, not to enter the war. All things being equal, they argued that he keep up the Concert of Europe (the soul of expansive cooperation in Europe which had continued since Napoleon's thrashing). A longing for quiet co-activity was likewise held by Alexander I, who had established the Holy

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Alliance. Instead of quickly settling the Eastern Question by supporting the Greeks and assaulting the Ottomans, Alexander faltered, at last neglecting to make any conclusive move.

Alexander's passing in 1825 carried Nicholas I to the Imperial Throne of Russia. Concluding that he would at this point don't endure exchanges and meetings, he decided to mediate in Greece. England likewise before long got included, with its intercession persuaded to a limited extent by the craving to keep the youthful Greek state from turning into a completely Russian vassal. The soul of sentimentalism that at that point overwhelmed Western European social life additionally made help for Greek autonomy politically practical. France too adjusted itself to the Greeks, yet Austria (actually stressed over Russian extension) didn't. Shocked by the obstruction of the Great Powers, the Ottoman Sultan, Mahmud II, upbraided Russia as a foe of Islam, inciting Russia to pronounce battle in 1828. A frightened Austria tried to shape an enemy of Russian alliance, however its endeavors were to no end.

As the war proceeded into 1829, Russia acquired a firm bit of leeway over the Ottoman Empire. By drawing out threats further, notwithstanding, Russia would have welcomed Austria to enter the battle against her and would have brought about significant doubt in Britain. Hence, for the Russians to proceed with the battle in order to destroy the Ottoman Empire would have been futile. At this stage, the King of France, Charles X, proposed the parcel of the Ottoman Empire among Austria, Russia and others, yet his plan was introduced too belatedly to deliver an outcome.

Consequently, Russia had the option to get neither a definitive annihilation nor a segment of the Ottoman Empire. It picked, be that as it may, to embrace the strategy of debasing the Ottoman Empire to a simple reliance. In 1829, the Emperor of Russia finished up the Treaty of Adrianople with the Sultan; his domain was an allowed extra area along the Black Sea, Russian business vessels were conceded admittance to the Dardanelles, and the business privileges of Russians in the Ottoman Empire were improved. The Greek War of Independence was ended presently, as Greece was conceded freedom by the Treaty of Constantinople in 1832.

4.7.5 Muhammad Ali of Egypt

Similarly, as the Greek Revolt was reaching a conclusion, the Egyptian–Ottoman War (1831–1833) broke out in the Ottoman Empire between the Sultan and his ostensible emissary in Egypt, Muhammad Ali. The advanced and very much prepared Egyptians looked like they could vanquish the domain. The Tsar of Russia, with regards to his strategy of lessening the Ottoman Sultan to a negligible vassal, offered to frame a collusion with the Sultan. In 1833, the two rulers arranged the Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi, in which Russia got total strength over the Ottomans. The Russians swore to shield the Empire from outer assaults; thus, the Sultan vowed to close the Dardanelles to warships at whatever point Russia was at war. This arrangement of the Treaty raised an issue known as the “Waterways Question”. The arrangement accommodated the conclusion for all warships, yet numerous European legislators erroneously

accepted that the condition permitted Russian vessels. England and France were enraged by the confounded statement; they likewise looked to contain Russian expansionism. The two realms, notwithstanding, varied on the best way to accomplish their goal; the British wished to maintain the Sultan, yet the French liked to make Muhammad Ali (whom they saw as more skilled) the leader of the whole Ottoman Empire. Russian mediation drove the Sultan to arrange a harmony with Muhammad Ali in 1833, yet war broke out by and by in 1839.

Ruler Mahmud II passed on the very year, leaving the Ottoman Empire to his child Abdulmejid I in a basic express: the Ottoman armed force had been altogether crushed by the powers of Muhammad Ali. Another calamity followed when the whole Turkish armada was seized by the Egyptian powers. Incredible Britain and Russia presently interceded to forestall the breakdown of the Ottoman Empire, however France actually kept on supporting Muhammad Ali. In 1840, be that as it may, the Great Powers consented to bargain; Muhammad Ali consented to make an ostensible demonstration of accommodation to the Sultan, yet was allowed herary control of Egypt.

The lone uncertain issue of the time frame was the Straits Question. In 1841, Russia assented to the repeal of the Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi by tolerating the London Straits Convention. The Great Powers — Russia, Britain, France, Austria and Prussia — consented to the re-foundation of the “old guideline” of the Ottoman Empire, which given that the Turkish waterways would be shut to all warships at all, except for the Sultan’s partners during wartime. With the Straits Convention, the Russian Emperor Nicholas I deserted decreasing the Sultan to a condition of reliance, and got back to the arrangement of apportioning Ottoman domains in Europe.

In this way, after the goal of the Egyptian battle which had started in 1831, the feeble Ottoman Empire was not, at this point completely subject to Russia however was reliant on the Great Powers for insurance. Endeavors at interior change neglected to end the decay of the Empire. By the 1840s, the Ottoman Empire had gotten the “wiped out man of Europe”, and its possible disintegration seemed inescapable.

4.7.6 Revolutions of 1848

After the Great Powers reached a compromise to end the revolt of Mehmet Ali, the Eastern Question lay dormant for about a decade until revived by the Revolutions of 1848. Although Russia could have seized the opportunity to attack the Ottoman Empire—France and Austria were at the time occupied by their own insurrections—it chose not to. Instead, Emperor Nicholas committed his troops to the defence of Austria, hoping to establish goodwill to allow him to seize Ottoman possessions in Europe later.

After the Austrian Revolution was suppressed, an Austro-Russian war against the Ottoman Empire seemed imminent. The Emperors of both Austria and Russia demanded that the Sultan return Austrian rebels who had sought asylum in the Empire, but he refused. The indignant monarchs withdrew their

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ambassadors to the Sublime Porte, threatening armed conflict. Almost immediately, however, Britain and France sent their fleets to protect the Ottoman Empire. The two Emperors, deeming military hostilities futile, withdrew their demands for the surrender of the fugitives. The short crisis created a closer relationship between Britain and France, which led to a joint war against Russia in the Crimean War of 1853–56.

4.7.7 Crimean War

The Crimean War (1854–1856) was fought between Imperial Russia on one side and an alliance of France, England, Kingdom of Sardinia and the Ottoman Empire on the other. Most of the conflict took place on the Crimean Peninsula, with additional actions occurring in western Turkey, the Baltic Sea region, and in the Russian Far East. The allies objected to expanding Russian power in the Black Sea area and to the seizing of land from the Ottoman Empire. Russia was defeated in 1856. The Crimean War is sometimes considered to be the first modern conflict and introduced technical changes which affected the future course of European history.

Background of the Conflict

The roots of the conflict among the European Powers lay in the Eastern Question posed by the decline of the Ottoman Empire, a development which had explosive implications for the European balance of power. From the late eighteenth century, Russia had become increasingly eager to take advantage of this situation to increase her influence in the Balkans and to capture from the Turks control of the straits of Bosphorus and Dardanelles between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. Following their victory in the Russo-Turkish War (1828-1829) and especially after the Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi (1833), the Russians moved towards the establishment of a unilateral protectorate over the Ottoman Empire. England and France viewed the possibility of Russian control of the straits of Bosphorus and Dardanelles as a threat to their own interests in the Middle East, and many in those countries despised Russia as the despotic enemy of liberalism. Austria too, despite a long tradition of diplomatic cooperation with Russia, was uneasy about growing Russian influence in the Balkans. In 1841, the European powers and the Ottoman Empire managed to replace the Unkiar-Skelessi agreement with a general European protectorate.

Causes of The Crimean War

- 1. Condition of the Balkan Peninsula:** Like some other battles, there were numerous unique foundations for the Crimean War. Yet, of every one of these causes the state of the Balkan Peninsula was the most significant. The Turkish force had reached out over the entire of the Balkan Peninsula except for the free Kingdom of Greece. Few even among European representatives of that period had any away from of the organization of races and religions and dialects that topped off the promontory. The Turkish principle was not purposefully pitiless, nor quite aside from when its position was hazardously tested. The Turks were wherever on the landmass minimal in excess of a post

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of occupation, keeping up, not adequately, such a request, increasing government rates and for the rest releasing the subject populace their own specific manner and follow their own thoughts in public activity and religion. Notwithstanding, without question the Turkish force was becoming more fragile, less compelling militarily, and more bad. The Ottoman Empire was little affected by the advancement of science and industry which had so changed the personality of Western Europe. With respect to political freedom and the investment of individuals in the organization of the public authority, it had a profound situated revultion.

As the Ottoman Empire developed more vulnerable, the subject identities and religions developed more self affirming. The Greeks had just split away and set up a free force. Their model roused other subject ethnicities in the Balkan Peninsula. Past the Danube, in the Principalities of Moldavia and Walachia, there was a huge proportion of self-government because of different arrangements and settlements. Other subject individuals as the Rumanians were anxious to get more concessions from the Sultan. The Serbians who were aware of their superb past were disappointed with the extensive measure of self-government which they had just won.

The Montenegrins actually kept up their reasonable autonomy behind their mountain strongholds. The Bulgarians, Albanians, and Macedonians were not really aware of their different presence. In any case, their territories were loaded with aggravations coming about because of a feeling of the distinctions what isolated them from their rulers. Religion was one of the significant components that kept the Balkan Peninsula in mature. There were numerous Muslims among the vanquished people groups; yet the standard or Greek type of Christianity continued among a large portion of individuals of the promontory. The Tsar of Russia was perceived as the top of the Orthodox Church. Religion in the Balkan Peninsula would in general accept a solid political character.

- 2. Fear of Austria About Russian Advance in the Balkans:** The condition in the Balkan Peninsula was obviously unstable. There was apprehension among the European Powers that a revolution might take place in any part of the Balkan Peninsula at any time, which would upset the Balance of Power. Thus, the European Powers to the north of the Danube watched events in the Ottoman Empire with anxiety in which ambition and fear both played an important part. The Austrian Empire owed its origin to the necessity of barring the way against the invasions of the Ottoman Empire and its very existence was closely bound up with the resistance to the Turkish Power. However, with the growing weakness of the Ottoman Empire, Austria was no longer apprehensive of the Turkish Power. But the fear of the power which might take Turkey's place in the Balkan Peninsula began to worry the Austrian Empire. Austria desired influence, if not

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territory in the Balkan Peninsula, and she feared the designs and ambitions of Russia.

- 3. Russia's Claim to Protect the Orthodox Christians:** The apprehension of the Austrian Empire regarding the ambitions of Russia in the Balkans was justified due to the fact that Russia was a great Slav state, and the majority of the population of the Balkans spoke Slavonic languages. Besides, Russia had religious grounds for interference on behalf of the members of the Orthodox Church. Russia also claimed that she possessed treaty rights of interference as well. It was a constant matter of dispute as to how far these rights were extended. In the Treaty of Kutchuk Kainarji, which was drawn up in 1774 between Russia and Turkey, there were two clauses which contained the seeds of controversy. By one article (14) Russia was allowed to build a Christian Church in Galata, a part of Constantinople and to keep it always under her protection. By another article (7) Turkey promised to protect the Christian Church and religion within her dominions and to allow the Russian Ambassadors to make representations on behalf of the Church in Galata. On the ground of these articles the Russians claimed a right to represent and protect the Christian communities of the Balkans. This would have meant a perpetual danger of interference. The Ottoman Empire had never admitted this right claimed by Russia.
- 4. Tsar's Proposals to England:** Tsar Nicholas I was certain that any Russian move in the Balkan Peninsula would attract the opposition from England. Thus, he was keen to draw England into a plan of territorial adjustment in the region in consultation with England. Thus, in January 1853, Tsar Nicholas I tried to get an understanding with England about the position of Turkey and to prevent a rapprochement between England and France. The Tsar had a conversation with the English Ambassador to Russia, Sir Hamilton Seymour. The Tsar was an old friend of Lord Aberdeen, the English Prime Minister. The Tsar spoke of Turkey as a country that seemed to be falling to pieces. 'The Turk was, he said, a very sick man' who might suddenly die on their hands. It was very important to make up their minds as to what should be done with his territories before that even occurred. He suggested that England and Russia could settle the issue without war. Then the Tsar hinted plainly at the settlement that he desired. The Balkan states were to be independent under Russian protection. Russia was to occupy Constantinople but not to annex it. England could have Egypt and Crete. Thus, the Tsar suggested the partition of the Turkish territories between England and Russia with France left out of the deal. However, England showed no inclination to accept the proposals of the Tsar. The maintenance of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire was the traditional British policy and there was no desire to abandon it.
- 5. Napoleon III's Grudge Against the Tsar:** Napoleon III of France had his own personal grudge against the Tsar, Nicholas I. He felt

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insulted when the Tsar addressed him as ‘friend’ rather than the courteous form ‘brother.’ The Tsar’s tariffs had irked the French businessmen, his religious intolerance had irritated the Catholics and his suppression of Polish uprising had angered the French liberals. Thus, in order to win support of various sections of the French population, Napoleon III wanted to have a showdown with the Tsar.

- 6. Immediate Cause - The Question of the Holy Places:** The Franco-Russian dispute over the holy places in Palestine was the immediate cause of the Crimean War. The question of the Holy Places concerned the management of the places of pilgrimages at Jerusalem and especially the Church of the Nativity at Bethlehem. The Turkish government kept order between the rival claims of the Latins or Roman Catholics and the Orthodox or Greek and Russian Christians. The French government had a traditional right, running back to the times of the Crusades, to be considered the protector of the Christians in the East. However, since the development of the power of Russia, the Tsars had begun to put forward their own claims. Genuine religious feelings came to strengthen national rivalries and political ambitions.

France’s interest in Palestine had been stimulated by a domestic crisis in 1840-1841. Napoleon III pushed it because he relied on the support of militant clerical groups in France. In 1850 Napoleon III requested the restoration to the French Catholics of the rights that France had acquired from Turkey by a treaty in 1740. This meant that the French wanted the key to the Church of the Nativity in the old city of Jerusalem and the right to place a silver star on Christ’s birthplace in Bethlehem.

The manifestation of the rivalry and conflict between the Roman Catholic and Orthodox monks over the control of the Holy Places was possession of the keys of the main door of the Church of the Nativity at Bethlehem. Up to the middle of the 18th century, the Roman (Latin) Catholic monks were recognized by the Sultan of Turkey as the guardians of the holy shrines. However, in the later half of the eighteenth century, the Roman (Latin) Catholics had neglected their duties and the Greek Orthodox monks had replaced them. After 1789 France had lost interest in the quarrels between the Roman and Orthodox monks and the Orthodox monks gradually encroached upon the rights of their Roman Catholic rivals. The Orthodox monks held the keys of the main door, where as the Catholic monks held the keys of the side doors. For the sake of maintaining equality of right, the Catholic monks claimed the keys of the main door as well. The Emperor of France, Napoleon III, to gain popularity in France, particularly among the clergy, demanded from Turkey the restoration of the old Catholic rights. In December 1852 the Ottoman sultan, responding to French pressure decided in favour of the Roman Catholics.

The dispute between Russia and France over the question of the Holy Places in Palestine became serious when the Tsar sent to Constantinople Prince Menshikov, one of the most prominent figures at the Russian Court, to demand not merely concessions in the Holy Land, but also the recognition of

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the Russian claim to be accepted as the protector of the Christians of the Balkan Peninsula.

At this point the British decided to checkmate the Tsar. The British diplomat at Constantinople, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe feared and disliked Russia. Though he saw the weak points of Turkey very clearly, he was nevertheless determined to uphold her territorial integrity and independence even at the risk of war. He took much responsibility upon himself. Communications with London took a long time, as the telegraph had no yet been brought to Constantinople. Redcliffe persuaded the Sultan to make concessions on the comparatively trivial question of Holy Places, but to stand firm against the recognition of the Russian protectorate of the Balkan Christians, which would inevitably lead to loss of independence. In May 1853, Menschikov left Constantinople in protest against this decision, and it was clear that war was dangerously threatening.

The War

At the point when the Menschikov Mission became public information it reinforced the counter Russian group in the British cupboard. So the British concluded it merited a battle to keep and grow their advantage in the Eastern Mediterranean. In June 1853 an Anglo-French maritime power entered the Dardanelles.

Soon after he learned of the disappointment of Menschikov's discretion, the Tsar walked his armed forces into Moldavia and Walachia, the Ottoman Principalities. The activity of Russia could be considered as missing the mark concerning real battle, as she had certain settlement rights in the Principalities. Tsar Nicholas I accepted that the European forces, particularly Austria, would not object unequivocally to the extension of a couple of adjoining Ottoman regions, particularly given Russian contribution in stifling the Revolutions of 1848.

Austria respected the course of Russian development into Moldavia and Walachia with incredible interest, as the challenge was near her outskirts, and on grounds in which she had desire if not cases. A meeting was called at Vienna and a 'Vienna Note' was attracted up to Turkey and Russia by France, Austria, Prussia and England. The 'Vienna Note' pointed toward ensuring the Christian populace of the Balkans without conceding the privilege of Russia to meddle. There was potential briefly that harmony may be saved. Turkey wouldn't acknowledge the 'Vienna Note' in its straightforward structure. Russia acknowledged the announcement, however with a risky translation. As the energy was filling in both the nations, Turkey announced battle on Russia on 4 October 1853.

At the point when Turkey proclaimed battle on Russia, the European Powers would not permit the battle to be reciprocal between the two nations, as the interests included were excessively extraordinary. Austria watched the challenge with close consideration, be that as it may, she didn't dare to meddle. Prussia excessively chose not to meddle in the war. A portion of her legislators, including the rising Bismarck, found in this contention a chance for Prussia to

have a significant and unequivocal impact as the powers of Russia and consideration of Austria were involved in the contention. Nonetheless, Prussian impact was not really distinguishable throughout the Crimean War.

Among the other European Powers, England was attracted the battle on the Ottoman Empire essentially because of the customary British international strategy. Britain accepted that the spread of Russian force into the Mediterranean would undermine Egypt and the way to India. The war fever in England created affected by Palmerston and the press. In France, under the system of the new Empire popular assessment had a significantly less significant impact. All refreshed with Napoleon III. Despite the fact that he had broadcasted that The Empire implies harmony, solid powers drove him into the Crimean War. The longing to keep up the notoriety of France in the East, his reliance on the Catholic and Clerical gathering in France, over all the require which he naturally felt to give the country what it anticipated from a Napoleon-wonder and triumph. Accordingly, England and France joined the Crimean War against Russia supporting Turkey.

Toward the finish of October 1853, the joint French and English armadas passed the Dardanelles to give their ethical help to Turkey. While they were in the neighborhood of Constantinople, a Russian armada assaulted and annihilated the Ottoman armada at the Black Sea port of Sinope on 30 November 1853, bringing about a public objection in England and France. This very normal demonstration of war appeared to be an affront to the two extraordinary Western Powers, and an open war got unavoidable. Britain and France formally pronounced battle on Russia in March 1854. This denoted an extraordinary change in European legislative issues when English and French officers showed up as partners on the front line, and it could be said that it denoted the start of the understanding which turned out to be completely settled in the mid 20th century. Britain and France were subsequently joined by the Italian Kingdom of Sardinia in 1855 with the expectation of being available at the harmony meeting and hence ready to contend for her advantage in Italian unification. She likewise required help with her endeavor to oust Austria from the more modest Italian realms.

The main object of the Allies was to drive the Russian powers from the Principalities of Moldavia and Walachia. The Russians had laid attack to Silistria, through which they wanted to pass to an intersection of the Balkans and to walk on Constantinople. Notwithstanding, the guard of the spot was surprisingly difficult. The mentality of Austria, while Russia stayed on the Danube, was threatening. The Russians had to relinquish the attack of Silistria and pulled out through and through from the territories of Moldavia and Walachia. Promptly Austria sent soldiers into the two Principalities. Austria was to hold these realms until the harmony and handover them to Turkey whenever harmony was set up. In the interim, the Vienna Conference, in meeting all through the war, planned a harmony proposition. These recommendations included: (1) the abrogation of the Russian Protectorate of the Danubian areas; (2) the opportunity of the route of the Danube; (3) the total

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presentation of Turkey into the European harmony; (4) the renunciation by Russia of her selective support of the Balkan Christians.

The Siege of Sebastopol

As the war continued the Allies were quick to give a conclusive fight to the Russian powers to constrain the Tsar to acknowledge the harmony terms. Notwithstanding, it end up being hard to find a truly weak point in the wide domains of his inexactly coordinated state. Cholera had broken out in the positions and documents of the partners, and the French and English armed forces were from multiple points of view not ready for an incredible venture. In any case, on the demand of the home specialists, it was resolved to assault the Russian maritime station of Sebastopol at the southern finish of the Crimean Peninsula in the Black Sea. It was accepted that the errand would be a simple one.

In September 1854, the Allies, Turks, French and English arrived at Eupatoria toward the north of Sebastopol. Marshal Saint-Arnaud and Lord Raglan at that point started their walk on to the actual city. On 20 September 1854 hello met the Russian officer, Menschikov, posted on the northern side of the waterway Alma. After hard battling the Russians were totally vanquished, and the way to Sebastopol was open. The Allies presumably made here the best of the numerous mix-ups during the mission. They didn't assault he city on the double, however the Russian officer, Todleben, held that such an assault couldn't have been stood up to. The Allies likewise made no endeavor to set up any bar on the north side of the waterway on which Sebastopol stands. All things considered, they attempted a long and troublesome walk round toward the south of the city and set up their camp there. The span in this way permitted was splendidly utilized by Todleben to hurl the strongholds which held the besiegers under control from September 1854 to September 1855.

The attack of Sebastopol had some impossible to miss highlights. It was never a bar. No genuine endeavor was made to remove the city from correspondence with Russia. The Allies couldn't totally forestall the stock of arrangements and other military stores from Russia to Sebastopol. Sovereign Menschikov directed an extensive armed force in the bumpy district toward the east of the city, and from that point he continually compromised the assaulting armed forces and in some cases assaulted them and incurred genuine misfortune. The arrangement of the Allies was to catch Sebastopol not by starvation but rather by siege and direct attack. The matchless quality of the Allied naval forces was the very premise on which the entire attack depended. Nonetheless, the immediate activity of the naval force was little. As the Russian armada was soaked in the mouth of the Sebastopol harbor, the Allied armada couldn't enter and their firearms couldn't arrive at the city from an external perspective.

Regardless of grisly triumphs over the Russians at the Alma River, Balaklava, and Inkerman, the war delayed, as the Russians wouldn't acknowledge the Allies' tranquility terms. Throughout the colder time of year, tact was dynamic and there were endeavors to bring more Allies 181 into the

field against Russia. A gathering was held at Vienna which kept going from March till May 1855. In the interim, the Russian Tsar Nicholas I kicked the bucket throughout the battle in March 1855 and was prevailing by Alexander II, who sent agents to Vienna. The Four Points' were acknowledged by Russia as a premise of arrangement. At last, with the fall of Sebastopol on 9 September 1855, and after Austria took steps to enter the war, Russia consented to make harmony. The new Tsar, Alexander II, on edge to give his country harmony concurred for a meeting to be called at Paris.

The Treaty of Paris

The Treaty of Paris, signed on 30 March 1856, was a major setback for Russia's Middle Eastern policy. Russia was forced to return southern Bessarabia and the mouth of the Danube to the Ottoman Empire; Moldavia and Walachia were guaranteed self-government under the suzerainty of Turkey. Both these principalities and Serbia were placed under an international rather than a Russian guarantee. The Black Sea was declared neutral and the Russians were forbidden to maintain a navy on the Black Sea. It was thrown open to the mercantile marine of every nation. The Sultan limited himself to vague promises to respect the rights of all his Christian subjects. About the Treaty of Paris, A.J.P. Taylor says that it 'solved' the problem of the relations between Russia and Turkey in three ways. The Turks gave a voluntary promise of reforms. The Black Sea was neutralized, and the Danubian principalities were made independent of Russia. As far as the reforms in Turkey were concerned, the Sultan never fulfilled his promises. The neutralization of the Black Sea was a great achievement of the Treaty of Paris and it seemed to provide a barrier against Russia without any effort on the part of the Western Powers.

Thus, the Crimean War had far reaching effects on the politics of Europe. A check was put on the Russian influence in the Balkans and the Black Sea. She was kept back from the Danube. Her military strength in the Black Sea was completely finished for years to come. The creation of two autonomous States of Moldavia and Walachia put a barrier between Russia and Turkey. Turkey was the greatest gainer by the Crimean War. She got a new lease of life under the protection of the European Powers. Her territorial integrity was guaranteed and she was admitted, for the first time, to the European community of nations from which she had been previously excluded.

In military terms, the war was a blundering, needlessly costly affair. The commanders on both sides proved remarkably inefficient, squandering lives in senseless engagements like the famed — Charge of the Light Brigade, in which a British unit suffered severe losses during the Battle of Balaklava. Inefficiency and corruption hampered supply services for both armies, and medical services were appalling. The British nurse Florence Nightingale won fame by her efforts to improve the care of the sick and wounded, but more men died of disease than in battle. According to Grant and Temperley, — The Crimean War occupies a peculiar place in the history of Europe in the nineteenth century. The military methods resemble rather those of the Napoleonic age than of the period soon to be opened by Moltke and the military system of Prussia. Steam

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vessels were used, but their full importance was not appreciated. The telegraph had been brought to Vienna, but Constantinople and the Crimea were still beyond its reach. All that concerned the feeding and the sanitation of the armies was almost medieval in character. It was the last war to be fought without the help of the modern resources of science.

An indirect effect of the Crimean War was that Tsar Alexander II was forced to carry out a large number of reforms in Russia with a view to winning over the people. The most important reform was the emancipation of the serfs. Moreover, as the Russian expansion was checked on the European side, its activity was transferred towards Central Asia and the result was that the British government in India had to worry about the growing influence of Russia in that region.

Nevertheless, the war was an event of major significance in European history. It marked the collapse of the arrangement whereby the victors of the Napoleonic Wars—England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia—had cooperated to maintain peace in Europe for four decades. The myth of Russian might was laid to rest, and the breakup of the old coalition permitted Germany and Italy to free themselves from Austrian influence and emerge as nations in the decade that followed. Finally, the shock of the Crimean defeat was the catalyst for a program of sweeping internal reform in Russia under Nicholas's successor, Alexander II.

Check Your Progress

13. What was Eastern Question ?
14. What was Crimean War?

4.8 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Napoleon Bonaparte declared himself as the emperor of France by saying that "the crown of France was lying on the ground and I picked it up in my sword."
2. Napoleon Bonaparte was a man extraordinary brain and character. He had great powers of work and of organisation, rapid insight, courage, a willingness to accept responsibility, etc.
3. A new constitution was drafted for the France by the new consulate consisting of Napoleon, Ducos and Sieyes. The new constitution vested the executive power on three Consuls. Napoleon was made as the first Consul and he was given the absolute power.
4. Metternich was the most important person of Vienna Congress. He emerged after the deterioration of Napoleon. The European political scenario was under his influence from 1806 to 1848. Hence this period is known as Metternich era.
5. Czar Alexander was the leader from Russia to participate as the leader in Vienna congress.

6. Metternich belonged to Austria.
7. Metternich Wanted to crush the nationalist democratic and republic powers in Europe. He restored many traditional royal families. He wanted to create situations as before the French Revolution.
8. The July Revolution of 1830 was of great importance in the history of France. It brought about a change in the ruling dynasty. The Bourbons were replaced by the Orleanists.
9. The ordinances were issued by Charles X on 25th July, 1830, and attached the following explanation. “A turbulent democracy is endeavouring to supplant the legal authorities.”
10. Louis Phillipe came to the throne of France after the July Revolution of 1830.
11. Louis Philipe ruled for 18 years and middleclass remained supreme during his regime. He was called the ‘Citizen King’.
12. The Eastern Question was the issue of the political and economic instability in the Ottoman Empire from the late 18th to early 20th centuries.
13. The Crimean War (1854–1856) was fought between Imperial Russia on one side and an alliance of France, England, Kingdom of Sardinia and the Ottoman Empire on the other.

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4.9 SUMMARY

- Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821), also known as Napoleon I, was a French military leader and emperor who conquered much of Europe in the early 19th century.
- The then circumstances of France helped Napoleon to rise to power. After the revolution of 1789, there was everywhere chaos and confusion in the country which led to the situation of violence and lawlessness. Napoleon established peace and order in France.
- Napoleon Bonaparte’s military achievements made him more popular and he became the messiah among the people of France. He was appointed as the sub-lieutenant in the French army in the year 1785.
- Napoleon became the first Consul in 1799. In 1804, he crowned himself emperor of France in a lavish ceremony at the Cathedral of Notre Dame in Paris.
- Napoleon used to name himself the child of Revolution and he was a supporter of the principles of Revolution, viz., liberty, equality and fraternity, but he laid greater stress on equality than liberty.
- In June 1815, the Congress of Vienna outlined new borders for states in Europe and established an effective balance of power system that largely maintained peace in Europe for the remainder of the century.

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- Napoleon established the Legion of Honour in order to inject feeling of honour among the French people. The people were added to it on the basis of their merit and not on that of hereditaryness. Those who influenced Napoleon by their ability, courage or by any other work of outstanding quality were given the title of Legion of Honour.
- On April 6, 1814, Napoleon, then in his mid-40s, was forced to abdicate the throne. With the Treaty of Fontainebleau, he was exiled to Elba, a Mediterranean island off the coast of Italy.
- In October 1815, Napoleon was exiled to the remote, British-held island of Saint Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean. He died there on May 5, 1821, at age 51, most likely from stomach cancer.
- Napoleon had badly mutilated the political map of Europe. However, with his overthrow in 1814, there was a need to relocate each region. As Metternich had played the most important role in the overthrow of Napoleon, Vienna was chosen as the venue of negotiations and settlement of Europe.
- Metternich was the most important person of Vienna Congress. He emerged after the deterioration of Napoleon. The European political scenario was under his influence from 1806 to 1848. Hence this period is known as Metternich era.
- The Vienna settlement was based on three principles, viz. restoration, legitimacy, and compensation. As regards the principle of restoration, it was decided to restore as far as possible, the boundaries and reigning families of the several European countries as they were before the French Revolution and the rise of Napoleon.
- Austria-Hungary played a prominent part in the overthrow of Napoleon and no wonder Vienna was chosen as the place of deliberation for the resettlement of the map of Europe. Metternich, the chancellor of Austria, gave to Austrian policy that “vigorous and certain direction which enabled him afterwards to boast himself as the conqueror of Napoleon.”
- Metternich not only restored royal families but tried to sustain it powerfully. He painstakingly tried to keep Europe away from nationalistic and democratic ideals. He was successful to build a dictatorial power in Europe. In this way, he established strong conservative power in Europe. This way of ruling is known as Metternich system.
- The July Revolution of 1830 was of great importance in the history of France. It brought about a change in the ruling dynasty. The Bourbons were replaced by the Orleanists. The monarchical system was continued in spite of the protests of the Republicans.
- The revolution influenced several countries of the continent in wrong ways. The Revolution of 1830 was essentially a middle class revolution but that of 1848 was essentially a socialist revolution.

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- The February Revolution of 1848 has its own importance in the history of Europe. It lighted the bacon fires of liberty throughout Europe. The French Revolution had given new life to the people. And there would be not a day, when the revolution was not seen in country of Europe in that year.
- The people of France were not satisfied with the foreign policy of Louis Philipe. The desire of the people was to raise the honour and glory of the country. But he could not do so. The France was facing instability in ministry.
- February Revolution of 1848 had widespread repercussions in Europe. The Austrian states in the Northern Italy (Milan and Venetia) revolted under Charles Albert but failed. The German states also revolted but the delay at Frankfurt parliament caused their future.
- The Eastern Question was the issue of the political and economic instability in the Ottoman Empire from the late 18th to early 20th centuries and the subsequent strategic competition and political considerations of the European Great powers in light of this.
- Characterized as the “sick man of Europe”, the relative weakening of the empire’s military strength in the second half of the eighteenth century threatened to undermine the fragile balance of power system largely shaped by the Concert of Europe.
- The Eastern Question encompassed myriad interrelated elements: Ottoman military defeats, Ottoman institutional insolvency, the ongoing Ottoman political and economic modernization programme, the rise of ethno-religious nationalism in its provinces, and Great Power rivalries.
- The Crimean War (1854–1856) was fought between Imperial Russia on one side and an alliance of France, England, Kingdom of Sardinia and the Ottoman Empire on the other.
- Most of the conflict took place on the Crimean Peninsula, with additional actions occurring in western Turkey, the Baltic Sea region, and in the Russian Far East. The allies objected to expanding Russian power in the Black Sea area and to the seizing of land from the Ottoman Empire. Russia was defeated in 1856.

4.10 KEY TERMS

- **Coup of 18 Brumaire:** In November 1799, in an event known as the coup of 18 Brumaire, Napoleon was part of a group that successfully overthrew the French Directory.
- **The Continental System:** The continental system was an economic war that was started by Napoleon in an attempt to defeat Britain. It was an effort to bring Britain to her knees. Napoleon was advised that Britain could easily be defeated by attacking her trade.

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- **Metternich era:** Metternich was the most important person of Vienna Congress. He emerged after the deterioration of Napoleon. The European political scenario was under his influence from 1806 to 1848. Hence this period is known as Metternich era.
- **Metternich system:** Metternich was successful to build a dictatorial power in Europe. In this way, he established strong conservative power in Europe. This way of ruling is known as Metternich system.
- **July Revolution of 1830:** The July Revolution of 1830 was of great importance in the history of France. It brought about a change in the ruling dynasty. The Bourbons were replaced by the Orleanists.
- **Eastern Question:** The Eastern Question was the issue of the political and economic instability in the Ottoman Empire from the late 18th to early 20th centuries and the subsequent strategic competition and political considerations of the European Great powers in light of this.
- **Crimean War:** The Crimean War (1854–1856) was fought between Imperial Russia on one side and an alliance of France, England, Kingdom of Sardinia and the Ottoman Empire on the other.

4.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What was the coup of 18 Brumaire?
2. When did Napoleon Bonaparte become the first Consul?
3. What was the executive power according to the new constitution of 1799?
4. What were the legal reforms made by Napoleon Bonaparte ?
5. What were the constructive works that Napoleon Bonaparte undertook?
6. What was Legion of Honour according to Napoleon Bonaparte ?
7. What was Napoleonic Continental system?
8. What was Vienna Congress?
9. What were the three principles of Vienna congress?
10. Who was Louise phillipe?
11. What was Ottoman Empire?

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte.
2. Describe the reforms of Napoleon Bonaparte as the first Consul.
3. Explain the causes for the downfall of Napoleon Bonaparte.
4. Describe different Napoleonic wars.
5. Enumerate the foreign policy of Napoleon Bonaparte.

6. Write an essay on Vienna congress.
7. Explain the functions and criticisms of Vienna congress.
8. What were the merits and demerits of Vienna Congress? Explain.
9. Write an essay on the Metternich System in Europe.
10. Write an essay on Concert of Europe.
11. Explain the causes and effects of the July Revolution of 1830.
12. Explain the causes and effects of the February Revolution of 1848.
13. Write an essay on Eastern Question?
14. What were the causes and effects of Crimean War?

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4.12 FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 LIBERALISM IN ENGLAND – ACT OF 1832 AND CHARTIST MOVEMENT, ACT OF 1867 A.D. AMERICAN CIVIL WAR, NAPOLEON III, UNIFICATION OF GERMANY AND ITALY

Structure

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Objectives
- 5.2 Liberalism in England
 - 5.2.1 Rise and Growth of Liberalism
 - 5.2.2 Elements of Liberalism
 - 5.2.3 British Democratic Politics: Parliamentary Reform Acts 1832, 1867
- 5.3 The Reform Act of 1832
 - 5.3.1 Circumstances Responsible for the Reform Act of 1832
 - 5.3.2 Contribution of Parliamentary Reformers
 - 5.3.3 Provisions of the Act
 - 5.3.4 Merits of the Act
 - 5.3.5 Demerits of the Act
- 5.4 Chartist Movement or Chartism
 - 5.4.1 Why Did the Chartists Campaign to Reform the Electoral System?
 - 5.4.2 What Were the Aims of the Chartists?
 - 5.4.3 Who Took Part in the Chartist Campaign?
 - 5.4.4 How Did the Chartists Run their Campaign?
 - 5.4.5 How Successful Were They?
- 5.5 The Reform Act of 1867
 - 5.5.1 Provisions of the Reform Act
 - 5.5.2 Importance of the Act
 - 5.5.3 Demerits of the Acts
- 5.6 American Civil War
 - 5.6.1 Causes of the War
 - 5.6.2 Main Events
 - 5.6.3 Results
- 5.7 Napoleon III
 - 5.7.1 Brief History of France after Napoleon
 - 5.7.2 Louis Napoleon Bonaparte as President (1848-1852)
 - 5.7.3 Napoleon III as Emperor (1852-1870)
 - 5.7.4 Home Policy
 - 5.7.5 Foreign Policy
- 5.8 Unification of Germany
 - 5.8.1 Background for the Unification of Germany
 - 5.8.2 Role of William I
 - 5.8.3 Role of Bismarck
- 5.9 Unification of Italy
 - 5.9.1 History behind Unification of Italy
 - 5.9.2 Obstacles in the Unification of Italy
 - 5.9.3 Role of Joseph Mazzini (1805-1872)

- 5.9.4 Victor Emmanuel II and Cavour
- 5.9.5 Role of Giuseppe Garibaldi (July 1807-June 1882)
- 5.10 Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’
- 5.11 Summary
- 5.12 Key Terms
- 5.13 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 5.14 Further Reading

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5.0 INTRODUCTION

Liberalism or Liberal Movement spread the idea of freedom or liberty which indicates liberty of people in day today life of the society. Due to the approach of modern age, common people started demanding their rights, liberty, equality and freedom. it's quite safe to say that liberalism was born in England during the middle of seventeenth century. England is the mother country of Democracy. The “Glorious revolution” of 1688 recognized the supremacy of parliament in Britain. The British felt the necessity of a more developed parliament with larger representation. Later on England had a series of parliamentary reforms like the Reform Act of 1832, 1867 etc. Liberalism had it's influence on America. The Civil War was a turning point in the history of America. The emancipation proclamation was a constitutional act. Abraham Lincoln ratified it in January 1 1863. This constitutional act changed the course of the war, and it aimed to both preserving the nation and abolishing slavery. In France, due to the February Revolution of 1848, Louis Philippe abdicated and fled to England. A new government was set up. France became a Republic for the second time. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte a nephew of the Corsican prodigy was elected President of the second Republic. After the French revolution of 1848 and the American Civil war, the history of unification of Italy and Germany are considered as the most important events in the history of the modern world. Unification of Germany was achieved, however, not by popular uprisings but by the calculated exertion of power by Prussia under the leadership of Bismarck. The influence of the French Revolution, reforms by Napoleon Bonaparte, the revolutionary ideas of Mazzini and Garibaldi and the statesmanship of Emmanuel II and Cavour developed nationalism in Italy which resulted into unification of Italy.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Know the events which led to the origin and development of liberalism
- Understand the concept of liberalism in many way
- Compare Germany and Italy unification
- Describe the causes of American Civil War
- Examine the home and foreign policy of Napoleon III

5.2 LIBERALISM IN ENGLAND

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The word liberal is derived from the Latin word liber which means free men. Liberalism is also a derivative of liber. The central idea of all these words is freedom or liberty. Liberal also denotes generosity or open-mindedness. Open-mindedness/generosity indicates liberty in taking food, drink, social attitude, behaviour and selection of the alternatives.

Thus we find that freedom is always associated with the word liberal. In the middle Ages when the French people used the word liber they meant that people will have freedom in respect of their selection of alternatives and pursuit of thoughts and ideas.

5.2.1 Rise and Growth of Liberalism

It is really an uphill task to ascertain the origin of liberalism because an ideology cannot be created at a particular point of time. However, it's quite safe to say that liberalism was born in England during the middle of seventeenth century. Here again the readers may be cautioned that the seeds of liberalism existed in British society even before that time.

Decline of Feudalism

The collapse of feudalism is an important cause of the origin of liberalism. Let us explain it briefly. In the feudal period the feudal lords practically controlled the economy and politics along with the church and its fall opened the advent of capitalism and emergence of a middle class which aspired to have a positive role in politics. The capitalist class and the middle class did not want the dominant role of the church.

Rise of Capitalists and Middle Class

The capitalists supplied the finance for the management of state and the middle class supplied executives and administrators. Slowly but steadily these two classes captured the power of the state and wanted to impose restrictions upon the government. In this way there arose liberalism in embryonic form.

Enlightenment

Enlightenment is another factor of the growth of liberalism. The thinkers and philosophers of the Enlightenment period were sceptical about the role of laws, administration, custom, etc. They strongly advocated for the rational reconstruction of society so that the individuals can get enough freedom. Autocratic rule or dictatorial administration was vehemently opposed.

American Independence and Declaration of Rights

Two major events of the second half of the eighteenth century helped the emergence of liberalism. These two events are: Declaration of American Independence in 1776 and the Declaration of the Rights of Man in 1789. Both these events furthered the progress of liberalism. American war of independence was not simply a war of the independence of a particular nation but a major war against colonialism which contained the seeds of liberalism.

On the other hand, after the French Revolution, Declaration of Rights of Man heralded the collapse of autocratic rule in France and its wave spread to other parts of Europe and this accelerated the advent of liberalism.

Contribution of Writings

The writings (including philosophy) of some men were conspicuous in advancing the emergence of liberalism. Some of them may be stated briefly. John Gray says that Thomas Hobbes may be regarded as an exponent of liberalism. Hobbes' (1588-1679) "Closeness to liberalism lies in part in his uncompromising individualism. It is found also in his egalitarian affirmation of the equal liberty of all men in the state of nature and his rejection of a purely hereditary title to political authority". Benedict de Spinoza (1632-1677) was also a precursor of liberalism. He was mainly concerned with natural rights, freedom, curtailment of political power, maintenance of peace and security.

Role of John Locke

Behind the birth of liberalism there was a very important role of John Locke (1632- 1704). Locke, by many, is regarded as the father of modern nationalism. His Two, Treatise of Government, A Letter Concerning Toleration are regarded by many as potential sources of liberalism. Gray says that Locke's thought harbours a number of themes which confer a distinctive complexion on English liberalism that persists up to the time of John Stuart Mill.

His theory of natural rights, right to property, concept of consent, constitutionalism, people's right to dislodge a government for its future to act in accordance with the terms and conditions of contract are classic examples of liberal thought.

The major ideas of liberalism enunciated by Locke were carried out by many who belonged to the latter part of the eighteenth century and early years of nineteenth century. To be brief Locke vigorously championed the central themes of liberalism.

5.2.2 Elements of Liberalism

Liberalism has been branded by many as meta-ideology which means that it encompasses many principles, values and elements within its fold. Whereas other ideologies do not possess this capacity. The following are the main elements/principles/values of liberalism—Individualism, freedom, reason, toleration, consent, constitutionalism, equality and justice.

Individualism

Individualism is the central idea or theme of liberalism. It believes that the interests or welfare of the individual should be given primacy over all other values and principles. Individual is the basic concept of political theory and arrangements shall be made to safeguard his interest. Liberalism says that since a political system consists of individuals it should be the chief objective of this system to see that their interests are fully protected and the individuals are quite capable of doing their own job.

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Freedom

Another important core value, principle or element of liberalism is freedom. To the liberals it is the value of supreme importance because without it the individual will simply be a unit without any dignity. Moreover, liberty or freedom is the best vehicle for developing the best qualities. But the liberals do not advocate for absolute or unrestricted freedom because freedom/liberty will do more harm.

Reason

Liberalism harbours upon reason. To put it in other words, liberalism and reason are inseparable from each other.

Toleration

Toleration is another value/element of liberalism. In any society there is found different opinions, religious sects or communities of belief and faith. All of them must live side by side peacefully and for this is required toleration. Also various ideologies and opinions make a society diverse. It is the basic feature of any society. Liberalism believes that all these diversities must exist side by side.

Consent

Consent is another value/element of liberalism. The idea of consent though very old, its modern appearance took place in the hands of the contractualists, such as Thomas Hobbes and John Locke. Both of them assertively argued that the members of the state of nature assembled together to take a decision about the setting up of a body politic and behind this decision there was the consent of all. Locke dealt elaborately with consent and this was one of the pillars of his liberalism.

Constitutionalism

Constitutionalism is an important principle/value/element of liberalism. It has two meanings—narrow and broad. In its narrow meaning constitutionalism means certain limitations upon the government specified by constitution. The narrow meaning further states that whenever a government intends to discharge any function or adopt a policy it must follow the restrictions.

Equality

Liberalism is based on another principle and it is equality. Though we treat it as a political principle/value it is also a religious and moral principle because the religious- minded people generally say that every person is born equal as Rousseau said man is born free. So it is unreligious to deprive him of his equal status with others.

Justice

Though justice is a principle of both socialism and liberalism, the latter gives it more importance and politically declares that the very basis of liberalism is justice. The liberal justice has several forms or meanings. We note few of them. It is the declared policy of liberalism that each individual will have his due share and since all men are born equal none can deprive other of the share.

Everyone will get the chance to have a share of opportunity. Liberalism also speaks of social equality. All these interpretations lead to the liberal conception of justice. It also says that talented and non-talented persons are not to be grouped together. In this political ideology there is a special place of talents which means that merit should be recognised and should be given its due share. It is called meritocracy.

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5.2.3 British Democratic Politics: Parliamentary Reform Acts 1832, 1867

England is the mother country of Democracy. It was under the parliamentary form of government. Parliament was not new for the British. It prevailed there in Britain from the days of Edward in later middle ages. Gradually the importance of the English parliament was declined. The Tudor rulers were against the parliamentary democracy. They wanted to establish a strong monarchy. But the parliament was still dominated by the feudal barons. During the Stuart regime the people compelled the government to uphold the parliamentary system. After the “Glorious revolution” (1688) the supremacy of parliament was recognized. The English people were widely influenced by the writings of Rousseau, Voltaire who advocated for the representative parliamentary government. The establishment of the United States of America also influenced the English sentiments. So the British felt the necessity of a more developed parliament with larger representation. Later on England had a series of parliamentary reforms like the Reform Act of 1832, 1867, etc.

Check Your Progress

1. Define the word liberalism.
2. What was the Reform Act of 1832?

5.3 THE REFORM ACT OF 1832

The Reform Act of 1832 was the first parliamentary Reform Act in England. It was a landmark in her constitutional history. It paved the way for democratizing the nation. It opened the “Era of Parliamentary Reforms” in England.

5.3.1 Circumstances Responsible for the Reform Act of 1832

The reform Act of 1832 was not a sudden event. It was based on following circumstances.

- The British parliament consisted of two houses, viz, House of Lords and House of Commons. The upper house was completely dominated by landlords and bishops. Their membership was hereditary in nature. The House of Commons was of the common people. But was dominated by the elites.
- The election system for the constituencies as totally absurd and irrational. Majority of representatives to the House of Commons were

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elected from villages but the villages were ruined Cities had mushroomed still the villages elected at least two representatives to the House of Commons. Some cities had no right even to elect a representative.

- There was disparity in qualification for the voters to cast vote. Independent landlords had right to vote where as the rich businessmen and industrialists were deprived of that privilege. The voter had no freedom of voting. There was no secret ballot system. Votes were stated openly. The voters were threatened and forced to cast their vote's in favour of candidates.
- The industrial revolution stratified the society into two classes, the industrialists and workers. The former had complete influence on the parliament. The later had to send their representation to the Parliament only. Socialism was developed against this background to support the working class.
- The franchise was very limited. Before 1832 only thirty thousand people out of 14 million were eligible to cast their votes.
- In a nutshell, the election system of the Parliament was defective. It needed drastic change. The parliamentary reformers contributed a lot for these changes.

5.3.2 Contribution of Parliamentary Reformers

Some reformers made their valuable effort to bring parliamentary change. But from the beginning they had imperfect success. Pitt the elder was the first person to raise voice against the malpractice of the Parliament. Later on **John Wilkes** an outstanding politician gave some proposal for the parliamentary change during the reign of **George III**. But it had no success. In 1780, the Duke of Richmond demanded some reforms in franchise system. In the last decades of the eighteenth century the persons like **Thomas Hardy, Horn Took, William Jones and Charles Fox** strongly advocated for parliamentary reform. To de-franchise the small boroughs Pitt the Younger introduced a bill. But he failed due to the opposition of Whigs and the king George III.

In the mean time the French Revolution and the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte cooled down the work of parliamentary reform. Later on, the French Revolution of 1830 revived the task. The British was greatly influenced by the ideologies of **Bentham, James Mill, John Stuart Mill and Hume**. They advocated for their democratic liberalism. The reforms in parliament became the manifesto of the Whigs in the general election of 1830. Later on, the Whig got majority under East Gray, who became the prime minister. In the meantime one of the members of his Ministry John Russell introduced a Reform Bill in the House of Commons in 1831. But the Bill was defeated due to the opposition of Tories and other members. Later on the ministry was dissolved. The Whigs and Pro-reformers won the election. The Reform Bill was introduced for second time. It passed in the lower house easily. But it was blocked in the House of Lords.

Finally the Bill was reintroduced in 1832 it was passed by the Commons. It was resisted by the House of Lords. **Lord Grey** asked the **king William IV** to raise the pro-reform membership. But the king was reluctant. So Lord Grey resigned. Wellington of Tory party was insisted to form the government. But he failed so Grey was stated. Finally the Reform Bill of 1832 was passed in June 1832. It came to be known as the reform Act of 1832.

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5.3.3 Provisions of the Act

The Reform Act of 1832 brought some significant changes in the parliament. It had several provisions. So the provisions of the Act can be discussed as follows:

1. All the boroughs having the population of less than two thousands were disfranchised. The numbers of the boroughs were fifty-six.
2. Boroughs those have a inhabitant of two thousand to four thousand were to represent only one member to parliament.
3. Burroughs feeling disfranchised one hundred and forty three seats were available which were distributed among the large counties and towns which were unrepresented. But the total members' hip remained unchanged.
4. The Tenants and the house owners of the boroughs having capacity of paying ten pounds of rent and revenue annually were given the right to franchise.
5. In the county side the right to vote was given to the house owners and the tenants who had capacity of paying ten pounds and fifty pounds respectively as annual revenue. Long lease holders paying a rent of fifty pound a year were also enfranchised.
6. The Act had also provision of enrolment of voters. There was a register of voters for the division of constituencies. It even facilitated the polling system.

5.3.4 Merits of the Act

- In the words of Roberson, The Reform Act of 1832 was a disfranchising measure, an enfranchising measure, a redistribution Act, a reform of electoral machinery and registration of corrupt practices. The Act was undoubtedly a turning point in modern English history. It was a great political and parliamentary achievement. The Act had following achievements:
- By the Reform Act of 1832 the number of voters increased threefold. The voters number reached nearly five lakhs. The Act also introduced uniform franchise boroughs.
- The Act provided the political power to all the sections of the landlords and the middle class people.
- The Reform Bill was passed by the Whigs. So they established their supremacy over the Tories.

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- Finally, the Act enhanced the importance of the House of Commons. It became a true representative body. On the contrary the power of the House of Lords decreased. The Act made the House of Commons more powerful than the king practically Ramsay Muir rightly observed. “The House of Commons became truly representative of the nation. The crown lost the power of influencing the ministry and the Lords also received a terrible blow”.
- Hence, the Reform Act was a revolution and it inaugurated a new era in the constitutional history of England. Trevelyan has rightly called it “Modern Magna Carta” of England.

5.3.5 Demerits of the Act

The Reform Act of 1832 was not barren of the drawbacks.

- In the true sense it had not established complete democracy. It neglected the working class. The working classes were disappointed. They were not included in franchise system. It only benefited the middle class people.
- The woman classes were also deprived of the right to vote.
- There was no provision for secret ballot system, equality of constituencies and payment of salary to the members of the Parliament.
- Moreover, the Act failed to control corruption and bribery during the time of election.

On the whole, the reform Act of 1832 was a milestone in the constitutional history of England. From the passage of the bill there was socio-political liberalism in England. It showed the path for parliamentary reform. Finally, Britain became the most important democratic country in the world.

Check Your Progress

3. Name the two houses of British Parliament.
4. Who called the Act of 1832 as Modern Magna Carta?

5.4 CHARTIST MOVEMENT OR CHARTISM

Chartism was a working-class movement for political reform in Britain which existed from 1838 to 1858. It took its name from the People’s Charter of 1838 and was a national protest movement, with particular strongholds of support in the north of England, the east Midlands, the Potteries, the Black Country and south Wales. Support for the movement was at its highest in 1839, 1842 and 1848 when petitions signed by millions of working people were presented to the House of Commons. The strategy employed was to use the scale of support which these petitions and the accompanying mass meetings demonstrated to put pressure on politicians to concede manhood suffrage. Chartism thus relied on constitutional methods to secure its aims, though there were some who

became involved in insurrectionary activities, notably in south Wales and Yorkshire.

The People's Charter called for six reforms to make the political system more democratic:

1. Universal suffrage (the right to vote)
2. Abolition of property qualifications for members of parliament
3. Annual parliamentary elections
4. Equal representation
5. Payment of members of parliament
6. Vote by secret ballot

Chartism can be interpreted as a continuation of the 18th century fight against corruption and for democracy in an industrial society but attracted considerably more support than the radical groups for economic reasons including wage cuts and unemployment.

5.4.1 Why did the Chartists Campaign to Reform the Electoral System?

The electoral system in the early nineteenth century was radically different from the parliamentary democracy we have today. The system was not representative of the population in terms of wealth or region, and elections were open to corruption. Before 1832, just ten per cent of British adult males were eligible to vote – and this portion of the population was the richest.

There were many efforts to reform this outdated system by people who used methods such as corresponding societies, pamphlets and mass meetings to spread their messages. The most notorious of the mass meetings occurred at St. Peter's Fields in August 1819. Eleven people were killed and 400 wounded when a group of soldiers on horseback charged on the crowd. This event soon became known as the Peterloo Massacre and remained in people's memories for many years to come, intensifying support for reform.

Reform of the electoral system finally arrived with the 1832 Reform Act, which increased the proportion of eligible voters in England and Wales to 18 per cent of the adult-male population and 12 per cent in Scotland. Although the working classes had high hopes for the Reform Act, they eventually felt betrayed as despite the new legislation, the poor ultimately remained voiceless in the way their country was run. In the years following the Reform Act, the Chartists would begin to plan their campaign to try to effect real electoral change in Britain.

5.4.2 What Were the Aims of the Chartists?

In 1836 Cornish cabinet-maker William Lovett formed the London Working Men's Association, along with publisher Henry Hetherington and printers John Cleave and James Watson. Besides disseminating information for the good of the working classes, the association wanted 'To seek by every legal means to

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place all classes of society in possession of their equal, political, and social rights.' With the help of Francis Place, Lovett composed The People's Charter, which demanded changes to the British electoral system.

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Although The People's Charter did not advocate any new ideas, it created a central doctrine for radicals wishing to reform the political system. Support for the Charter spread rapidly and its advocates became known as the Chartists. Although all Chartists believed in and campaigned for the six points of The People's Charter, they were not an entirely unified group of people, and certain members pursued other aims to try and improve the life of working class people in Britain. One Chartist, Feargus O'Connor even tried, unsuccessfully, to relocate the working classes from the cities to his rural utopia, O'Connorville.

5.4.3 Who Took Part in the Chartist Campaign?

Chartism was a mass movement that attracted a following of millions. Hundreds of thousands of people were sometimes reported to have attended their meetings and their three petitions amassed millions of signatures, although some were proved to be fake. Friedrich Engels wrote that '...in Chartism it is the whole working class which rises against the bourgeois', but it was more than simply a working-class movement it attracted some rural support as well as more radical elements of the middle classes.

Although the People's Charter did not advocate votes for women, Chartism was far from a male-only movement. William Lovett, the author of the People's Charter, wrote in his autobiography that he was in favour of female suffrage. However, it was decided that calls for female suffrage would damage the prospects for the Charter's success. Women may not have spoken publicly like the male Chartist orators, but many did attend meetings and mass demonstrations, and formed Female Charter Associations. Others actively challenged the Chartists to campaign for female suffrage.

5.4.4 How Did the Chartists Run their Campaign?

The Chartist movement was not a completely unified organisation and its leadership was often fragmented. All members were decided on the end purpose of Chartism, but there were radical differences in opinion over the means to achieve it.

'Moral force' Chartists such as William Lovett believed that tactics such as holding public meetings, publishing pamphlets and newspapers, and taking petitions to government would succeed in convincing those in power of the moral right of electoral reform. However, many people believed that electoral reform would not be achieved through the use of 'moral force' alone. 'Physical force' Chartists, such as Feargus O'Connor, advocated the use of violence to demand the six points of the Charter be granted, should that not be achieved by peaceful means. The more radical Chartists took part in riots in Newcastle, Birmingham and elsewhere round the country, at which leading members of the movement were arrested. The most infamous episode in the history of Chartism was the disastrous Newport Rising, which took place on 4th

November 1839. A group of Chartists stormed a hotel of the protestors were killed by waiting troops. For a while the energy went out of the movement, though the National Charter Association was established in 1840 to co-ordinate its work across the country.

Eventually, the Chartists split into several factions and the movement's influence declined. The last big protest was at Kennington Common in April 1848, which was followed by a procession to Westminster to present another petition. The Chartist leaders claimed this petition had over 5 million signatures, but many were proved to be fake. There was a massive police and military presence, but the meeting was peaceful, with a crowd estimated by some at 150,000. The petition was defeated heavily.

5.4.5 How Successful Were They?

Although the Chartists gathered enormous support in the form of signatures for their petitions, their demands were rejected by Parliament every time they were presented. By the time Chartism ended in 1858, not a single demand from the People's Charter had become law. Although the Chartists failed to achieve their aims directly, their influence persisted and reformers continued to campaign for the electoral reforms advocated by the People's Charter.

A new Reform Bill was passed in August 1867 that gave the vote to all male heads of households over 21, and all male lodgers paying £10 a year in rent. Further reform arrived with the Ballot Act in 1872, which ensured that votes could be cast in secret – a key demand of the People's Charter. In 1884 the Third Reform Act extended the qualification of the 1867 Act to the countryside so that almost two thirds of men had the vote. Eventually, only one of the Chartists' demands – for annual parliamentary elections – failed to become part of British law. At the time, Chartism may have been judged unsuccessful, but there is no doubt that the movement's campaign for electoral reform played an important role in the development of democracy in the UK.

Check Your Progress

5. Define chartism.
6. Who formed London Working Men's Association?

5.5 THE REFORM ACT OF 1867

The Reform Act of 1867 was another important Reform Act in the constitutional history of England. The lacunas of the reform Act of 1832 made the inevitability of the passage of the Reform Act of 1867. By the Act of 1832 the working class people were deprived of their right to vote. It caused discontentment among the labour class. The farmers and artisans also joined with them. The reform Bill of 1867 was introduced in the parliament twice in 1852 and 1854 while Aferdeen was prime minister and cabinet member. But both the times he failed to get success. In 1859 the bill was reintroduced. It was the time of Disraeli and Darby. In 1860 John Russell as the foreign secretary

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tried to pass the Bill. But the bill was withdrawn. Later on, there was heavy agitation by the farmers and artisans in the aim of extending franchise. Many associations like Reform Union and Reform League were founded to liberalize the election system in England. But no such progress was achieved as the Prime Minister Palmerstone was against the more reform. In 1865 the Prime Minister passed away. So, in 1866, Russell reintroduced the bill. But it was not passed. So he resigned from the concerned ministry. In 1867 an opportunity came and both the political parties like Whig and Tory stood by the reform bill. Queen Victoria also supported the improvement of franchise system. At last, the reform bill was introduced by Disraeli in March 1867. It was unanimously passed by the liberals and conservatives in the name of the Second Reform bill the Reform Bill of 1867.

5.5.1 Provisions of the Reform Act

The Reform Act of 1867 had the following outstanding provisions.

1. The Act extended the number of the voters. In boroughs the lease holders, lodgers and occupiers who they had capacity of paying annual rent of 10 pounds were given voting right.
2. The tenants of the constituencies in the county who paid rent of 12 pounds annually also enjoyed the right to vote.
3. Eleven boroughs were completely disfranchised. These boroughs had population of less than ten thousand.
4. The boroughs and the counties were given 25 more seats.
5. Equal representation of the boroughs was discontinued. The system of each town sending two representatives was ended. The big towns like Leeds, Liverpool and Birmingham dispatched more than two representatives.
6. Universities were included in the Franchise system. The universities of London, Edinburg and Glasgow were given some seats.

5.5.2 Importance of the Act

The act bore both merits and demerits. The Reform Act of 1867 was a great landmark in the process of democratic movement of England. It was a commendable victory of the people of England. The Reform Act had the following merits.

1. The extension of franchise was an outstanding provision of the Reform Act. It included the urban working class in the franchise. So the number of voters was increased to almost 10,000.
2. The Act made Great Britain a democratic country. The Act gave more importance to the people.
3. The Act profoundly changed English political life. The power of ministry formation was transformed from the crown to the House of Commons. It also changed the very nature of the House of Commons.

4. The Reform Act 1867 gave an impetus to the birth and growth of Trade Unions. The government also stressed in the interest of the community instead of person.
5. Introduction of primary education and establishment of schools in local areas were given priority.
6. The Reform Act of 1867 developed a new political epoch in the growth of democracy.

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5.5.3 Demerits of the Acts

In spite of the above merits the Reform Act of 1867 was not free from defects. Practically, the agricultural labourers were out of franchise. Trade Unions were not fully recognized. There was no secret ballot system. In the words of R.K. Webb, “The reform Act of 1867 was not a generous bill, nor was it intended to become one”.

On the whole, the Act was a great step in the process of demoralization of England. According to Lord Derby, the prime minister “it was the leap in the dark.” In fact, it was the most revolutionary of all acts prior to that of 1918.

Check Your Progress

7. What was the Reform Act of 1867?
8. Which tenants got the voting rights by the Reform Act of 1867?

5.6 AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

The American Civil War was one of the bloodiest wars in the history of America. It took place from 1861 to 1865. The war broke out between the two sections: the North and the South, and it emerged as a result of the differences between these two sections. While the North was industrial, the South was utterly based on agriculture.

The economic differences resulted in two blocks or divisions: South and North. Southerners depended on plantations in addition to slave labour. Unlike the South, the North was wealthy, and they relied on manufactures and did not need slaves.

These differences created a problem between the North, and South. Southerners wanted to develop their economy, and to compete with the Northern industrial section. In doing so, they used slaves to labor on their plantations. Slaves became a property in the South; they worked in severe conditions as planters, carpenters, drivers...etc. On the other hand, Northerners were against slavery, and they treated slaves as natural citizens; in addition, they sought to abolish the whole institution of slavery from the southern territories.

The conflict augmented when Southerners wanted to trade with Europeans. In order to accomplish that, Southerners needed to pay taxations. However,

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Southerners, who saw tariffs as a threat to their prosperity and tried to nullify them, did not welcome these taxes.

The South hoped to keep slaves and maintain its practice in the South. Southerners defence of slavery came not from a moral point of view. Actually, they wanted to keep slaves as a labor force that would help in the growth of Southerners' economy. Southerners, thereafter submitted the matter to the Supreme Court, and they defended their state rights. These claimed right allowed Southerners to both secede from the Union and ask for legalizing slavery within their states.

Writing played an active role during the period of the Civil War. Abolitionist writings inspired many Northerners to reject slavery and to seek its abolishment. Actually, many writers contributed to the Civil War including Harriet Beecher Stowe, Hinton R. Helper, Far Biers, Alice Walker, and John Greenleaf. With the nomination of Abraham Lincoln, Southerners appealed for an immediate secession, and they decided to split from the Union and form the Confederate states of America.

The Civil War was a turning point in the history of America. The war went through three periods. The first period represents the first years of the war, which took place between 1861 and 1862. During these first years, the union army was weak, but this weakness resulted in one of the most important acts: the emancipation proclamation.

The emancipation proclamation was a constitutional act. Abraham Lincoln ratified it in January 1 1863. This constitutional act changed the course of the war, and it aimed to both preserving the nation and abolishing slavery. The emancipation did not free all slaves but it allowed them to run out to the North. Slaves became an active part in the Northern army and helped the Union prevail in the war.

The last period of the war was won by the Union. The Union won two major battles in 1-4; 1863. The first war split the Confederate army into two halves, and weakened their army. The second war, thereafter marked the surrender of the Confederate army, and it ended the war.

5.6.1 Causes of the War

There were both indirect and direct causes that led to the outbreak of this war; these causes include Sectionalism, tariff, States rights, the rise of abolitionists, and the election of Abraham Lincoln.

- 1. Great differences between the south and the North:** In the 19th century, there were great differences between the south and the North. The North was urbanized and industrial, life was faster for Northerners and did not need slaves to work in their lands. The North was a populous section as a result of high birth-rate and increased immigration, whereas the South or the Confederacy was agricultural, and their economy was based on plantation.

2. **Elected Abraham Lincoln:** When Abraham Lincoln was elected, seven Southern states left the Union, and they declared that they no longer want to be a part of the Union. Later on, the number of secessionist states increased. Eleven states seceded and formed the Confederate states of America ruled by Jefferson Davis as a president. Additionally, they came up with new laws which made slavery legal.
3. **Slavery was the major issue:** Slavery was treated as a major issue that separated the North from the South. Many Northerners wished to abolish slavery and by the 19th century several laws were passed for this end inside their boundaries. In 1808, Northerners convinced the congress to prevent ships from bringing any slaves to America. Moreover, by the 1820, there was an argument by the two sides about whether slavery should be allowed in the new acquired territories that were in the west.
4. **Issue of tariffs:** The issue of tariffs augmented the conflict between the North and the South. Since Northern states heavily relied on their nascent manufactures, trading with Europe was neither a priority nor of their economic interests, but Southern states had an ambition for external trade, and it was the source of vitality for their economy. Consequently, Northerners imposed tariffs on the state economic production. Southern states, on the other hand, aimed to nullify tariffs. By 1820, tariffs were opposed by Southern planters as it harmed their imports. Historically, the South was in need of slaves because of their low cost labor, its perceived need for mechanization, in addition, they hoped to sell cotton and purchase manufactured goods from any nation.
5. **Abolitionist writings:** Abolitionist writings played a major part during the period of the Civil War. It was led by free abolitionist writers, suppressing the inhuman treatment upon slaves, and to stand against the social and political institution of enslavement, and slavery. Abolitionist texts involved novels, short stories, poems, plays in addition to some traditional and churchy music. Those writing constantly stunned the emotion of the people of all regions. The first literary work that indirectly contributed to the Civil War was *Uncle Tom Cabin*, a novel about the conflict between a slave named Tom and the brutal white slave-owner Simon Legree. Abolitionist aimed to describe the pathetic conditions of the African-Americans, and to seek their social status and position in the American society.
6. **The Rise of Abraham Lincoln:** North and South-sectional conflict, state rights, tariffs, or the abolishment of slavery did not contribute to the division of the union or the break of a second American revolution as much as the rise of Abraham Lincoln in 1860 elections. The nomination of Abraham Lincoln was a main factor to urge Southerners to secede. As soon as Lincoln was elected, Southerners appealed for an immediate secession, and they split from the Union.

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5.6.2 Main Events

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- 1. The First Years of a Long War, 1861-1862:** During his presidency, Lincoln declared that he would use no military means against South Carolina and other seceded states. The bottom line of this tension ended with a war between the Union and the confederacy. The war started at Fort Sumter (see picture-04) in the Harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, on Sunday April 12, 1861. Four states seceded from the union after the battle of Fort Sumter.
- 2. The First and Second Bull Run:** The battle of Bull Run started in July 1861, when 30,000 federal troops marched from Washington D.C. to attack confederate troops forces, positioned near Bull Run Creek at Manassas, which was led by general Thomas [stone wall] Jackson, and Irvin McDowell. Just as the Union seemed at the head of a victory, the Confederate forces attacked, and sent the Union back to Washington. The war revealed 2,80 dead, 1, 000 wounded, and 1,200 missing, a total number of 2,680 casualties. By contrast, the Southern army had suffered from 30,800 killed, 1,000 wounded, and dozens of missing.
- 3. The Battle of Antietam:** The battle of Antietam was a turning point in later events. The Union celebrated its first victory at Antietam on September 17, 1862; it was at Antietam Creek, Maryland town of Sharpsburg. The battle of Antietam was the first battle on the Union soil. It started when Confederate forces marched to Washington, positioned in Maryland. The battle of Antietam resulted in more than 12,000 federal and 11,000 Confederates, a total number of 23,000 Union and Confederate dead.
- 4. The Battle of Fredericksburg:** The battle of Fredericksburg was a failure for the Union. The Union's hope was to capture Richmond. Lincoln realized that this battle was not easy to achieve. Lincoln ordered General Ambrose Burnside to lead the Union after the battle of Antietam. The battle resulted in 12,600 Unions to 5,300 Confederate casualties.
- 5. Second Period: The Emancipation Proclamation, January 1, 1863:** Lincoln struggled to preserve the Union and to abolish slavery in America. Lincoln met Jefferson Davis in South Carolina. Lincoln ordered Davis to free slaves, but he refused. The South completely denied the fact that they were fighting to preserve slavery and they pretended that they were fighting for their independence from the North. In contrasts, the North wished to remove slavery. On April 1862, Congress passed two confiscation acts: the first confiscation act declared that slaves used by Southerners in aid of the rebellion could be legitimately taken by Union forces. Whereas the second confiscation declared that slaves were free forever. These two acts helped to pave the way for the Emancipation Proclamation.

Though the Civil War was destructive, it had some good results such as the Emancipation Proclamation. Abraham Lincoln emancipated slaves from moral perspective, and he considered slavery a crime towards humanity.

5.6.3 Results

The Assassination of Abraham Lincoln

In December 1863, Lincoln announced his proclamation of Amnesty which was known as the Ten-percent plan. Lincoln's proclamation pardoned all the confederates except the officials and those who committed crime against the prisoners of war. He pardoned all the Southerners who took an oath of loyalty to the United States and those who supported the abolishment of slavery. The Amnesty plan was opposed by the Radicals in July 1864, and conversely they passed the Wade-Davis Bill. But Lincoln responded by using a pocket veto, which ended the Wade-Davis Bill. In April 1865 he was assassinated. In 1865 he was succeeded by his Vice president, who was from the South. His name was Andrew Johnson.

Reconstruction

The American Civil War had important outcomes. The abolishment of slavery was one of the major events that led to the emergence of the thirteen and fourteenth amendments. The first step toward the abandonment of slavery was done by Lincoln, who aimed to end slavery. Accordingly, he issued the Emancipation Proclamation on 01 January, 1863 which freed slaves who were part of the Confederacy. Nonetheless, Lincoln's emancipation did not free all slaves, but it turned the war to a war for black freedom.

The Thirteenth Amendment

After more than two year of Lincoln's Proclamation, Congress passed the thirteenth amendment, which was a revolutionary act. It was adopted and ratified in December 1865, and it marked a new beginning to the United States Constitution.

The Fourteenth Amendment

The Republican second amendment was the fourteenth amendments. The 14 amendment was one of the most prominent amendments in the Reconstruction period. The amendment came in July 1868. Improving the life of Blacks was not accepted by Southerners, and it caused violence against Blacks. The 14 amendment gave citizenship to all people born or naturalized in the United States. In addition, the amendment declared that no state under any law could interfere in one's life, liberty and property.

The Civil War was one of the greatest tragedies in the history of America. It emerged between two opponents: the North and the South. The two sections developed differently, and each is believed to have its own way of living. They were in conflict over states' rights, tariffs, slavery, and elections. But the greatest problems between the North and the South were the economic

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differences. The great tension ended up in a war between the newly formed Confederacy, and the Union. It was the bloodiest periods in American history. The Union army won all wars against the Confederate army. The Confederate rejoined the Union, and they were forced to free all slaves.

Check Your Progress

9. Between which two sections, American Civil War was fought?
10. What was Emancipation Proclamation?

5.7 NAPOLEON III

5.7.1 Brief History of France after Napoleon

After defeating Napoleon I in the battle of Leipzig, the Bourbon monarchy was restored in France in 1814. Louis XVIII, the brother of Louis XVI, became the King Except for a brief period of occupation of the throne by Napoleon I for hundred days in 1815, Louis XVIII ruled till 1824. He was succeeded by his brother Charles X (1824-30). The July Revolution of 1830 led to the abdication of Charles X in 1830. He fled to England. His cousin, Louis Philippe (1830-1841) became the new King. Louis Philippe, “King of the French, by the grace of God and by the will of the people” posed as a democratic ruler in the beginning. Soon he changed his colour. The Industrial Revolution had spread to France and a new movement known as Socialism was gaining ground. The working class demanded the extension of the franchise to them which was opposed by the King. This led to the February Revolution of 1848. Louis Philippe abdicated and fled to England. A new government was set up. France became a Republic for the second time. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte a nephew of the Corsican prodigy was elected President of the second Republic.

5.7.2 Louis Napoleon Bonaparte as President (1848-1852)

The constitution of the new Republic lay down that the President could serve for a four-year term with the proviso that an immediate re-election should not be sought for. It also made provision for a unicameral chamber. Louis Napoleon utilised the opportunity within the short period at his disposal to increase his popularity and then transform the Republic into an Empire. He kept the workers in good humour. He endeared them to his heart by making provision for old age insurance in 1850. By promoting industries and undertaking schemes of public utility like the construction of railways, he posed as a friend of the common man. He earned a good name among the Catholics by sending an expedition to Rome in 1849 to restore the Pope.

Above all, he carefully nursed the Napoleonic legend. The Assembly, which was mostly composed of monarchists, committed itself to the reform of the electoral laws. The electoral laws were revised in such a way that the poorer section was disfranchised. Louis Napoleon dissolved the Assembly in 1851 and attested his opponents in the Assembly. He skilfully played on the feelings of the people and posed as the champion of universal suffrage. The bewitched

suffrage carried away by passions expressed their approval through a plebiscite by a thumping majority the right of the President to draw up a new constitution. Louis Napoleon ruthlessly crushed all opposition against him. Seeing the wind taking a favourable direction, he conducted a plebiscite in 1852 and by a larger majority than before; Louis Napoleon was proclaimed Emperor in 1852 with the title, Napoleon III.

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5.7.3 Napoleon III as Emperor (1852-1870)



Napoleon III

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Napoleon III was firm believer in royal absolutism. He concentrated in his person all powers. The legislature had no real power. The ministers were appointed by him and made responsible to him. He vigorously censored the Press. The liberty of the people was trampled under foot.

5.7.4 Home Policy

Napoleon III did some good things to promote the material welfare of the people. As the emperor, Napoleon III was very much interested in the modernization and development of France.

1. **Industrial and Trade reforms:** He initiated the process of industrial and trade reforms to boost the economy. As the first step, he launched a series of massive public works projects in Paris in order to improve the transportation, sanitation, water supply, and medical facilities in the city. He built new railway stations, ports, shipping lines, parks, gardens, theatres, hospitals and educational institutes.

He promoted industries. During his rule, the industrial production increased by 73%--growing at doubles the rate as that of the United Kingdom. As trade and industry thrived, the exports grew by sixty percent between 1855 and 1869.

2. **Social Reforms:** He felt strongly about social causes and implemented a series of social reforms aimed at improving the life of the working class. He also gave impetus to girls' education. Agricultural production also greatly increased as a result of the adoption of new farming techniques.
3. **Transport and Communication:** Being a votary of free trade, he reduced the tariff duties. He improved the communications in the country by constructing railways and canals, by establishing steamship lines and by opening of telegraph service. The banking system was extended and loans were advanced to agricultural and industrial enterprises.
4. **Work for the Poor:** He improved the conditions of the poor by setting hospitals, asylums and alms-houses. He beautified the city of Paris. He improved the lot of the workers and by promoting an

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insurance scheme against old age and accidents. He legalised trade-unions. He permitted the workers to form co-operative societies and their right to strike was recognised.

5. **Liberal Concessions:** In spite of these liberal reforms, opposition to Napoleon III mounted up. Forces of liberalism gained ground as time went on. He moved with the time and yielded concession after concession. The legislature was given full powers to transact business without any let or hindrance. The Ministry was made responsible to parliament. The censorship of the Press was relaxed and public meetings were permitted. Wrestling concession after concession only whetted the appetite of the liberals. The battle of Sedan fought in 1870 sealed the doom of Napoleon III and the Second Empire. The Third Republic was proclaimed in the same year.
6. **Major Works in Home Policy:** Emperor Napoleon III is best known for his grand reconstruction of Paris which was directed by his prefect of the Seine, Georges-Eugène Haussmann. The program included building of wide avenues, demolition of neighbourhoods deemed unhealthy by officials, construction of better roads, parks, and public utilities. The massive project continued from 1853-70.

He played a major role in modernizing the French economy which lagged far behind that of the United Kingdom and Germany. Under his regime, promotion of industry and trade was given utmost priority and he brought about several economic reforms to boost the industrial growth of the French economy.

He prioritized the development of better transportation facilities. During his reign, new shipping lines and ports were created in Marseille and Le Havre, which connected France by sea to Latin America, the USA, the Far East, and North Africa. In the 1870s France possessed the second-largest maritime fleet in the world, only behind England.

5.7.5 Foreign Policy

1. Establishment of Colonies

Napoleon III annexed Algeria to France. He established a protectorate over Cambodia. Indo-China came under the control of France. In a joint expedition with England, China was forced to open many ports for European trade. The Crimean War broke out as a result of a religious issue between the Roman Catholic Church and the Greek Orthodox Church over the management of the Holy places in Palestine.

Napoleon III of France in order to earn the good-will of the Catholics, put pressure on the Sultan of Turkey and wrested the concession from him as the champion of the Christians in the east. Tsar Nicholas I raised his protest against this right conceded to France. In order to win his point, he sent his ambassador Menschikov to Constantinople to demand from the Sultan his right as the protector of the entire Orthodox Christian subjects of the Sultan. Britain got

alarmed at the prospect of Russia getting a firm foothold in the Balkans. So she strongly supported the cause of France and induced the Sultan to concede the demand to Russia. In the war that ensued, Russia was defeated. According to the terms of the treaty of Paris signed in 1856. The Tsar renounced his claim to protect the Christians in the Balkans. The war took the prestige of France to a high level.

2. Austro–Sardinian War (1859-60)

Napoleon III got involved in the Austro–Sardinian War. Cavour, the Prime Minister of Sardinia, entered into a treaty with Napoleon III who promised to help Sardinia against Austria in return for Nice and Savoy. Sardinia was to occupy Lombardy and Venetia. Calculating French help, Cavour provoked a war with Austria. He increased the number of Sardinian forces. Austria got alarmed at the rising power of Sardinia. Austria threatened Sardinia with war unless she reduced the number of soldiers. Cavour turned a deaf ear to it and accepted the challenge. So Austria declared war on Sardinia in 1859. Napoleon III came with a French army to help Sardinia. The Austrian forces were defeated in the battles of Magenta and Solferino and driven out of Lombardy. Napoleon III got alarmed at the rising power of a united Italian State. He withdrew his forces and concluded a treaty with Austria at Villa-franca in 1859. According to the terms of treaty, Austria retained Venetia but gave a large portion of Lombardy to Sardinia. Though Napoleon III betrayed the cause of Sardinia, the latter gave him Nice and Savoy. His Italian policy provoked resentment at home and abroad. The Catholics at home cried a halt to his advance against Catholic Austria. The radical section got dissatisfied because of the sudden cessation of war. Italy bore a grudge against France.

3. Mexican Project

Napoleon's interference in the Mexican problem was quite foolhardy. Mexico had obtained independence from Spanish rule. The attempt of the members of the Holy Alliance to restore Spanish rule in Latin America was foiled by the Monroe Doctrine. According to this doctrine, President Monroe of the U.S.A. proclaimed that "any interference in Latin America by a European power would be dangerous to our peace and safety". When Juarez, the President of Mexico, repudiated the public debts, England, Spain and France raised a hue and cry. While the other two nations did everything short of war Napoleon II sent an army to Mexico under Maximilian, the brother of the Austrian Emperor. Juarez was driven out and Maximilian was proclaimed the ruler of Mexico. As the Civil War was going on in America, she remained quiet. The moment it was over, she applied the Monroe Doctrine and forced France to withdraw from Mexico. As Maximilian showed some hesitation, he was captured and shot dead in 1867. Napoleon burnt his fingers in this project. The French prestige sank to a very low level.

4. Franco – Prussian War (1870-71)

Napoleon III grew jealous of the rising power Prussia. He demanded at different times Palatinate, Luxemburg and Belgium as the Prize of his

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neutrality. But Bismarck refused to give him anything. He was waiting for an opportunity to crush the power of France. He had not to wait for long. In 1869 a revolution occurred in Spain. The Spanish throne was offered to Leopold of the Hohenzollern family. Napoleon objected to it on the ground that a prospective union of Spain and Prussia under the Hohenzollern family would upset the balance of power in Europe. To get a diplomatic victory, he asked his ambassador to demand from King William I that he would never support a Hohenzollern to the Spanish throne. The Prussian King turned down the French request and sent a telegram to Bismarck informing him of the latest developments. Bismarck was only waiting for such an opportunity. He published the telegram in such a way that it wounded the feelings of both the French and the Germans. So France declared war on Prussia.

The war kindled the patriotism of the Germans and the Southern German States made common cause with the North. Prussia inflicted a crushing defeat on the French at Sedan. Napoleon III became a prisoner. The victorious German army marched into Paris. Paris fell after some resistance. By the treaty of Frankfurt. Peace was concluded in 1871. France surrendered Alsace and Lorraine to Germany. She had also to pay a huge war indemnity. With the capture of Napoleon III at Sedan in 1870, the Second Empire collapsed like a house of cards. In the same year, the Third Republic was proclaimed in France.

Check Your Progress

11. In which year was Louis Napoleon proclaimed Emperor?
12. How did Napoleon III reconstructed Paris?

5.8 UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

Germany had never been united, from early times; there had always been divisions, often of tribal origin; while ambitious men carved out principalities for themselves. In some area there were free towns, while Church territories recognized only the Bishop as ruler. In spite of the territorial divisions, there was a consciousness of common origin & common purpose & with increasing prosperity in awareness of common economic interest. For over a thousand years, until it was destroyed by Napoleon in 1806, the States had been associated in a loose form of Empire & after 1815; the 39 states which remained after the Revolutionary & Napoleonic Wars were grouped in a Confederation under the presidency of Austria. There was a widespread movement for closer unity in 1848, a movement resisted by Austria. Unification was achieved, however, not by popular uprisings but by the calculated exertion of power by Prussia under the leadership of Bismarck.

5.8.1 Background for the Unification of Germany

Before 1871 Germany did not exist as a country in the sense of being a unified political state. However, in 1815 there were tens of thousands of people, especially among the young, the educated and the middle and upper classes,

who longed passionately for a unified Germany. The numbers of these German nationalists grew steadily in the years after 1815.

The Situation in Germany by 1815

The term 'Germany' had no real political significance before the nineteenth century. There was no single German state. By 1800 some 23 million Germans were divided into 314 states, of varying size. These states were loosely united under the nominal rule of the Holy Roman Emperor, who was also the Emperor of Austria.

To make the situation more complicated, Germany lacked clear natural frontiers, especially in the east and the south. It was not even possible to define Germany's extent on grounds of race. The Holy Roman Empire included land which had French, Dutch, Danish, Polish and Czech speakers and excluded sizeable territories with a predominantly German population.

Apart from Austria, only one state within the Holy Roman Empire had any real power or importance in domestic and international affairs, and that was Prussia. When Austria and Prussia were defeated by Napoleon Bonaparte in 1805-06, the Empire collapsed.

Napoleon's Impact on Germany

- In the 1806 Napoleon reorganized the many German states.
- France annexed the territory on the left bank of the river Rhine.
- Many small states were combined: the total number was reduced to 39.
- Bavaria, Saxony, Baden and 14 other states were formed into the Confederation of the Rhine. This was under direct French control. The French legal system replaced the different laws and judicial procedures of the separate states.

The conquest of Germany by Napoleon transformed the German political situation in other ways. French ideas of liberty and equality created a new context for German politics. There was increased middle-class involvement in government and in administrations. Many Germans were released from feudal restrictions.

Prussia (1806-13)

After the devastating defeat by Napoleon in 1806, Prussia was determined to recover her position as a leading German state. The government of Prussia made great efforts to reform Prussian institutions

- The army was reorganized.
- The government was overhauled to provide a more efficient central authority.
- A new system of education was introduced.

The War of Liberation

The popular anti-French opinion encouraged the Prussian King Frederick William III to make an alliance with Russia against France. Austria also

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declared war on France. Napoleon was defeated at the Battle of Leipzig in 1813. This so called War of Liberation has often been seen as the first collective action of the German nation. Although the unacceptable behaviour of French occupying troops had helped to fuel nationalism, German resistance to France never became a mass national uprising.

The Vienna Settlement and Germany

The Vienna Settlement which took place after Napoleon was decisively defeated at Waterloo in 1815 took many decisions which affected Germany. The two most important states of Germany- Austria and Prussia- benefitted the most. Both were among the Great Powers who drew up the peace treaty at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Most of Austria's territorial gains came in Italy, not Germany. Austria secured Lombardy and Venetia in northern Italy, while the Habsburg rulers were restored to the central Italian duchies of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. Prussia gained considerable areas of territory including part of Saxony, the Rhineland, Westphalia and Pomerania. The population of Prussia more than doubled.

The German Confederation

The most important influence on the future of the German states after 1815 was that of Prince Metternich, Austrian chief minister until 1848. Metternich's aim was the maintenance of Austria's traditional authority over the German states. He was not concerned with German political unity, and his negotiations at Vienna Congress ensured that Germany would become a loose confederation of states under Austrian control.

In June 1815 the German Confederation (Bund) comprising 39 states, was established with the aim of 'maintaining the external and internal security and independence and integrity of the individual states'. It was not concerned with promoting a united Germany. In fact its aim was exactly the opposite, for none of the rulers of the separate states wished to see their independence limited by the establishment of a strong central German government.

The Confederation thus disappointed those Germans who hoped for greater national unity. It has also been criticized by historians who see it as being essentially the replica of Holy Roman Empire, an organization which had no place in the age of emergent nation states. However, the Confederation at least provided a framework within which German states co-existed, albeit uneasily.

Agitation of Students

The German Confederation (Bund) consisted of 39 states under the leadership of Austria. However, the German nationalists, students and intellectuals were not happy with the arrangement. They wished to dismantle this system erected by Metternich and promote the unification of Germany. In 1817 on the day of anniversary of Martin Luther they voiced their intentions regarding the unification of Germany and began an agitation to achieve their objectives. They established an organization called Burshenschaft to spearhead the agitation. They used terrorist tactics to trouble Austrian officers. In 1819 the members of

the organization murdered Kotzebue who was a Russian secret agent. Metternich called representatives of the various states to Carlsbad to discuss matter of terrorist activities.

Carlsbad Decrees

Metternich with the support of the King of Prussia called for a meeting of representatives of the states at Carlsbad. In August 1819, Metternich was successful in getting some resolutions passed by the Diet at the Carlsbad meeting. These resolutions are known as the Carlsbad Decrees. By taking this action Metternich inaugurated a hard policy against the German nationalists. Metternich wanted to limit the influence of the German unification movement through these decrees. The provisions of the Carlsbad decrees destroyed the independence of universities and educational institutions. To know about the activities of the students spies were appointed in universities. Ruler of every state appointed officers to supervise the teaching of university professors. This was done mainly to prevent the spread of ideas regarding freedom or unification among the students. The activities of the students were also monitored by officers. The Police system was overhauled and made more efficient.

Establishment of Zollverein (Customs Union)

Though the process of unification of Germany faced a number of problems, the process of economic unification had been initiated under the leadership of Prussia. The establishment of the Zollverein brought the German states together with regard to similar taxation laws, especially regarding custom taxes. Before the establishment of the Zollverein every German state has its own taxation laws which were a great obstacle to the growth of trade and commerce in Germany. In 1818 under the leadership of Prussia the states of north Germany established a confederation in which all members accepted similar taxation laws and procedure. They accepted the principle of 'laissez faire' or free trade. The acceptance of free trade by members of the Zollverein promoted trade in the states. The states also became economically dependent on each other. This was a big step towards unification. Soon the other German states also realized the importance of uniformity in economic system and established two other similar confederations. In 1842 all the three economic confederations were brought together under the leadership of Prussia.

The above events were benefited the process of unification because the leadership of the Zollverein remained with Prussia. This was also the beginning of leadership of Prussia in the politics of the Germany. Later, the state of Prussia played an important role in the unification of Germany.

Revolution of 1830

The revolution of 1830 had a big impact on Germany. In 1830 the French masses revolted against the rule of King of France, Charles. The revolutionary events in France had tremendous impact on the countries in Europe. The French had revolted against the conservative rule of King Charles. A number of countries of Europe the example set by the French people. However, the

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German state of Prussia was not affected in a major way by the events of 1830. But elsewhere in other German states, people revolted against the exploitative and absolute rule of the Kings and demanded a liberal constitution. As a result of these movements the Kings of Hessen- Cassel, Saxony, Brunswick and Hanover accepted the demand of the masses and granted liberal constitutions to their subjects. However, this achievement of the masses in the state did not last for long as Metternich used the military and police to wipe out the movements. The states which had accepted liberal constitutions were forced to reject them.

Impact of Revolution 1848

In 1848 there took place revolutionary movements against absolute monarchs in a number of countries in Europe. The French masses revolted against their King Louis Phillip and forced him to flee the country. The European masses were inspired by the events in France. The feelings of Europeans were so much against the absolute monarchs that even Metternich had to flee Austria. After decline of Metternich's power, the masses in a number of German states revolted against their Kings. In March 1848, the people of Berlin revolted against the Prussian King Fredrick William IV. The King immediately granted a liberal constitution to the people of Prussia. He also promised to take leadership in the process of unification of German.

Parliament of Frankfurt (May, 1848 to June 1849)

Democratic ideas had spread in Germany since July 1830 and in 1848 people of a number of German states had revolted. The people of German States wished to see a unified German nation. In May 1848, the King of Prussia, Fredrick William IV, convened a special session the German National Assembly to discuss the issue of German Unification. This session of the National Assembly was held in the city of Frankfurt. The representatives of all classes of people and states attended the Parliament. A number of leaders of nationalist leanings were elected to the Parliament. The following resolutions/decisions were passed in the Parliament:

- Democracy of a limited nature should be established in Germany. A constitution based on liberal republic principles should be enacted.
- A federation of Germany should be established. This objective should be pursued by legal means without disturbing the relations with Austria.

However the condition of following legal means to achieve unification did not appeal to radical leaders in the Parliament. They wanted to build a strong republican state. Therefore they tried to disrupt the proceedings of the Parliament. However, Fredrick William IV was able to conduct the proceedings of the Parliament with the help of the police.

The Frankfurt Parliament also passed a declaration of fundamental human rights. This declaration contained the natural rights of humans. This was an important step towards democracy.

The issue of the place of Austria in the proposed federation of German states became a controversial matter in the Parliament. The Parliament had to

bow before the radical nationalist in the discussion on this issue. It was clearly decided that Austria should be kept out of the federation. Austria had nothing to do with the proposed federation.

It was unanimously decided that the head of the proposed federation of German states was to be the King of Prussia. This decision was communicated to Fredrick William IV.

Thus, Fredrick William IV, the King of Prussia, was chosen as the leader of the federation. However, Fredrick William was afraid to shoulder the new responsibility. He was afraid that the acceptance of leadership will anger Metternich. He therefore refused the headship of the federation. A crisis erupted in Frankfurt Parliament due to this decision of Fredrick William. The Kings of other German States also supported the decision of Fredric William. This rendered the work of the Parliament meaningless. Since the King of Prussia was not ready to accept the leadership of the federation the Parliament was dissolved in 1849. The Frankfurt parliament became unsuccessful due to the acts of the Prussian King and Metternich.

Frankfurt Parliament (March, 1850)

Even if Fredrick William IV, the King of Prussia, had rejected the resolutions of the Frankfurt Parliament, he did not oppose the unification of Germany. In fact he wanted the unification of Germany to take place under the leadership of Prussia. Therefore, he convened a Parliament to discuss the unification of Germany at Erfurt. During the Erfurt Parliament it was proposed to throw Austria out of Germany and establish a strong federation of German states under the leadership of Prussia. However, the states of Hanover, Saxony, Novaria, and Austria strongly opposed this proposal.

The Parliaments of Frankfurt and Erfurt used legitimate means to achieve unification of German states. However they were unsuccessful. It became obvious that Austria and Kings of some German states will always oppose the unification of Germany. Austria opposed unification of the Germans because it would have to transfer the German population in Austria to unified Germany. This would be a great loss to Austria. It was clear it would be possible to break the opposition of Austria and other German states only by using extra-legal means. However, the Prussian King Fredrick William IV, was afraid to take drastic measures to achieve German unification. It was only when his brother William I became the King of Prussia, that the process of unification of Germany gained in momentum.

5.8.2 Role of William I

After 1851 Austria was engrossed in tackling its own internal problems. The King of Prussia, Fredrick William IV also followed a conservative policy. However, a stroke in 1857 left the king partially paralyzed and largely mentally incapacitated, and his brother William served as regent from 1858 until the king's death in 1861, at which point he acceded the throne himself as William I. It was under the leadership of William I and his Chancellor Otto von Bismarck that Prussia achieved the unification of Germany.

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On 2 January 1861 Frederick William died and William ascended the throne as William I of Prussia. He ruled over Prussia for 29 years from 1861 to 1888. It was during his reign that the unification of Germany was completed. His reign is therefore memorable in the history of Germany. William I was very much proud of his German heritage and the dominance of Austria over the German states always troubled him. After the unification of Germany, he became the first 'Emperor of Germany'.

Militarization of Prussia

William I had participated in a number of battles and he was of the view that only battles and force could achieve the unification of Germany. He wanted Prussia to take leadership in the unification. Keeping in mind this objective, he began to strengthen the military of Prussia by increasing the number of soldiers and modernizing the army.

William I took measures to transform the army of Prussia. He appointed Moltke as the Chief of the army and Roon as the Chief of navy. Both these capable officers initiated changes in the army which made it stronger than the army of Austria. They completely overhauled the structure of the Prussian army. During this period about 39 new sub-divisions of infantry and 10 new subdivisions of cavalry were added to the Prussian army.

William I and the Diet

The modernization of military initiated by William I increased the expenditure of Prussia. In 1861 approval was sought from the Diet (legislature) for the spending funds on re-organization of the military. The Diet approved the expenditure on army only once in 1861. Next year the legislature refused to give sanction for the expenditure on the army. The Diet of Prussia had a number of representatives who were of liberal-republican outlook. These members wanted to implement constitutional reforms. For them the modernization of the military was of secondary importance. The king's ministers could not convince the legislators to pass the budget and the King was unwilling to make concessions. As a result they created a number of obstacles for William I who was trying to increase the might of the Prussian army. This created a crisis between William I and the Diet. William I had three alternatives. First, abandon his plans of modernizing the army. Second, to abdicate the throne of Prussia and third, to dissolve the Diet. William I threatened to abdicate and believed that Bismarck was the only politician capable of handling the crises.

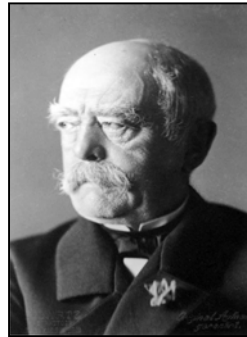
In 1862 the Diet (House of Deputies) overwhelmingly rejected the proposed budget. William I was persuaded to recall Bismarck, who was the Prussian ambassador to France, to Prussia on the advice of General Roon. On 23rd September 1862, William appointed Bismarck Minister-President (Chief Minister) and Foreign Minister. Bismarck was appointed as Chief Minister by William I, under the advice of General Roon, and was assigned the task of winning over the Prussian Parliament to pass the new army reform bill. Bismarck's conflict with the legislators grew more heated during the following years. In 1863, the Diet passed a resolution declaring that it could no longer

come to terms with Bismarck; in response, the King dissolved the Diet, accusing it of trying to obtain unconstitutional control over the ministry. Bismarck then issued an edict restricting the freedom of the press. Bismarck broke the opposition of the Diet and won the confidence of William I. He firmly believed that Prussia would solve its problems only by building a powerful army. Otto von Bismarck did not succeed in swaying the people of parliament into passing the money bill for the army; instead he told them that they were not needed and that the money could be raised through taxation. To convince them Bismarck told them that he had 200,000 troops to persuade them.

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5.8.3 Role of Bismarck

Otto von Bismarck is known as the maker of modern Germany. Bismarck was born on 1st April 1815 in the Prussian province of Saxony. His father was a Junker estate owner and a former Prussian military officer. He wore a military uniform even though he was not a regular officer. He was however more cosmopolitan and highly educated. Bismarck spoke and wrote English, French and Russian fluently as a young man he would often quote William Shakespeare or Lord Byron in letters to his wife. He studied law at the University of Gottingen before enrolling at the University of Berlin.



Bismarck
Credit- Wikipedia

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In 1847 at the age of 32 Bismarck was chosen as a representative to the newly created Prussian legislature. There he gained reputation as a royalist and openly advocated the idea that the monarch had a divine right to rule. From 1851 to 1858, Bismarck worked as the representative of Prussia in the Frankfurt Parliament of the German federation. He gained valuable experience

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as a legislator and politician during his tenure. In 1859 he was appointed as ambassador of to Russia. As ambassador he was instrumental in achieving Prussia-Russia friendship. Later, Bismarck was appointed as ambassador to France. Bismarck made a personal study of the psychological makeup of the Russian Emperor Czar Alexander II and the French emperor Napoleon III when he was on these diplomatic assignments.

Bismarck was instrumental in solving the crises which has arisen between the Diet and William I. The staunch support of Bismarck won him the confidence of William I. Bismarck was a firm believer in absolute monarchy and had little respect for democratic principles. From 1862 to 1870 Bismarck was the Chief Minister of Prussia and from 1871 to 1890 he was the Chancellor of Germany. Before Bismarck took the seat of Prussia's Chief Minister in 1862, the first basis for German unification under Prussian rule had already been set in place; the free trade union known as the Zollverein. Although the Zollverein was an economic union rather than political it created a bond between the German states with Prussia at its head. This gave Prussia an important advantage over Austria in the two nations race to lead the German states.

Bismarck believed that great things could not be achieved by merely giving speeches and undertaking elections. Only a policy of Blood and Iron could achieve great things. In his first speech to Parliament Bismarck shares his views on what Prussia needs to do if it hopes to lead the German states; "Germany does not look to Prussia's liberalism, but to its power..." In 1862 after taking over as the Prime Minister of Prussia, Bismarck made efforts to achieve militarization of Prussia. He wanted a disciplined Prussian Army. Along with this he tried to modernize the other sectors. He constructed new roads, repaired old ones and gave impetus to agriculture. He, thus, considerably increased the economic and military strength of Prussia. Prussian army became one of the best armies in Europe. Bismarck was able to increase the influence of Prussia in international affairs due to its efficient army. Bismarck wanted to remove Austrian occupation of German territory by using the Prussian army. Meanwhile in 1863 there occurred a revolt against Russia in Poland. Bismarck helped the Russian Czar by providing him military help. By doing this he was able to ensure the neutrality of Russia in event of Prussian-Austrian War.

Bismarck wanted to achieve the following things:

- To increase the military strength of Prussia
- To integrate the Germans of Denmark with Germany.
- To increase German influence in Europe by defeating France.
- To challenge the domination of Austria over German states.
- To complete the unification of Germany.

After the Prussian army was re-structured, reformed and modernized, Bismarck initiated war to achieve the unification of Germany. Bismarck involved Germany in three wars, namely, Prussia-Denmark War (1864), Prussia-Austria War (1866) and Prussia-France War (1870)

Prussia-Denmark War (1864)

The two provinces of Schleswig-Holstein were under control of Denmark for a number of years. A son of Fredrick VII, King of Denmark looked after the administration of these provinces. The two provinces contained a substantial population of Germans who wished that the provinces be attached to Germany. However in 1863, the King of Denmark, integrated both the provinces in Denmark. Bismarck took this opportunity to start military preparations against Denmark because earlier the King of Denmark had promised never to merge the provinces into Denmark. Since the King of Denmark had not kept his promise Bismarck declared war on Denmark.

Bismarck promised to transfer the Holstein province to Austria and secured the support of Austria. This was merely a strategic tactic of Bismarck to secure the friendship of Austria. In reality he never intended to give Holstein to the Austrians on a permanent basis. After securing the friendship of Austria, Bismarck sent an ultimatum to Denmark to cancel the integration of Schleswig. The King of Denmark refused to accept the ultimatum sent by Bismarck. In the war which followed in February 1864, Denmark was defeated and Holstein was given to Austria.

Prussia-Austria War (1866) – The Seven Weeks' War

The real hurdle in the unification of Germany was Austria. In 1865-66 Austria wanted war with Prussia. This was to be the long awaited conflict between the two sovereign German states, but even though Austria still had the bigger army, Bismarck had politically prepared for the conflict; by 1866 Bismarck had succeeded in securing French neutrality in the case of war with Austria, as well as creating a secret alliance between Italy and Prussia should the conflict rise. This war was crucial in deciding which of the two nations would gain supremacy over the German states, therefore Bismarck's goal of a united Germany under Prussian rule now depended on the strength of the Prussian army.

Friendship with Russia

Bismarck had established friendly relations with Czar Alexander II when he was the ambassador to Russia. In 1863, he offered military help to Russia when Poland revolted against the Russian Czar. This had created a bond of friendship between Russia and Prussia. The people of Prussia wanted to help the Polish rebel, but Bismarck had taken this decision against the wishes of the Prussian people. Bismarck had thus earned the confidence and friendship of Czar Alexander II.

French Neutrality

In 1862 Bismarck had been deputed as ambassador to France. He had impressed Napoleon III and had promoted friendship between Prussia and France. He again met Napoleon at Baritz in 1865 to ensure the neutrality of France in event of a Prussian- Austrian War. He promised to give a part of the Rhineland or Belgium. However he did not enter into any treaty in this regard.

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Secret Alliance with Italy

Bismarck sought the help of Italy against Prussia. A secret alliance was signed between Italy and Prussia in which it was decided that Italy should help Prussia in the war against Austria and in return Prussia would transfer Venetia which was under control of Austria to Italy.

Prussia defeated the Austrian army at the battle of Sadowa. Several factors allowed Prussia to beat Austria. Firstly, the army reforms had been successfully carried out under General Roon, the Prussian Minister of War and the army was under command of General Moltke, who was a gifted military commander. Secondly the Prussian alliance with Italy forced Austria to fight a war on two fronts: Prussia and Italy. Although they managed to defeat the weak and inefficient Italian army quickly, it hindered the military operations of the Austrians against the Prussia.

It is important to note the treatment of Austria after its defeat. Most of the Prussian leaders wanted to humiliate Austria; however, Bismarck would not allow this and even threatened to commit suicide if they did not heed his advice. Bismarck saw the importance in maintaining good terms with Austria as it still had the support of many of the German states. The only territory that Austria lost in the Seven Weeks' War was Venetia that was given to Italy as part of the alliance deal.

The Peace of Prague (1866)

The Peace of Prague was a Peace treaty signed at Prague on 23 August 1866, which ended the Austria-Prussia War. The treaty was lenient towards the Austria because Bismarck had persuaded William I that maintaining Austria's place in Europe would be better in the future for Prussia than harsh terms.

The treaty made the following arrangements:

- Italy got Venetia
- Prussia annexed Schleswig-Holstein, Hesse-Cassel, Frankfurt and Hanover
- Austria agreed to take no further part in German affairs
- North German Confederation formed out of 22 states north of River Main under the leadership of Prussia
- The Kingdom of Prussia thus established itself as the only major power among the German States.

The North German Confederation

It was a federation of 22 independent states of Northern Germany. It was formed by a constitution accepted by the member states in 1867 and controlled military and foreign policy. It included the new Reichstag, a parliament elected by universal manhood suffrage and a secret ballot. The Confederation was dominated by Bismarck, its first and only Chancellor who was also the prime minister of the kingdom of Prussia. It consolidated the control of Prussia over northern Germany in economic matters, especially through the Zollverein

(Customs Union) which included the states of Southern Germany that were not in the Confederation. Prussia exercised effective control over the confederation. The Confederation was replaced by the new German Empire in 1871.

Franco-Prussian War (1870-71)

To achieve full German unification, Bismarck needed another war that would bring all the German states together and create a strong sense of nationalism; this war was to be the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71. Bismarck got the opportunity to go to war with France due to the succession crises in Spain in 1868. Leopold, a German Prince was to succeed to the vacant throne of Spain. Napoleon III did not want a German to occupy the throne of Spain. After a lot of discussion the King of Prussia and the French ambassador met at Elm to discuss the issue. Their discussion was telegraphed to the public of both the states. In the discussion it seemed that both the French ambassador and the Prussian King had allegedly insulted each other. Public opinion was inflamed in both the countries. France ordered mobilization of the army and on 19th July declared war on Prussia only, but the other German states quickly joined on Prussia's side.

Fighting started in July 1870; the war was to be a series of Prussian victories on the battle field due to their railway systems, military tactics and Krupp's (the big Prussian arms manufacturer) artillery. Napoleon III of France was decisively defeated and captured at the Battle of Sedan.

Bismarck's war to create a strong enough feeling of nationalism to form a German nation had been a success. Although he had to use a lot of skill and German nationalist feelings to convince the southern German states to join the German Empire and to make William I of Prussia the Kaiser of Germany, he succeeded in creating a Unified Germany. On the 18th of January, 1871, King William of Prussia took on the title of Imperial and Royal Majesty, Kaiser William of Germany, in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles.

"Blood and Iron" is a phrase that has been used by historians to describe the policy followed by Otto von Bismarck. Since his appointment as Chief Minister of Prussia in 1862, Bismarck's main goal was to increase the strength of the Prussian nation, and as he saw it, military strength was what defined a strong nation. "It is not through speeches and majority decisions that the great questions of the day are decided...It is by iron and blood," was how Bismarck strongly felt towards increasing the strength of a nation. It is quite possible that when Bismarck looked at Germany he saw simply the best opportunity to create a powerful nation of military importance and therefore he spent the years leading up till 1871 trying to create a unified Germany under Prussian leadership.

Bismarck did not lay down the groundwork and ideas for a unified Germany, but what he did do was make one possible. Military reforms that allowed successful wars, speeches made to rattle the feeling of nationalism inside the German people and the final victory over Austria as the head of the German states; all these factors that led to a German Unification under Prussia in 1871 were orchestrated by a Prussian Chief Minister and a German

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Chancellor named Otto von Bismarck. If any the factors helping Bismarck unify Germany had not been there, it may not have been possible to have done it in 1871, but Bismarck's significance lies in the manner in which he led all these factors together to lead Prussia into becoming the German Empire of 1871.

Check Your Progress

13. Who reduced the states of Germany into 39?
14. Under whose leaderships unification of Germany was achieved?

5.9 UNIFICATION OF ITALY

Italy was an important country of South Europe during 18th century. It was joined to Europe from its northern side. Its remaining three sides were surrounded by sea. The Adriatic Sea surrounded Italy from the East, the Teutonic Sea and Creek of Geneva surrounded it from the West. The important island of Sardinia was situated to the west of Italy. Three European countries were situated to the north of Italy: France was to the North-West; Switzerland to the North; and Austria to the North East.

During the ancient period, the Roman Empire of Italy was very powerful as it had its control over almost all Europe. The capital of the Roman Empire was the city of Rome. In the 4th century A.D., the large Roman Empire came to decline. Italy lost its political unity and was divided into a number of small states. Towards the end of the eighteenth century the peninsula of Italy was divided into the states of Kingdom of Sardinia (Piedmont), Lombardy and Venetia, Republic of Venice, The Central Duchies(the independent states of Tuscany, Modena and Parma), and the Kingdom of Naples These small kingdoms fought one another. In the period from the 15th-18th centuries a number of Kings of Europe tried to occupy the land of Italy. Because of these factors nationalist consciousness did not develop among the people of Italy. Spain, France, Austria and Germany tried to establish their hold on the small kingdoms of Italy. The interference of these European states was an important obstacle in the unification of Italy. Later on, the influence of the French Revolution, reforms by Napoleon Bonaparte, the revolutionary ideas of Mazzini and Garibaldi and the statesmanship of Emmanuel II and Cavour developed nationalism in Italy which resulted into unification of Italy.

5.9.1 History behind Unification of Italy

After the French revolution and the American war of Independence, the history of unification of Italy and Germany are considered as the most important events in the history of the modern world. Behind the unification of Italy a lot of events were responsible.

The Impact of French Revolution on Italy

The French revolution of 1789 gave manifold freedom to its citizens for the first time in history. It had a profound effect on Europe. Its impact on the development of Italy should not be underestimated. The revolution in France led to the end of absolute monarchy and the introduction of political and administrative reform based on freedom of people. The ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity slowly spread to Italy and encouraged the growth of national consciousness among the Italian people. Now the Italian nationalists tried to unite Italy.

Impact of Napoleonic Rule

Prussia and Austria, keeping faith in ancient regime launched into war on revolutionary France in 1792. This affected Italy because of the Austrian control of Lombardy and its considerable influence over many of the other Italian states. As a result, in May 1796, the young French General Napoleon Bonaparte invaded northern Italy with the intention of sweeping out the Austrians. A series of French victories left Napoleon in control of most of northern Italy and from 1796 to 1799 he introduced a number of political changes. Under French rule, many Italians experienced a transformation in how they were governed. Instead of a patchwork of customs and feudal laws that had dominated the running of so many of the states of Italy, they enjoyed the benefits of a new more efficient system. The French brought with them a Code of Law. Some of the regions of Italy were exposed to the administrative reforms introduced in France, known as the Code Napoleon. Under the Code feudalism was abolished and equality before the law established. State officials administered parts of Italy under a unified and clearly defined system of rules. The Code forbade torture and stated that all people were equal in the eyes of law. Even when the French were expelled from Italy and their laws repealed, it was difficult for many of the restored rulers to turn back the clock.

Influence of France in Italy led to the rise of the middle class in Italy. In most regions of Italy before the 1790s, land was mainly owned by the aristocracy and the Church. However, under the rule of Napoleon, the French sold large amounts of Church land. The peasants did not benefit from this land sale because they could not afford to buy the land. Instead, the land was purchased by the middle classes. Indeed, many of the later leaders of the process of political unification of Italy such as Count Camillo Cavour came from families that had earned their wealth during this period. Land sale also strengthened the position of the members of the nobility, who were able to increase the size of their estates by buying Church land.

Injustice in Vienna Congress

In the big settlement made in 1815 at the Vienna Congress, Austrian domination was restored over the Italian peninsula. As a matter of fact, it was divided into a large number of States under different rulers. Ferdinand I was restored to Sicily and Naples, the Pope was restored to Rome and the Papal States and Parma, Modena and Tuscany were given to the members of the Habsburg family. Lombardy and Venetia were annexed to the Austrian Empire

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and Sardinia and Genoa were added to the kingdom of Piedmont. It was on account of the division of Italy into many independent parts that in 1847 Metternich commented that Italy was a mere 'geographical expression'. By this he meant that the idea of an Italian state was a fanciful one. The Treaty of Vienna reflected the wishes of Metternich and the desires of Austria, which now had even greater control over Italian affairs. This would be a most important development. Metternich's desire was to restore the old order and this fact was reflected in the terms of the Vienna Settlement. He wished to impose a conservative settlement thereby crushing the hopes of liberals and nationalists across Europe. Many of the demands for political change in Italy after 1815 were not necessarily from a desire to unite Italy but rather from a desire to destroy Austrian control and influence.

There were three major obstacles to unity of Italy at the time the Vienna Congress took place.

- (a) The Austrian occupation of Lombardy and Venetia in the north
- (b) The principality under the sovereignty of the Pope i.e. the Papal States that controlled the centre of the Italian peninsula
- (c) The existence of various states that had maintained independence, such as the Kingdom of Piedmont- Sardinia

Establishment of Secret Societies

Italy saw the advent of many secret societies which wanted a radical change in Italy. Many young people joined these societies against the enemies who ruled in Italy. The societies were formed to plot against the French. When the French left Italy in 1814, they plotted against the restored governments.

1. **Carbonari:** Carbonari was the largest among the secret societies in Italy. The translated version of the name Carbonari means 'charcoal burners'. Every member of the society was sworn to secrecy in a special ceremony which initiated him in the society. The aims of the Carbonari included the rejection of absolutist government and the protection of the rights of the people. The members of Carbonari were committed to the principles of the rights of the people, and were prepared to use violence and revolution as the means by which it could achieve its aims.

Like other secret societies of the age, the Carbonari had an initiation ceremony, complex symbols, and a hierarchical organization. Their members were recruited mainly from the nobility, officeholders, and small landowners. After 1815 the lodges spread rapidly among those dissatisfied with the post-Napoleonic settlement, especially among the middle classes, which had been favoured under French rule. Although the Carbonari had lodges throughout Italy, their main centres were in central Italy (the Papal States) and in the south (Naples), where the Bourbon Kingdom of the Two Sicilies was restored in 1815 and where they took up a decisively anti-Bourbon attitude. With the help of the army, they led the successful Neapolitan revolution of 1820,

which forced King Ferdinand I to promise a constitution. This was their most spectacular achievement, but Austrian intervention soon nullified it. Revolts in Bologna, Parma, and Modena in 1831 met with little success. In the same year, Giuseppe Mazzini founded a new movement, Young Italy, with an avowedly national and republican program, and the importance of the Carbonari began to wane.

2. **The Adelfi:** The second secret society which was very familiar was Adelfi. It was strongly anti-French society, which transformed itself into the strangely named 'Sublime Perfect Masters' in 1818. Its main aim was the destruction of Austrian rule that would lead to a democratic republic. The leader of the Sublime Perfect Masters was Filippo Buonarrotti, who was an experienced revolutionary. The society's membership was based in the north, which explains why the expulsion of Austria from the Italian soil was considered the primary objective.
3. **The Italian Federation:** Another secret society was 'Italian Federation' which was led by Count Confalonieri. It aimed for the creation of a north Italian state to be ruled by a constitutional monarchy.

Economic Issues

The issue of land ownership was the foremost issue of the day. In *The Italian Risorgimento* (1998), Martin Clark asserts that, throughout the nineteenth century, 'the real political issue was not constitutional liberty, nor independence, nor unification, but land'. Since the opportunity for investment in industry was very weak in Italy, land was the main form of investment. Also, there was a significant difference in the patterns of land cultivation between the northern and southern parts of Italy. The soil in the south was inferior in quality. Land was owned by absentee landlords and rented out by peasant farmers under a system known as the *latifundia*. Throughout Italy and especially in the south, many were landless forced to work as labourers.

There existed uneven industrial development in north and south Italy. The industrial growth was slow in the northern part consisting of Piedmont and Lombardy and Venice. In South Italy industrial growth was almost non-existent. In short, there was significant economic disparity between the different regions of the Italian peninsula.

Revolt in Naples (1820)

In 1820 there was a revolution in Spain. The excitement created by the Spanish revolution of 1820 spread to the Italian dominions of the Spanish Bourbon Kings. The Kingdom of Naples in Italy was ruled by Bourbon King Ferdinand I. The people of Naples, supported by the army, demanded a constitution on the model of Spain. The Carbonari in the army led a revolt under Gen. Guglielmo Pepe. This revolt involved moderate landlords and members of a middle class. Ferdinand I granted the demands of the rebels with eagerness by approving a liberal constitution. However, he later asked the help of Austria to restore him

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to absolute power in Naples. The result was that an Austrian army was sent to Naples which successfully restored Ferdinand I to absolute power. The revolt of the people was suppressed and efforts were taken to counter the Carbonari secret society that had supported the people of Naples in their demand for a constitution.

Revolt in Piedmont (1821)

The revolt in Naples influenced the people of Piedmont. In Piedmont the people had faith in the King Victor Emmanuel I. The revolutionaries wanted Victor Emmanuel to declare war on Austria. The people of Piedmont wanted the patriots to help the revolutionaries in Naples. However the government of Piedmont was not ready to initiate war against Austria. Therefore, the revolutionaries themselves tried to oppose the Austrian army. However their revolt was successfully suppressed by the Austrian army.

Impact of the July Revolution in France (1830)

The July revolution of 1830 in France also had an impact on Italian politics. The Papal States were very badly affected. From the Papal States the movement spread to Piedmont, Parma and Modena. The Pope Gregory XVI asked for the help of Austria. Metternich sent the Austrian army into Italy and the Papal States. Order was restored and the authority of the Pope was re-established. The rulers of Parma and Modena were also restored to their thrones. However, as soon as the Austrian troops left Italy, fresh revolts broke out and they had to return once again.

The revolt in Italy failed because the democratic efforts were disunited and not systematic. The people were not ripe for revolution.

Risorgimento

Translated into English the word Risorgimento means 're-awakening' or 'Rising Again'. As a historical term it has been used to describe the development of a national identity, a national sentiment, and awareness among Italians of a common culture. The Risorgimento was based on the ideal of a free and united Italy. It reminded the Italians of their greatness in the past. Politically, the revival was patriotic and national. It was a protest against Austrian domination and a demand for unity. It was liberal and democratic. There was a demand for parliamentary form of government, freedom of press, reduction of the powers of church, and the establishment of a republic. It presented the aspirations of the middle classes of Italy to develop them economically.

Another important factor in bringing about the Risorgimento was the leadership of idealists and intellectuals. They kept the hopes for an independent and united Italy alive even when their fortunes were at the lowest ebb. The historical writing of Balbo, the poetry of Leopardi, the novel of Mazzini, the musical composition of Verdi all inspired the Italian mind to conceive of a unified Italy under Italian rule.

Revolution of 1848

A series of uprisings known as the Revolution of 1848 occurred throughout Europe including France, Germany, the Austrian Empire and northern Italy. In Italy the revolution occurred in the Kingdom of Naples where the king signed a constitution. In the Papal States, radicals took over Rome, causing the Pope to flee. In the absence of the Pope, Garibaldi and Mazzini created a republic called the Roman Republic. In Piedmont, after the insistence of nationalist activists, the King Charles Albert sent military help to Lombardy to fight the Austrians. Although some of the revolutions were successful in the beginning they were quickly crushed. In 1849, France sent troops to Rome and destroyed the short lived Roman Republic. Piedmont lost to Austria and the King Charles Albert was forced to abdicate, causing his son, Victor Emanuel II to become king in 1849.

It is difficult for historians to draw conclusions from the 1848 revolutions. However, the following points can be made with some confidence.

1. It is clear that the insurrections in Italy were mainly regional in nature.
2. Some groups hoped for revolutionary change. However, the majority were more conservative in their ambition. The confusion of aims means that it is impossible to generalise that the uprisings were either national or nationalistic.
3. The wars fought by Charles Albert were not wars of national liberation but an attempt to annex territory in northern Italy.
4. Austrian control of parts of northern Italy and influence throughout the peninsula had been challenged but not removed.

5.9.2 Obstacles in the Unification of Italy

Since the Congress of Vienna in 1815, Italy was divided into eight states were put under Austria or foreign rule, except the Kingdom of Sardinia. In fact, there was not a country called Italy, it existed on the map as geographical expression. During the Italian unification movement, it had to face a lot of obstacles such as foreign intervention, disunity of the Italian, weak national feeling among the Italian states. Both the serious obstacles hindered the Italian to unify their country. It made Italian to overcome all obstacles with nearly six decades in order to complete the unification movement. In 1870, she finally completed her unification through policies and the element of luck.

Since the powers divided Italy into eight states, and Austria controlled most of them. It seemed Austria had played a major role to hinder the Italian unification. Then, the first obstacle was the intervention of Austria. Austria made use of her influence to stop the unification in order to protect her interest. Austria was a multi-racial empire. She must suppress the Italian unification movement in order to keep her country in stable. Austria directly ruled Lombardy and Venetia. She also ruled Parma, Modena and Tuscany indirectly. Although Piedmont- Sardinia tried to conquer these states, it was defeated by Austria as the military inferiority of Piedmont-Sardinia. Therefore, it was hard

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for the Italians to unify the country herself by military force. However, Cavour got the help from France to defeat Austria in 1860 and get back Lombardy. Later, she also got back Venetia through Austro-Prussian War in 1866 as she allied with Prussia.

France also was an obstacle in foreign intervention. In 1849, France sent troops to Rome in order to protect the Pope. It hindered the Piedmont-Sardinia to unify the country in final stage. In 1870, Franco-Prussian War broke out and France called back the troops in Rome to fight against Prussia. It helped Italy to complete the unification movement without defeated the French garrison in Rome. The foreign countries controlled the Italian states and intervened Italian affair brought a great obstacle to the unification.

The second obstacle was the disunity of the Italian. Having different political view had made the unification movement more difficult. For example, Mazzini set up the Society of Young Italy in 1830 and aimed to unite Italy under a republic. Other Italian wanted to set up a constitutional government under the leadership of an Italian king or a confederation of Italian states under the Pope's leadership. Although they both wanted to expel foreign rule and build their country, their different aim made them hard to work closely. In 1848, Piedmont-Sardinia attacked Austria in order to unify the northern Italian states. During the war, the southern Italian states didn't give any response or even sent troops to help Piedmont against Austria. Therefore, disunity of Italian made it hard to complete the unification. French garrison in Rome after July 1849 showed the failure of Republicanism. The Pope withdrew the support in early 1849 showed the failure of building a Federation under the Pope. Therefore, Italians knew that the only way to unify the country, they could only support Piedmont. After they solved the different political view, Italian cooperated together and achieved the unification.

The last obstacle of unification of Italian was weak national feeling. When Piedmont started a war with Austria, other Italian states didn't take any action to help her. The defeat of Piedmont showed its lack of support from Italian. Italian was still ruled by foreign powers, they were senseless of unify Italy. Since 1831, Mazzini set up by Society of Young Italy in order to promote republicanism. At the same, he also promoted the nationalist feeling among the Italian. Though his republican experiment failed in 1849, it awakened Italian. In 1860, three Italian states, Parma, Modena and Tuscany held a plebiscite to join Piedmont-Sardinia. Later in 1861, Garibaldi as a patriot conquered Sicily with his thousand red shirts. All of the above cases showed the national feeling had been strengthened among the Italian. Therefore, an obstacle of weak national feeling among Italian was overcome.

5.9.3 Role of Joseph Mazzini (1805-1872)

The greatest among leaders of the Italian unification was Joseph Mazzini. He was one of the three men to whom above all others the attainment of Italian unity was due. George Meredith, the English poet, said, "Cavour, Mazzini, and Garibaldi: Three: Her brain, Her Soul, Her Sword". He created the spirit of

Risorgimento and made the Italian realize that, since they were one people, they should be unified.

Joseph Mazzini was a son of a physician at Genoa University. He was attracted to the struggle for Italian unification in his childhood. In 1815, when Joseph Mazzini was only 10 years old, Genoa came under the rule of Piedmont. Mazzini was attracted by literature. In his youth he studied the literature of Italy, England, France and Germany. He was influenced by the writings of Dante, Byron, Goethe, Shakespeare, Scott and Schiller. He wanted to promote a revolution in Italy through his writings. He soon became a member of the Carbonari movement.

In 1831 Mazzini travelled to Tuscany, where he became a member of the Carbonari, a secret association with political purposes. On October 31 of that year he was arrested at Genoa and interned at Savona. During his imprisonment he devised the outlines of a new patriotic movement aiming to replace the unsuccessful Carbonari. Although freed in early 1831, he chose exile instead of life confined into the small hamlet which was requested of him by the police, moving to Geneva in Switzerland. A succession of failed attempts at promoting further uprising in Sicily, Abruzzi, Tuscany and Lombardy-Venetia discouraged Mazzini for a long period, which dragged on until 1840.

Young Italy

Founded in 1831, this organisation had an impact on the political development of Italy. The uniform of Young Italy consisted of the national colours of Italy which were worn in combination with a green blouse being complemented with a red belt and white trousers.

It was the failure of the secret societies in the 1820s and 1830s revolutions that led to the founding of a new organization Young Italy by Joseph Mazzini. This new organisation did not reject all aspects of the secret societies. It looked after its members and gave those passwords, uniforms and ritual. However there were differences in both organisation and philosophy that were to make Young Italy distinct.

- The organization was accompanied by a journal edited by Mazzini, also entitled Young Italy. This journal was important in spreading the ideas of Mazzini.
- At the heart of Mazzini's ideas was a belief in democracy and that the will of the people (*la plebe*) should be listened to. In his view, God's Will was expressed through the people and therefore their demands mirrored the demands of the Lord.
- In Mazzini's view, the will of the people was to live in an independent nation of 'free and equal men'. To achieve this independent nation it was necessary to engage in a national revolution.
- Where Mazzini differed was in the scope of his vision. He did not just see a union of northern Italian states, as did so many other patriots. He envisaged a union of all Italian-speaking provinces- including the south, Sicily and Sardinia. In 1829, he clearly summarized his vision:

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‘The fatherland of an Italian is not Rome, Florence or Milan but the whole of Italy’.

- Young Italy was republican in its views. This did not mean that Mazzini dismissed out of hand constitutional monarchies. These were, in his views, useful as a stepping stone on the way to the ideal: a united Italian republic. Indeed, in 1831 Mazzini wrote to the King of Piedmont, Charles Albert, asking him to put himself at the head of the movement for a united Italy. In his letter, Mazzini asked that the king lead the nation and put on his banner ‘Union, Liberty, and Independence’.

The Failures of Young Italy

The ideas of Young Italy were spread from Marseilles in France (Mazzini’s base) to Piedmont, the Papal States and Tuscany. In Piedmont the readership of Young Italy grew and new adherents to the cause of revolution were recruited. However, the attempts at revolution ended in farce. In 1833 a proposed army coup was detected before it would begin. The response of Charles Albert’s government was ferocious. Twelve members of Young Italy were executed out of 67 people arrested.

In 1834, a planned attack on Piedmont was suppressed before it started. An uprising in Genoa scheduled for February 1834 and led by a new recruit to the Young Italy movement, Giuseppe Garibaldi, also failed to get off the ground. Such failures made Young Italy a laughing stock throughout Italy. Mazzini lived in Switzerland from 1834 to 1837, and then moved to London where he lived for the next twelve years. However, it is important to point out that although his attempts at revolution in the 1830s seemed to be feeble and unrealistic, his ideas, even at this stage, were an inspiration to others.

The revolution of 1848 in France made an impact on Italy. The revolution which spread in Italy in 1848 was mainly due to the efforts of Joseph Mazzini. He was successful in establishing a republic in Rome; however, Napoleon III sent the French troops in Rome and re-established the Pope in Rome. Mazzini went into exile after this failure of his movement. In 1860 the island of Sicily revolted and established its independence. The dream of Mazzini was fulfilled in part. However, though Italy was united, it had not yet achieved the status of a republic. Mazzini wanted Italy to be a republic. Therefore, it can be said that Mazzini’s dream of a Republic of united Italy was partially fulfilled. Though the political and diplomatic leadership of the unification of Italy rests with Count Cavour, Joseph Mazzini was a leader who inspired the unification movement with his revolutionary fervour. Mazzini was at heart an idealist dreamer. He wanted to achieve the unification of Italy without help from any external country. However, this wish of Mazzini was extremely difficult to be implemented in reality. The Austrian empire was extremely powerful and it was rather difficult for the Italian people to counter it on their own. As a result, the views of Mazzini in this regard sounded impractical to many Italian people. He gradually lost his following among the people and spent his last days outside Italy. Mazzini died in 1872.

5.9.4 Victor Emmanuel II and Cavour

In 1850, Austria was still the dominant power on the Italian peninsula. After the failure of the revolution of 1848-49, a growing number of advocates for Italian unification focused on the northern Italian state of Piedmont as their best hope to achieve their goal. The royal house of Savoy ruled the kingdom of Piedmont, which also included the island of Sardinia. Although soundly defeated by the Austrians in 1848-1849, Piedmont under King Charles Albert had made a valiant effort; it seemed reasonable that Piedmont would now assume the leading role in the cause of national unity. The little state seemed unlikely to supply the needed leadership, however, until the new king, Victor Emmanuel II and Count Camillo Cavour as his prime minister in 1852.

The 1850s were an important period of political and economic development and change in Piedmont.

- The political system and how it operated was very much conditioned by Cavour's influence.
- Economic and financial reform further enhanced Piedmont's reputation as a modernised state.
- Both political and economic change enhanced Piedmont's role as the potential natural leader of the peninsula and power most likely to be able to expel the Austrians from Lombardy and Venice.

Victor Emmanuel II

Victor Emmanuel II was born in 1820 in Turin in the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia. He was King of Sardinia from 1849 and 1861 and first king of a united Italy from 1861 to 78). The son of Charles Albert, he took part in the war against Austria (1848) and became king when his father abdicated in 1849. Assisted by his minister Count Camillo Cavour, he strengthened the kingdom and supported the Risorgimento movement for unity. In the war with Austria (1859-61), he commanded troops to victories in the Battles of Magenta and Solferino. He secretly encouraged Giuseppe de Garibaldi in the conquest of Sicily and Naples and led the invasion of the Papal States. He assumed the title of king of Italy (1861) and later acquired Venetia (1866) and Rome (1870).

Cavour (1810-1861)

Cavour was born in 1810. His father was nobleman in the Kingdom of Piedmont. Cavour was a liberal minded nobleman who had made a fortune in agriculture and went on to make even more money in banking, railroads, and shipping. Cavour was a moderate who favoured constitutional government. He was a consummate politician with the ability to persuade others of the rightness of his own convictions. After becoming prime minister in 1852, he pursued a policy of economic expansion, encouraging the building of roads, canals and railroads and fostering business enterprise by expanding credit and stimulating investment in new industries. The growth in the economy of Piedmont and the subsequent increase in government revenues enabled Cavour to pour money into equipping a large army.

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Cavour had no illusions about Piedmont's military strength and was well aware that he could not challenge Austria directly. He would need the French. In 1858, Cavour came to an agreement with Napoleon III. The emperor agreed to ally with Piedmont in driving the Austrians out of Italy. Once the Austrians were driven out, Italy would be reorganised. Piedmont would be extended into the kingdom of Upper Italy by adding Lombardy, Venetia, Parma, Modena and part of the Papal States to its territory. In compensation for its efforts, France would receive the Piedmontese provinces of Nice and Savoy. A kingdom of Central Italy would be created for Napoleon III's cousin, Prince Napoleon, who would be married to the younger daughter of King Victor Emmanuel. This agreement between Napoleon III and Cavour seemed to ensure the French ruler of the opportunity to control Italy. Confident that the plan would work, Cavour provoked the Austrians into invading Piedmont in April 1859.

Italy and the Crimean War

As the king's Prime Minister Cavour had considerable power to make foreign policy as he saw fit and without Parliament's approval. He was determined to exercise this power for the advancement of the interests of Piedmont. Primarily, there interests were:

1. A weakened Austrian influence in the north of Italy, and
2. The promotion of interests of Piedmont.

Cavour hoped European powers might be interested in Italian problems if Piedmont played an active role abroad. In 1854, Britain and France declared war against Russia and sent troops to fight in the Crimea. In January 1855, Cavour decided to join the war on the side of the allies (Britain and France). He ordered a dispatch of 15,000 troops to Crimea. Cavour took this decision for a number of reasons. However, the main reason was that Cavour wanted to break the close understanding of Austria with Britain and France. At the Paris Peace conferences after the war, Italian affairs were debated and Napoleon III continued to express interests. However, Cavour was unable to gain French support for any changes in Italy.

The Orsini Affair

On 14th January 1858, four Italians led by Count Felice Orsini, attempted to assassinate Napoleon III as he arrived at the opera with his wife. The rationale for such action was that the assassination of Napoleon would lead to the restoration of a republic in France that would be well disposed to the creation of an Italian republic. In the event, Orsini's bomb failed to harm its target; it did, however, manage to kill seven onlookers and injure 150 others.

At his trial, Orsini appealed to Napoleon to actively support the cause of Italian unity. By doing so, he would ensure that 'the blessings of 25 million citizens would follow him to posterity'. It has been assumed that these words in some way created a spark in Napoleon's conscience that triggered him into action and led to the arrangement of a meeting in Plombieres on 20th July 1858. This assumption is dubious. Napoleon might have wanted to use Orsini's plea as a cover for what was in reality, some hard politics.

Treaty between Cavour and Napoleon

It was agreed at the secret meeting in Plombieres that France would join Piedmont in war against Austria, if war could be provoked in a way acceptable to opinion in the two countries. The aim, of course, was to use military force to drive Austria out of Italy. The conditions of the secret treaty were:

1. France will give military help to Piedmont in the war against Austria.
2. If France is successful in driving Austria out of the provinces of Lombardy and Venetia, Piedmont would give France the provinces of Nice and Savoy.
3. The states of Parma, Modena and Tuscany will be given to Piedmont.
4. It was agreed at Plombieres that a marriage would first be arranged between the daughter of Emmanuel, and Jerome, a cousin of Napoleon III. This took place in September 1758 and cleared the way for tightening the arrangements between the two countries. France and Piedmont signed a formal military alliance in January 1859.

Formation of the National Society

In 1857 Mazzini, working from England, organised insurrections in Genoa and Livorno. However, he failed. Many Italian nationalists then realized the futility of isolated uprisings. A new organization, the National Society, was formed which united many of the groups of the nationalists. Its leaders were Pallavicino, La Farina, Garibaldi and Daniele Manin. They believed that Cavour would be a valuable ally to coordinate the activities of the Italian national movement. The motto of the society became “Independence, unity and constitutional liberty’ under the Savoy dynasty.

Cavour’s Negotiation with the National Society

Cavour saw the value of encouraging the activities of the secret societies which many Italians supported. These societies drew attention of the world to the problems of Italy and contributed to the spread of nationalist spirit at home. Though publicly Cavour disowned any activities which would he viewed with alarm, he privately informed La Farina in October 1858 of his aims to bring about uprising in the northern and central states. The Society played a valuable part in preparing the public mood for war. Garibaldi was asked to form a volunteer force. The society prepared arms depots and circulated pamphlets supporting the leadership of Piedmont.

War with Austria (1859)

Both Austria and Piedmont started to mobilize their forces. Cavour aimed at a defensive mobilization to force Austrian to issue an ultimatum. Because of the wish to protect her security, Austria had made the initial mistake of mobilizing her large army too soon. To keep the Austrian army mobilized indefinitely was an expensive procedure. On 19th April, Austria sent an ultimatum asking Cavour to demobilize the army within three days or face war. This was a blunder as it supplied Cavour with the provocation he needed. Piedmont refused, and Austria declared war, thereby appearing the aggressor.

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The military weakness of Austria was soon revealed. Important factors contributing to her defeat were 1) Poor commanders 2) Poor strategy 3) Insufficient forces and 4) Poor morale of the army.

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After preliminary skirmishes, two bloody battles were fought at Magenta and Solferino. Losses were heavy on both sides but they were narrow victories for the French and Italians, who then conquered the whole of Lombardy. The Austrians retreated.

Treaty of Villafranca (1859)

The Preliminary peace terms were settled on 11th July 1859 at Villafranca near Verona. Cavour was not consulted. The following were the terms:

1. Lombardy was transferred to Piedmont.
2. Venetia was to remain with Austria
3. All Italy was to be included in a new confederation. This was to be under the titular presidency of the Pope.
4. The hereditary rulers of the states in middle Italy, Tuscany, Modena, Parma and Romagna were to be restored.

Since Cavour was kept away from negotiations, he accused Napoleon III of betraying the cause of the Italian people. It is worthy of notice that the peace of Villafranca was signed by Napoleon III without consulting Piedmont. The result was that for many Italians and particularly for Cavour, it seemed treason to their cause. He is said to have remarked, "Nothing can come out of this peace. I will turn the conspirator and revolutionary, but this treaty shall not be carried out". The treaty of Villafranca outraged Cavour and after an interview with Victor Emmanuel, he resigned his post as Prime Minister but later came back to his post again.

Resignation of Cavour

The people of Italy were disappointed with the treaty of Villafranca. Count Cavour tried to convince Victor Emmanuel III to oppose the treaty. But Victor Emmanuel decided to keep the part of Lombardy he had received in the treaty and try to acquire the remaining part later. This was because Victor Emmanuel thought that it was difficult to continue the struggle against Austria without the help of France. Victor Emmanuel gave his consent to the conditions regarding Lombardy and Venetia in the treaty of Villafranca in an agreement with Austria at the Treaty of Zurich. Cavour was so disappointed that resigned as Prime Minister of Piedmont. However, Victor Emmanuel was able to convince him to re-join his duties as Prime Minister in the next fifteen days.

The Plebiscites

It was found that the people of Tuscany, Modena, Parma, Romagna were not prepared to allow the Emperors of France and Austria to hand them back to their old rulers. They demanded union with the kingdom of Piedmont. Thus, it was found difficult to carry into effect the terms of the peace of Villafranca.

Cavour who had taken over at the Prime Minister of Piedmont again in January 1860 decided to settle the Italian question by direct secret negotiations. Cavour employed the method of Plebiscites in Italy. The Plebiscites were an opportunity to Piedmont to engineer annexation with the help of National Society, which campaigned enthusiastically. All males over 21 were given an opportunity to vote. Their choice was:

- Annexation to the constitutional monarchy of Victor Emmanuel II, or
- A separate kingdom.

When the elections took place in March 1860, it was little surprise the plebiscites resulted in crushing victory for those in favour of annexation. The votes were as follows:

	For annexation	Against annexation
Tuscany	386,445	14,925
Emilia	427,512	756
Savoy (to France)	130,583	235
Nice	24,448	160

As a result of the plebiscites the states Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Romagna were annexed to the state of Piedmont and the provinces of Savoy and Nice were to be given to France.

As a result of the Plebiscites Parma, Modena, Modena, Tuscany and Romagna were unified with Piedmont. Thus till 1860, the stage of unification of North and Middle Italy was complete with the exception of Venetia and the Vatican, which was under the control of the Pope.

Death of Cavour

In January 1861, the first all Italian parliament met in Turin and on March 17th Victor Emmanuel II assumed the title of King of Italy. Only Venetia and the Vatican City at Rome remained unconquered for Italian unification. Cavour died on 6th June 1861 at Turin during the final stage of the unification of Italy. This was the time when Italy was in great need of his diplomatic and parliamentary ability if his work was to be completed and true national unity preserved.

5.9.5 Role of Giuseppe Garibaldi (July 1807-June 1882)

Giuseppe Garibaldi was an important Italian military and political figure. In his twenties, he joined the Carbonari Italian patriot revolutionaries, and fled Italy after a failed insurrection. He returned to Italy as a commander in the conflicts of the Risorgimento. He is considered an Italian national hero.

Garibaldi was born on 4th July, 1807 in southern Italy in the province of Nice. His father was a seaman. In his childhood, Garibaldi was extremely rebellious in nature. His father wanted him to get educated and pursue a career of a priest. However, Garibaldi did not make much progress in education and pursued his liking for seafaring by travelling in the Mediterranean Sea. He

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preferred the life of a seafarer. Garibaldi was influenced by the ideas of Joseph Mazzini in his youth and had great belief in the ideology and work of Mazzini. In 1833 he participated in a revolt initiated by Mazzini. Mazzini had assigned him the work of infiltrating the navy of Piedmont-Sardinia and influences the naval ratings to support the cause of an independent Italy. However, Garibaldi was unsuccessful in his efforts and was captured by the government of Piedmont. Garibaldi was able to escape from captivity and take refuge in America. Garibaldi spent the next 14 years in America. He took part in a number of rebellions in America and earned invaluable experience in guerilla warfare. He also received military training during these rebellions.

Garibaldi returned to Italy after the revolution of 1848. He built up a separate detachment of the army under his leadership known as the Red Shirts. The soldiers of the detachment wore clothes of red colour which signified revolution. Garibaldi was successful in inspiring the soldiers of the platoon. Garibaldi was the General of the Army when Rome was declared a Republic. However, Napoleon III of France interfered and reinstated the Pope in Rome. Garibaldi was disappointed by this failure and returned to America.

Unification of Sicily and Naples

The union of Central Italy with Piedmont inspired the people of Sicily and Naples. They revolted against the rule of absolute monarchs. Garibaldi had led the Italian army against Austria. Garibaldi went to help the people of Sicily and Naples. He was able to defeat the King of Sicily within one week (5th August, 1860). After this victory he marched on the kingdom of Naples. The king of Naples fled without offering any resistance (6th September 1860). Garibaldi then transferred his attention to Rome. However, Count Cavour had certain misgivings about the intentions of Garibaldi. Moreover, the French army was stationed at Rome to protect the Pope.

Therefore, an attack on Rome would have angered the French. Cavour was also afraid that the victory of Garibaldi would lead to establishment of an independent kingdom of Rome. Cavour decided to pre-empt these problems by sending the Italian army to attack Rome. The Emperor of France, Napoleon III, also supported the action taken by Cavour. Victor Emmanuel declared war on Rome which was under the control of the Pope. The Italian army invaded and conquered the provinces of Umbria and Marches. Then the victorious troops pushed on towards Naples. Garibaldi met Victor Emmanuel and handed over to him Sicily and Naples.

Transformation of Piedmont into Italy

The union of Italy, except for Venetia and the part of Rome under the Pope, was completed. On 18th February 1861 the name of the kingdom of Piedmont was changed to Italy and Victor Emmanuel II assumed the title of King of Italy. Thus, Cavour's dream of completing the unification of Italy under the leadership of Piedmont was completed.

The union of Venetia

The kingdom of Piedmont was transformed into the Kingdom of Italy. However, Rome and Venetia had not been united with Italy. Till 1866 no major effort was made to achieve the unification of Rome and Venetia. In Germany, Bismarck had initiated efforts to unify Germany during this period. Prussia needed to defeat Austria to encourage the unification of Germany. Therefore, Bismarck had provoked a war with Austria. During this war Bismarck suggested to Victor Emmanuel that he attack Venetia. Victor Emmanuel took this opportunity and launched an attack on Venetia. Though Italy was defeated in the war, Prussia was able to defeat Austria in the battle of Sandow. Therefore, Austria had to give up Venetia which was united with Italy in 1866.

Integration of Rome and Unification of Italy (1871)

Only Rome remained outside Italy in 1866. The Pope, the religious of Roman Catholic Christians, had control over Rome. Napoleon III, the emperor of France had accepted the responsibility of protecting the Pope. However in 1870 France was attacked by Prussia. One effect of this Franco-Prussian war was that France had to withdraw its troops from Rome. Victor Emmanuel took this opportunity and attacked Rome and established Italian rule over Rome. In this manner the unification of Italy was complete.

How do we make sense of the events that comprised the Italian unification? One popular explanation has been to stress nationalism, the force of which produced the Risorgimento, a revival or awakening in Italy amounting to a national rebirth. Such an interpretation implies that Italy came into being not as a result of war and diplomacy and the actions of foreigners but essentially as a result of its own growth and the abilities and the abilities and actions of Italians

Many writers from the 1860s onwards have favoured the notion of Risorgimento, insisting that the timing of unification and the precise form that it took were determined by the exploits of Cavour and Garibaldi, the two greatest heroes of nineteenth century Italian history. Their successful partnership brought the Risorgimento to a glorious conclusion. The essence of this interpretation is that Italians co-operated, and thus earned their own liberation from oppressive rule.

Many modern historians, however, have doubts about this interpretation. They cannot see the nationalist movement proceeding to an almost pre-ordained and glorious unification. They note continued divisions between the different nationalist groups during the 1850s and 1860s, the necessity for foreign help in defeating Austria, especially from France, and tend to see the unification of 1860 stemming not from the cooperation of Cavour and Garibaldi but from their rivalries and indeed hostility. In short, they emphasize other factors more than those historians who still believe that the Risorgimento explains unification.

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Check Your Progress

15. What was Carbonari?
16. Define Risorgimento.

5.10 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. The word liberal is derived from the Latin word liber which means free men Liberalism is also a derivative of liber. The central idea of all these words is freedom or liberty.
2. The Reform Act of 1832 was the first parliamentary Reform Act in England. It was a landmark in her constitutional history. It paved the way for democratizing the nation. It opened the “Era of Parliamentary Reforms” in England.
3. The British parliament consisted of two houses, viz, House of Lords and House of Commons.
4. Trevelyan has rightly called it “Modern Magna Carta” of England.
5. Chartism was a working-class movement for political reform in Britain which existed from 1838 to 1858.
6. In 1836 Cornish cabinet-maker William Lovett formed the London Working Men’s Association.
7. The Reform Act of 1867 was another important Reform Act in the constitutional history of England. The lacunas of the reform Act of 1832 made the inevitability of the passage of the Reform Act of 1867.
8. The tenants of the constituencies in the county who paid rent of 12 pounds annually also enjoyed the right to vote.
9. The war broke out between the two sections: the North and the South Americans.
10. The emancipation proclamation was a constitutional act. Abraham Lincoln ratified it in January 1 1863. This constitutional act changed the course of the war, and it aimed to both preserving the nation and abolishing slavery.
11. Louis Napoleon was proclaimed Emperor in 1852 with the title, Napoleon III.
12. Louis Napoleon made grand reconstruction of Paris which was directed by his prefect of the Seine, Georges-Eugène Haussmann. The program included building of wide avenues, demolition of neighbourhoods deemed unhealthy by officials, construction of better roads, parks, and public utilities. The massive project continued from 1853-70.
13. Napoleon Bonaparte reduced the states of Germany into 39.
14. It was under the leadership of William I and his Chancellor Otto von Bismarck that Prussia achieved the unification of Germany.

15. Carbonari was the largest among the secret societies in Italy. The translated version of the name Carbonari means ‘charcoal burners’.
16. Translated into English the word Risorgimento means ‘re-awakening’ or ‘Rising Again’. As a historical term it has been used to describe the development of a national identity, a national sentiment, and awareness among Italians of a common culture.

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5.11 SUMMARY

- The word liberal is derived from the Latin word liber which means free men Liberalism is also a derivative of liber. The central idea of all these words is freedom or liberty.
- It is really an uphill task to ascertain the origin of liberalism because an ideology cannot be created at a particular point of time. However, it’s quite safe to say that liberalism was born in England during the middle of seventeenth century.
- Liberalism has been branded by many as meta-ideology which means that it encompasses many principles, values and elements within its fold. Whereas other ideologies do not possess this capacity.
- England is the mother country of Democracy. It was under the parliamentary form of government. Parliament was not new for the British. It was prevailed there in Britain from the days of Edward in later middle ages.
- The Reform Act of 1832 was the first parliamentary Reform Act in England. It was a landmark in her constitutional history. It paved the way for democratizing the nation. It opened the “Era of Parliamentary Reforms” in England.
- On the whole, the reform Act of 1832 was a milestone in the constitutional history of England. From the passage of the bill there was socio-political liberalism in England. It showed the path for parliamentary reform. Finally, Britain became the most important democratic county in the world.
- Chartism was a working-class movement for political reform in Britain which existed from 1838 to 1858. It took its name from the People’s Charter of 1838 and was a national protest movement, with particular strongholds of support in the north of England, the east Midlands, the Potteries, the Black Country and south Wales.
- Reform of the electoral system finally arrived with the 1832 Reform Act, which increased the proportion of eligible voters in England and Wales to 18 per cent of the adult-male population and 12 per cent in Scotland.
- The Reform Act of 1867 was another important Reform Act in the constitutional history of England. The lacunas of the reform Act of 1832 made the inevitability of the passage of the Reform Act of 1867.

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- The Reform Act of 1867 was a great landmark in the process of democratic movement of England. It was a commendable victory of the people of England.
- The American Civil War was one of the bloodiest wars in the history of America. It took place from 1861 to 1865. The war broke out between the two sections: the North and the South, and it emerged as a result of the differences between these two sections.
- The great tension ended up in a war between the newly formed Confederacy, and the Union. It was the bloodiest periods in American history. The Union army won all wars against the Confederate army. The Confederate rejoined the Union, and they were forced to free all slaves.
- Louis Napoleon ruthlessly crushed all opposition against him. Seeing the wind taking a favourable direction, he conducted a plebiscite in 1852 and by a larger majority than before; Louis Napoleon was proclaimed Emperor in 1852 with the title, Napoleon III.
- Napoleon III was firm believer in royal absolutism. He concentrated in his person all powers. The legislature had no real power. The ministers were appointed by him and made responsible to him. He vigorously censored the Press. The liberty of the people was trampled underfoot.
- There was a widespread movement for closer unity of Germany in 1848. Unification was achieved, however, not by popular uprisings but by the calculated exertion of power by Prussia under the leadership of Bismarck.
- It was under the leadership of William I and his Chancellor Otto von Bismarck that Prussia achieved the unification of Germany.
- Otto von Bismarck is known as the maker of modern Germany. Bismarck was born on 1st April 1815 in the Prussian province of Saxony.
- Bismarck believed that great things could not be achieved by merely giving speeches and undertaking elections. Only a policy of Blood and Iron could achieve great things.
- The influence of the French Revolution, reforms by Napoleon Bonaparte, the revolutionary ideas of Mazzini and Garibaldi and the statesmanship of Emmanuel II and Cavour developed nationalism in Italy which resulted into unification of Italy.
- The greatest among leaders of the Italian unification was Joseph Mazzini. He was one of the three men to whom above all others the attainment of Italian unity was due. George Meridith, the English poet, said, “Cavour, Mazzini, and Garibaldi: Three: Her brain, Her Soul, Her Sword”. He created the spirit of Risorgimento and made the Italian realize that, since they were one people, they should be unified.

- Many writers from the 1860s onwards have favoured the notion of Risorgimento, insisting that the timing of unification and the precise form that it took were determined by the exploits of Cavour and Garibaldi, the two greatest heroes of nineteenth century Italian history.

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5.12 KEY TERMS

- **Liberalism:** The word liberal is derived from the Latin word liber which means free men. Liberalism is also a derivative of liber. The central idea of all these words is freedom or liberty.
- **Reform Act of 1832:** The Reform Act of 1832 was the first parliamentary Reform Act in England. It was a landmark in her constitutional history. It paved the way for democratizing the nation. It opened the “Era of Parliamentary Reforms” in England.
- **Emancipation proclamation:** The emancipation proclamation was a constitutional act in America. Abraham Lincoln ratified it in January 1 1863. This constitutional act changed the course of the war, and it aimed to both preserving the nation and abolishing slavery.
- **14 Amendment:** The 14 amendment gave citizenship to all people born or naturalized in the United States. In addition, the amendment declared that no state under any law could interfere in one’s life, liberty and property.
- **Carbonari:** Carbonari was the largest among the secret societies in Italy. The translated version of the name Carbonari means ‘charcoal burners’.
- **Risorgimento:** Translated into English the word Risorgimento means ‘re-awakening’ or ‘Rising Again’. As a historical term it has been used to describe the development of a national identity, a national sentiment, and awareness among Italians of a common culture.

5.13 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What is liberalism?
2. Who was John Wilkes?
3. What was Chartist Movement?
4. What was the Act of 1832?
5. Who won the last period of the war?
6. In which year was Abraham Lincoln assassinated?
7. What was proclamation of Amnesty by Abraham Lincoln?

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8. What was 14 amendment?
9. Who was Napoleon III?
10. Who was William I?
11. Name the policy used by Bismark to unite Germany.
12. Who was Cavour?
13. Who was Garibaldi?

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the causes of the rise and growth of liberalism.
2. Describe the elements of liberalism.
3. What were the circumstances responsible for the Reform Act of 1832? Explain.
4. Write the provisions of the Act of 1832. Also write the merits and demerits of the act.
5. Write an essay on Chartist Movement.
6. Explain the causes of the American Civil War.
7. Describe the role of Abraham Lincoln in the American Civil War.
8. Describe the Home Policy of Napoleon III.
9. Explain the foreign policy of Napoleon III.
10. Describe the history of the unification of Germany.
11. What was the role played by Bismark in the unification of germany? Explain.
12. Write a story on the unification of Italy.
13. What was the role played by Mazzini in unification of Italy? Explain.
14. What was the role played by cavour in unification of Italy? Explain.

5.14 FURTHER READING

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