

## **HISTORY OF EUROPE FROM 1453 TO 1789 A D**

**Objective: To understand the Legacy of the middle Ages in Europe and to appreciate the beginnings of Modern Europe.**

### **Unit: I Europe in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> centuries:**

Geographical Explosion of Spain, Portugal, England and France-  
Effects-Renaissance in Europe- Factors aiding the flowering of  
Renaissance-Renaissance in Italy-, Germany, Spain, England-  
Renaissance in art, architecture, sculpture, paintings, drawings and  
science.

### **Unit II Reformation:**

Religious reformation- Decline of the Catholic Church and Papacy-  
The Rise of Humanist movement- Spread of secular attitude – Rise  
of Nationalism- Lutheranism in Germany- Protestantism in  
Switzerland-Anglicanism- Results of the Reformation- Counter  
Reformation

### **Unit: III Emergence of Nation States and National Monarchs:**

Causes for the rise of Nation States-Royal absolutism-  
England: Henry VII, Henry VIII, Edward VI, Elizabeth I- Spain:  
Ferdinand, Charles V, Philip II - France: Louis XI, Charles VIII,  
Francis I, Henry IV.

### **Unit: IV The Last Religious and the First Political War:**

The Importance of religious, dynastic, and economic issues of Thirty  
years war- Different Phases of the Thirty years War-Peace of  
Westphalia – France under Richelieu and Mazarin- Rise of Sweden-  
Gustavus Adolphus.

### **Unit: V Age of Enlightenment:**

Louis XIV of France- Peter the Great and Catherine II of Russia,  
Frederick William and Frederick William the Great of Prussia,  
Maria Theresa and Joseph II of Austria, Europe on the eve of French  
Revolution.

## Unit I

### **Geographical Discoveries:**

In 1453 Constantinople was taken by the Ottoman Turks. The capture of Constantinople was a great turning point in the history of Europe. It set Europe to find a new route to reach the East- preferably a sea route. Europeans of the fifteenth century knew only of the Christian civilization of the European Continent.

Only traders were travelling freely from one part to the other part without spices European food lacked the required taste and flavour without silk, gold, silver and precious stones European social life became dull. Europe had acquired considerable geographical knowledge during the middle ages. Marco Polo (1254-1324), the famous Italian merchant had left behind him records of his travel and stay in Cathay and his return journey was by sea. A Florentine merchant wrote A merchant's Handbook which indicated all the known trade routes between the East and West.

Geographical discoveries of the fifteenth century Europe owe much to the sincere efforts of Prince Henry, the Navigator (1394-1460). The second half of the fifteenth century witnessed remarkable progress in the geographical discoveries. Bartholomew Dias (1450-1500) reached the southernmost tip of Africa and named it the Cape of Storms. His report to King John II of Portugal caused great excitement and he later renamed the discovery as the "Cape of Good Hope".

In 1497, Vasco da Gama (1460-1524), another Portuguese explorer took three months to reach the tip of the African Continent. He ultimately reached Kerala's coastal town of Calicut on May 20, 1498.

### **Spanish Exploration:**

An Italian adventure, Amerigo Vespucci (1454-1512), who was in Spain as an agent of the banking house of Medici. During the last decade of the fifteenth century to the region visited by Columbus. He declared his conviction of having seen the “New World” in a letter which gets wide publicity. In 1507 when a German Cartographer was drawing the map of the world, he named the New World as America in honour of Amerigo Vespucci.

### **English Explorers:**

During the last quarter of the sixteenth century, the English Explorers like Sir Francis Darke, Gilbert and Sir Walter Raliegth explored the eastern coast of North America and laid claims to the territories situated from the bank of St.Lawrence to the southern coast of Florida. Patriotic Englishman admired his daring exploits in which he plundered the Spanish colonies and became rich. He introduced potato plant and tobacco to Europe which he brought from the New World.

### **French Explorers:**

John Verrazano, an Italian Captain in 1524, who discovered the Coast of Nova Scotia and New England and in 1534 the Frenchman Jacques Cartter to discover a north-west passage to the East across the Atlantic. In 1608, French explorer Samuel de Champlain discovered Quebec City. In the course of time France claimed the Whole region situated between St.Lawreance River and mouth of the Mississippi. It was named Louisiana in honour of king Louis XIV.

## **Ferdinand Magellan,s Voyage:**

Ferdinand Magellan was a Portuguese nobleman who approached the Spanish king Charles to sponsor his voyage around the world. He found the sea calm and therefore called it El Mare pacifico (The Calm sea). Although Spain forgot to give credit to Magellan, historian and cartographers called the straits at the southern tip of South America as the Straits of Magellan.

## **Results of Geographical Discoveries:**

1. The Monarchs of Europe who sponsored Oceanic explorations stood to gain much by discoveries. The wealth of their countries increased by increased import of raw materials from the newly found lands.
2. Portugal and Spain followed by other European countries enhanced their national glory by building overseas Empires.
3. The Portuguese and the Dutch gained immensely by buying spices and other oriental commodities and selling them to the Europeans.
4. People lived in cities and thrived on trade, business, banking, manufacturers and other gainful occupations.
5. Some of them fortunes and patronised art and literature.
6. Several Christian missions started sending their missionaries to convert the natives of the new continent into Christianity.
7. Higher Education facilities were provided by Spain to the natives when they set up universities in Mexico city and Lima in 1551.
8. The thinking of Europeans began to change with the ending of Continental isolations.

## **The Renaissance in Europe:**

The term 'Renaissance' is French and derived from the Latin word, *renascor*, meaning rebirth. The Renaissance was an intellectual movement and in the course of time developed many characteristics of its own. One may say that Renaissance art and literature were deeply influenced by ancient classical civilization.

## **Causes for Renaissance:**

1. A succession of events in the year 1453 led to most significant results in European history. It was during that year the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire.
2. Even their arrival the humanist scholar opened the eyes and minds of Greek and Roman civilization.
3. Soldiers learned other countries literatures so, the renaissance also birth.
4. With the help of artist, lords and Chieftains, the people knew the concept of Ancient Greek Latin literatures for example: Pope Nicolas V and Pope Lio X.

## **Reasons for Renaissance in Italy:**

1. Italy is the birth place of Renaissance. Scholars believed Italy is the school of New Europe.
2. Capture of Constantinople city life help of landlords in Italy (patronised) Ancient Roman civilization and growth of Latin languages, philosophers of Italy. These all developed and helped the Renaissance in Italy.
3. Petrarch, Boccaccio, Dante, Davinci, Angelo Raphale etc were encouraged and helped a lot for growth of literature.

## **Renaissance in Literature:**

The Renaissance period ushered a new era in Literature. They stimulated man's interest in such disciplines as pagan literature, history, poetry and philosophy.

### **1. Petrarch:**

Italy produced the greatest humanist scholar in the person of Petrarch (1304-1374). He enjoyed the patronage of Pope Clement VI, Emperor Charles IV and king of Naples. The writings of this great "father of humanism" in Italy.

### **2. Dante:**

One of the triumvirates of Italy's early literary Renaissance was Dante Alighieri(1265-1321). His magnum opus was Divina Commedia (Divine Comedy). He wrote another book Vita Nuova.

### **3. Boccaccio(1313-1375)**

He wrote stories in Italian. He wrote worldly pleasures and his novel Decamerone known for bawdy tales made him extremely popular. His Latin work was De Claris Mulieribus.

4. **Ariosto Tasso** wrote poem consisting of 39,000 lines in ten years called it Orlando Furioso

5. **Cosimo-de-Medici** who became the leader of Florence maintained Europe's first public library which included books in Greek.

### **6. Sir Thomas More:**

More's Utopia in Latin in 1516 resembled Plato's work Republic. His work described such ideas as communal ownership of land religious tolerance and education of men and women. More was the forerunner of Marxian Communism in a way.

## **7. Cervantes:**

Cervantes sketches the story of Don Quixote and Sancho Panza who go on a tour like the brave knights and meet with many comic situations.

## **8. Erasmus:**

Erasmus wrote "New Testament and Praise of Folly".

9. **The Queen Elizabeth I** period was called Golden age of English Literature. Shakespeare, Marlow, Webster, Fletcher were dramatic teachers. Shakespeare's Midsummer night, King Lear, The twelfth night, The Tempest, Julius Ceasar, Macbeth, Edmund Spenser's The Farry, Philip Sydey's Areadia. Jamilton's The Paradise Lost and The Paraise Regained.

### **Renaissance of Art:**

The genesis of the age of Renaissance in Europe were Michaelangelo(1475-1564), Raphael (1483-1520), Leonardo da vinci (1452-1519).

### **Architecture and Sculpture:**

The Gothic architecture was discarded and it was replaced by the Renaissance architecture. The St.Peter's church at Rome offers a typical Renaissance style.

### **Brunelleschi (1377-1446)**

Brunelleschi evinced keen interest in the early Roman architecture. He designed Pitti palace and the dome of the Cathedral at Florence. Bramante was very much influenced by old Greek and Roman architecture. He had built Belvedere the Summer Palace of the Pope known for its great beauty. Andrea Palladio a great architect of Venice built elegant villas for rich merchants.

### **Michael Angelo:**

Michael Angelo was better known for his work sculpture than as an artist and architect. He made a statue in Rome. It is called the Pieta and it showed the body of Christ carried by His mother. In 1501, he carved another master piece 'David' for the council of the Republic. Michelangelo's statues of 'David' and 'Moses' show the glorification of the human body and deep anatomical study.

### **Raphael:**

Raphael belonged to the Florentine school of painting. He was an architect. He was employed as an architect at the time of the construction of St.Peter's Basilica. The first master sculptor of Renaissance in Italy was Lorenzo Ghiberti. He was a Florentine who worked for twenty years he makes two pairs of bronze doors for the Baptisery at Florence. Donatello was another Florentine who went to Rome to study the old statues and ruins. His best known works are the statues of St. Mark in Venice and St.George in Florence.

### **Painting:**

#### **Leonardo da vinci:**

Leonardo da vinci was artist with scientific temper. His great paintings reflect not only his exceptional mastery over light, shade and colour but a careful study of human anatomy and problems of perspective. The Last Supper depicts Christ announcing at his last supper meeting that one of them was going to betray him. Monalisa is the painting of a merchant's wife, Madonna Elisabeth with a most enigmatic smile which has kept all the art lovers wondering for centuries. Leonardo's other two paintings which evoke great admirations are the virgin of the Rocks and The virgin and Child with Saint Anne.



## **Michelangelo:**

Michelangelo was a contemporary of Leonardo and Raphael. Michelangelo painted the Old Testament Story in the curved ceiling of the Sistine Chapel at the papal palace at the Vatican. The painting completed after four years of hard work unfolded the biblical drama of the story of God's creation of man, the great Prophets and the flood. It was the most superhuman and marvellous work ever accomplished by a single artist.

Michelangelo executed another fresco, the Last Judgement which may be considered another immortal work. Titian and Tintoretto were great painters who belonged to the Venetian school of painting. Titian produced oil paintings with mythological and pastoral themes. One of his most famous paintings 'the Assumption of the Virgin'. He was patronised by the Emperor Charles V and Philip II of Spain.

The foremost among Spanish painters in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries were El Greco, Velasquez, Murillo and Goya. El Greco began the mannerist style of painting in Spain after living in Toledo for many years. He painted on Canvas and for his method called "Modelling by light".

His well known works are "Christ in the Garden, Crucifixion and Burial of Count Orgaz". Probably his best work is "view of Toledo". Anthony Van Dyck was one of the most celebrated painters in England. In 1632 he was appointed official court painter by King Charles I of England whose portrait the artist painted. His famous work was "The children of Charles I". One of the most noted Dutch painters of the 17<sup>th</sup> century was Rembrandt. He painted Canvases showing women alone women singing. His great portraits are "Christ Healing the Sick", "Supper at Emmaus" and "portrait of an Old woman".

## **Renaissance in Science:**

In the middle ages, Europe made progress in science due to her contact with the Arabs, who in turn learnt many things from Indians. However, pure science couldn't develop until the advent of the 16<sup>th</sup> century. In 13<sup>th</sup> century Roger Bacon rejected the findings of Aristotle and insisted on methods of observation experiments and reasoning. Renaissance promoted spirit of enquiry and enabled Europe to take giant steps towards scientific and technological progress.

## **Astronomy:**

The first breakthrough in the knowledge of modern science was made in astronomy. Ptolemy the Greek scientist of the 2<sup>nd</sup> century A.D for well over 13<sup>th</sup> centuries, European's never questioned the geocentric theory of Ptolemy. The Pythagoreans (followers of Greek scientist Pythagoras) did not agree with this and advocated heliocentric theory. The credit of refuting the theory of Ptolemy went to Copernicus a Polish priest and astronomer (1453-1543) Copernicus watched the sky the stars, the comets, other celestial bodies and prepared charts and notes. Just before his death the results of his labour were published in a book from called "On the Revolutiond of the Heavenly Spheres (De Revolutionibus orbium Coelestium) which rejected Ptolemaic theory and proved heliocentric theory to be correct.

His assistant, Johannaes Kepler a German professor benefitted by these observations and included slight improvement upon the Copernican theory. He said that planets moved in elliptical orbits round the sun and not in a circle as Copernicus said. Galileo of Italy was a great astronomer mathematician and physicist. He used a telescope to study the movements of heavenly bodies for the first time. Galileo wisely decided to study alive but was convinced of the validity of heliocentric theory. Three years later Giordano Bruno was declared

heretic by the inquisition and burnt at the stake for agreeing with the Copernican system.

### **Scientific Methods:**

In Britain Sir Francis Bacon advocated the knowledge should be tested through verification that is by empirical methods. He stressed new ideals for education in his *Novum Organum* in 16<sup>20</sup> and also urged the use of empirical methods to test hypotheses. In the *New Atlantis* he said that man can harness nature through use of scientific knowledge.

### **Mathematics:**

Allied with astronomy was mathematics a science which registered considerable progress. A sound knowledge of mathematics proved to be useful either for calendar reform. Cardan who competed with him in solving the cubic equation was a physician by profession and helped the Pope and King of Denmark by giving his “Mathematical advice”. Ferrari solved quartic equations, Vieta used letters like  $x$  and  $y$  as variables in place of unknown quantities to speed up calculations. Descartes the famous French philosopher was the founder of Co-ordinate Geometry. Simon Stevin introduced decimals for his mathematical calculations in physics. He recommended the use of decimal system of coinage, weight and measures. John Napier introduced logarithms in 1614 and logarithms tables were prepared by Henry Briggs. Many mathematicians of Europe were finding out symbols for arithmetical and algebraic calculations such as  $+$ ,  $\times$ ,  $\div$ ,  $-$ ,  $=$ .

The great genius of the 17<sup>th</sup> century was undoubtedly Sir Issac Newton, whose *philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica* was hailed as the greatest work in modern science.

**Physics:**

Newton contributed much to mathematical physics which helped the growth of astronomy. His greatest contribution was “the law of gravitation” which he put forth in his principia in 1687. Newton is called “the father of modern Physics”.

**Metallurgy:**

In the science of Metallurgy, the pioneer was Agricola. He took more interest in modern medicine physics and chemistry. He lived in Bohemia and Bavaria and after much research in mining produced his magnum opus, Twelve Books on Metals.

**Medicine:**

William Harvey the famous English Physician discovered the circulation of blood from the heart to the arteries then to the Veins thereafter back to the heart.

**Chemistry:**

J.B.Van Helmont a contemporary of William Harvey discovered gases in the air. He invented the word gas and knew of the existence of carbon dioxide.

**Botany and Zoology:**

Konrad Van Gesner, a Swiss German wrote Catalogue of plants and enriched the subject of botany. The History of Animals started a new discipline called Zoology.

## **Politics:**

Renaissance also makes a change in Politics. Nicolo Machiavelli was a government ambassador and Florence city administrator. He was a good politician and had a lot of political experience. He wrote "The Prince" from the bearing of his experience. National Monarchy is greater than Government rule. Also Monarchy is developed than constitution. Pope and Diocesans' were against his book's concept but people would like to read it. His political principles were followed by the rulers and it was earned lot of influence.

## **Results of Renaissance:**

By the results of Renaissance they lose of identification was renewal again. There was great link made between Christianity and literature. The literary languages well growth each and every European countries. Renaissance made many reforms in Education. Renaissance promoted spirit of enquiry and enabled Europe to take giant scientific and technological. People knew the importance of Research. They accepted the experiments and analytical methods. History attained scientific status when "collecting, criticizing and editing of source became a part of the duty of the historian. People knew the literature, Maths, Science, Medicine, Art and Architecture by Renaissance. Feudalism was decline and the national rules came under the control of effective rulers. Religious Reformation came on force through the way of Renaissance. The printing machine was invented it made the Bible and people read it easily. Thereafter the concept of controversy knew to the people. Hence the Religious Reformation came on. At the end of the sixteenth century interest in the theory of national wealth increased leading to the growth of modern economics.

## **Unit II**

### **The Reformation**

#### **Causes of Reformation**

##### **Drawback of Roman Catholic's:**

The schism that developed in the Christian church may be regarded as one of the most significant development in the sixteenth century Europe. The Roman Catholic Church which held sway over all the Christians of central and Western Europe became corrupt lost much of its credibility with the intellectuals in the 16<sup>th</sup> century.

##### **Pope's corruptions:**

Pope's participated in the scandals. They behaved out of morality. The catholic church was organised into units like provinces the diocese and parishes which were run by a hierarchy of officials such as the Pope cardinals, archbishops, bishops, Parish priests, curates and deacons.

##### **Creating an aversion in church:**

In early age the church administration helped the education fund to the poor people and teach spiritual moral. Thereafter the churches used only for luxurious like celebrating place and earned money from rich people for their favourness. People hated the Francises, Dominics, Augustins who done the displease activities.

##### **Spread of secular attitude:**

Two factors accounted for developing secular attitude. The spread of "New learning" which mostly related to pagan literature developed a new outlook among people.

Erasmus wrote the praise of folly, ships of fools these two books makes awareness of corrupt in church. The rise of middle class in European society added a new dimension to the ethos. They tended to spurn religious orthodoxy and superiority of the church.

### **Rise of nationalism:**

The political situation in Europe during the early 16<sup>th</sup> century dramatically changed. Growth of Renaissance on the one hand and discovery of the new world on the other the church was fast becoming an obstacle to material and moral progress. Independent churches were set up in the name of Martin Luther in Germany. Ulrich Zwingli in Switzerland and John Calvin in France. In England, the Anglican Church emerged as the national church which did not recognise the Pope as its head. All these churches did not have anything to do with the Eastern Orthodox Church which was the first to break its connection with Rome much before.

### **Reformation in Germany:**

#### **Martin Luther:**

Martin Luther was born in 1485 at Eisleben. He showed himself to be quite ambitious, scholarly headstrong and intelligent. Early in life he escaped death from thunderbolt and took a pledge at that moment in St. Anne's name that he would become a monk. He studied at the University of Erfurt and became an Augustinian monk in 1505. Martin Luther where he worked as professor of theology in Wittenberg University. The Elector of Saxony who founded the university was proud of Luther because students came from all over Germany to hear this young professor delivering eructate lectures on theology.

## **Spread of Lutheranism:**

### **Causes:**

The hold of the Catholic Church over the Germans had not been so strong as in France or Spain. The Peasant class in Germany had been fully exploited the clergy too had a share in this. The German princes were eager to assail the church and deprive it of its lands and bring to an end its financial abuses. It was in these circumstances that Pope's (Leo X) emissaries arrived to sell indulgences to sinners and transmit the funds for the reconstruction of St. Peter's Basilica at Rome. Johann Tetzel, Pope's agent came to Wittenberg with the same mission and provoked Martin Luther. Luther was convinced in the end that God's mercy alone had the power to bring about individual salvation.

### **Luther's 95 theses:**

Johann Tetzel a German Dominican Friar arrived to sell indulgences to the so called sinners at Wittenberg. Tetzel's sale provoked Luther to produce the famous Ninety five Theses. It was nailed to the church door at Wittenberg for the public to read. The 95 theses only explained his differences and extended an invitation to anyone to debate with him on the points. The famous 95 theses created great sensation and received wide publicity. In 1519 Luther said in the course of a debate with a Catholic theologian. Further he continued his points gathered to the Nobility of the German nation. On the Babylonian captivity of the church of God. On the freedom of a Christian man.



### **Diet of worm in 1520:**

Luther burnt the Pope's bull of excommunication and the copy of Canon law at a public place on 1520, thereby making his revolt. The Pope urged the Emperor to issue another bull for Luther's excommunication but the latter wisely decided to invite Luther to attend the Diet of worm to explain his stand before action could be taken. The Emperor issued the famous Edict of worms which declared Luther heretic but then no action could be taken against him. Luther went into secretly arranged Confinement by the Elector of Saxony where he engaged himself in translating the Holy Bible into German.

### **Civil war in Germany:**

Disunity was endemic in Germany and the religious conflict between Catholic and Protestant faiths made it worse. The Princes upholding the Lutheran faith. It may be remembered that in 1524 peasants took advantage of the protestant movement and broke into an open rebellion after demanding the abolition of the serfdom, arbitrary punishment and other rights. A civil war began during the year of Luther's death (1546) and the protestant princes got the support of the French king in their fight against the Emperor. The religious conflict between the Protestant north and Catholic south took a heavy toll and it ended in 1555 with the peace of Augsburg.

Thus Lutheranism was recognised by the Holy Roman Emperor in 1555 and it rapidly spread to Denmark, Norway and Sweden king Fredrick I of Denmark patronised Protestantism as well as Catholicism. Protestantism was recognised as state religion in 1537 king Gustavo's of Sweden quarrelled with the Pope suppressed Catholic monasteries and officials and seized church lands. After his death Protestantism finally triumphed after some setbacks.

## **Reformation in Switzerland:**

Switzerland was the first country directly affected by protestant movement in Germany. Ulrich Zwingli (1484-1531) belonged to the town of Einsiedeln in the canton of Schwyz. He became a Catholic priest. He was well educated and came under the influence of humanist scholar Erasmus.

Zwingli was convinced that the Catholic Church undergo a thorough reformation. He exposed the other abuses of the Catholic Church and broke away with it in 1523. Zwingli denigrated the papacy, condemned fasting, the veneration of the saints and the celibacy of the clergy. He preached that only the Bible can become the sole guide and considered it as the supreme authority. He differs from Luther in his interpretation of the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. Zwingli's 67 theses emphasised the supreme authority of the Bible and differed more radically than Luther's about Catholic traditions. Except five centrally located forest Cantons, Zwingli's movement took deep roots in others. In 1531 Zwingli asked his followers to convert the Catholic citizens of other five cantons by force of arms and this led to a civil war. Zwingli was killed and the peace of Kappel followed. According to this settlement each canton was allowed to choose its own religion. This mountainous country thus became partly Catholic and partly protestant.

## **John Calvin:**

Protestantism reached the acme of glory in Switzerland under the leadership of John Calvin. He was a Frenchman born in 1509. Calvin studied law at the instance of his father to become a lawyer. In 1529 he began to devote great attention to religious reforms. In the same year Calvin suddenly converted to protestant faith. He became the successor to Zwingli. Calvin wrote "Institutes of the Christian Religion" published in 1536. In 1536, he went to Geneva and he appointed chief pastor of the city.

Geneva became a great centre of learning Calvin insisted on strictly regulated life both inside and outside the church. Gambling, dancing and other worldly pleasures were forbidden. Calvin's views may be regarded as extreme. He wrote a number of treaties and issued a French translation of the bible. Some people described him as Protestant Pope.

Geneva became a great centre of Reformation and many foreign students who studied at the university propagated the ideals and teachings of John Calvin. Lutheranism and Calvinism had certain similar and dissimilar features. Both taught that human nature is corrupt and salvation is possible by faith and faith alone.

### **Reformation in England:**

King Henry VIII was unhappy with his wife Catherine of Aragon who couldn't present him with a male heir. He fell in affection with Anne Boleyn a maid in waiting at the court. He applied to the Pope for the annulment of his marriage with Catherine. The Pope was in a dilemma because Catherine was the aunt of the holy Roman Emperor Charles V. At the time he kept the matter pending. The Reformation Parliament in England passed series of Acts curbing the power of the Pope and the Catholic Church and made the English king the Supreme head.

Thomas Cromwell, the architect of English Reformation suggested to the king ways and means of keeping the Church under firm control. The king suppressed the monasteries ruthlessly by imposing heavy fines and stopped the flow of money from England to the Pope by the Act of Annates. Fortunately the middle class supported the Tudor monarchy in its fight against the Catholic Church. The English translation of the bible was kept in English Churches in 1538. The Church of England was fully established by Elizabeth I in 1563.

Elizabethan Church settlement was imposed upon all and any deviation was severely punished.

### **Results of Reformation:**

During the results of religious reformation, Catholicism was splited and Lutheranism, Calvinism, Anglicanism came on Europe. North Germany, Netherland, Denmark, Sweden, Scotland, England and Switzerland followed Protestantism. Countries were relief from the Catholicism and also independent from the Pope's superiority. Hence the Pope's influences go down. Catholics and Protestants were displaced. As a result of reformation people behaved morality. Graduates were spread the teachings of reformations in other European countries. Germans chieftains reign was increased. The Romans superiority was declined. Reformation was helped the people to free from the feudal hold of the Dukes who was a champion of the Catholic Church. Countries were relief from the hands of Pope. They were established complete autonomy. By the Reformation the tolerance of religious well growth. Patronisers of religious Reformation against the feudalism, trade and commerce were well developed by the Protestants. Hence capitalism was extended.

From the corruption of churches avoid immorality Pope's the reformation was burst. Latterly the religious reformation was upgraded by the Counter Reformation.

### **The Counter Reformation:**

The rise of Protestantism in various forms severely damaged the credibility of the Catholic Church in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. Nearly half of the catholic nations of Europe were deeply disturbed and the people discontinued their allegiance to Catholic Church. The stubborn attitude of the Catholic Church made things worse and the spread of Protestantism could not be stemmed. There were good Catholics who still felt that substantial amount of

reputation of the Catholic Church could be salvaged. Pope Leo X and Clement VII could hardly cope with the magnitude of the problem.

### **Enlightened Popes and King Philip II:**

Counter Reformation means how the Catholic Church got reformed from within as if in response to the challenge posed by the rapid spread of Protestantism. Pope Paul III and his successors tried to restore the pristine glory of the Catholic Church. These Popes appointed men of great honesty, sincerity and great virtues to all high posts in the Church so that their examples could be emulated by the lower clergy. It may be said that he spearheaded the Counter Reformation partly to refurbish the image of the Catholic Church.

### **Council of Trent:**

The Catholic Church whose credibility had been damaged by Lutheranism and Calvinism. Christian religion was based on tradition and the Holy bible. The Catholic Church enjoyed the right to interpret the Holy Scriptures only. The Holy inquisitions were revived and all guilty officials punished. Heretical books were banned. Church discipline was defined through statutes. The sale of church offices was stopped and Bishops and other officials were ordered not to leave their headquarters.

### **Ignatius Loyola:**

Ignatius Loyola a Spanish nobleman, was born in 1491. He became a soldier and served Emperor Charles V. He was wounded in a battle and during the period of treatment he had strange religious experience. He became a scholar at Sorbonne and took a vow to serve Christ.

He founded the Society of Jesus. The process of Counter Reformation would not be complete without a reference to the achievements of the Society of Jesus. Sixty members who were subjected to most severe religious discipline and training.

Each member had to undergo Loyola's spiritual Exercises and in 1540 the Pope sanctioned increase in the strength of Jesuits members. They spread the message of Christ and opened schools everywhere. A special mention must be made of a Jesuit priest, St. Francis Xavier. He went to China and Japan and worked for propagating Christianity. He was raised to sainthood by the Catholic Church.

### **Results of Reformation:**

Firstly, Reformation gave birth to Protestantism. Protestantism mainly appeared in three forms. Lutheranism, Calvinism, Anglicanism, the Catholic Church barely understood people's demand for reforms. Secondly Reformation not only brought about clash between Catholicism and Protestantism but also intolerance. Thirdly, the Reformation assumed the form of nationalism king Philip II led the Counter Reformation. Fourthly, religion and Politics got mixed up in national politics the Council of Trent began to take steps in reviving and salvaging the reputation of the Catholic Church. Fifthly, the Counter Reformations reacted extreme. The Catholics under the Pope and under the guidance of Society of Jesus took steps to revive Catholicism.

## **Unit III**

### **Causes for the rise of Nation states:**

Historically, the growth of the Nation-state and its developing legitimacy came after the collapse of the Roman Empire. Nation-state building was one of the major events in modern world history, which marked the beginning of the modern world from medieval society. It also created a sense of affinity among the people and they began to treat themselves a distinct entity. Major Factors responsible for rising of the nation-state in Europe were: Renaissance provided a fillip to the National language and scholars began to produce literature in the local national language. Commercial rivalries amongst the merchants: with the support of their kings, of different countries, greatly contributed to the rise of the nation-state. They also played the role of messenger of international happenings in terms of nation system building. The rise of a strong middle class: in the later middle ages greatly facilitated it. With the end of Feudalism and emergence of strong societies and further into nation states.

The great setback to church as a result of the renaissance, social reformers: such as Emmanuel Kant, John Locke, Rousseau, Voltaire and many more had spread the ideas of political, social progressive ideals. They educated the common masses, which ultimately resulted in the emergence of strong nation-states.

Military campaigns of different strong nations also played a significant role in this process. For example : Role played by Napoleon Bonaparte in triggering the feeling of affinity, togetherness and linguistic affinity Among masses ultimately resulted in Unification of many nation-states, such as Germany, Italy.

### **Characteristics of Nation-state:**

Thus, nation-state system in Europe has gone through many phases under different prevailing factors such as the ultimate emergence of the monarchy to the constitutional monarch than to Republic nation-state. This nation-state system is continuously evolving and upgrading process. During the 19th century and even in the 20th century many nation states emerged on the basis of language, ethnicity, and geographical factors or for political convenience in Europe.



## **Absolute monarchy**

Absolute monarchy is a system of government where a single ruler rules by some inherent right and has complete centralized authority or sovereignty over the state and government. In modern times, some absolute monarchs are slightly limited in power by a constitution. However, many absolute monarchs, especially those in medieval times, had no limits on their power over state and government. Some other modern synonyms for absolute monarchy include dictatorship, totalitarianism, and autocracy.

### **Absolute Monarchy Characteristics**

Absolute monarchies can vary in the ideology that justifies the centralized power and control, but also how that power is exercised. If the absolute monarch is limited by a constitution, an entourage of administrators may contribute to exercising power. However, this type of monarchy is sometimes categorized separately as a constitutional monarchy. With this distinction, an absolute monarchy can be characterized more specifically.

The king or dictator within an absolute monarchy system has complete centralized authority over foreign and domestic policies. An "absolute" monarch does not share their power with any other governing body. In other words, the monarch is not subject to any checks, balances, or regulatory challenges by any other entity regarding judicial, religious, legislative, electoral, militaristic, or economic decision making.

The ideology or justification for complete centralized power is claimed by the monarch in their own right. This can take the form of a divine right which means the monarch is claiming to have been chosen for their position by a higher power such as a god. As well, a military dictator may justify their absolute power by the right of having simply taken or annexed themselves into the position. Additionally, a dictator may presume ultimate knowledge over the subject of power and ruling, and therefore claim to have access to some form of absolute truth.

### **Absolute Monarchy Examples**

There are many historical examples of absolute monarchies. Additionally, there are contemporary or modern examples of absolute monarchies. First, some historical absolute monarchy examples include but are not limited to:

#### **France**

The reign of the French King Louis XIV (reigned 1643-1715) has long been considered the best example of absolutism. In fact, during the 17th century, many other European monarchies imitated the French system. For instance, King Louis XIII was only a child when he ascended to the throne. Because of this, his chief minister, Cardinal Richelieu played a crucial role in policy-making and administration. At the time, the nobility had extreme influence and power in affairs of the state. Recognizing the danger to the king's authority, Richelieu executed many nobles found to be plotting against the king. This greatly strengthened the authority of the monarch.

Louis XIV became king at the age of 23. In keeping with the practice of divine right, Louis XIV referred to himself as the Sun King, an allusion to him as the source of light for his subjects. He immediately made it clear that he intended to make all major decisions on his own, telling his ministers of state, 'I order you not to sign anything, not even a passport.'

Although Louis wanted to retain sole power, the reality was that the nobility still had immense wealth and influence over political affairs. Louis restructured the French government and gave himself decision-making power over all matters of the state. He required the attendance of the nobility at his court so he could keep a close eye on them. His ministers and secretaries could only offer the king advice but had no power to make policy decisions on their own. Louis retained the right to make foreign policy, declare war, oversee religious affairs, and levy taxes. Since Louis was Catholic, he closed down all Protestant schools and banned them from political meetings.

## **Russia**

In Russia, Peter the Great ruled from 1689-1725. His reign was also considered an example of absolutism because he both strengthened the central government and reduced the power of the nobility.

He reorganized the government and created a Senate to administer the state. He divided Russia into different provinces to make administration more effective. He forced all landholders to serve in the military or another civil service position. In order to control the Russian Orthodox Church, Peter appointed his own procurator, who made all religious decisions based on his requests.

He also forcefully introduced Western customs to Russian society. For instance, after he witnessed the gender integration of the courts of Europe, he ordered wealthy Russian women to remove traditional veils and mix with the men at social gatherings and court events. He had books of Western etiquette made to introduce these customs to the general population. Peter wanted to create a formidable Russian military by reorganizing the army according to Western practices."

## **Henry VII (1457-1509)**

Henry VII (1457-1509) was king of England from 1485 to 1509. He was a successful usurper, the founder of the Tudor dynasty, and an accomplished practitioner of Renaissance diplomacy. Born on Jan. 28, 1457, at Pembroke, Wales, Henry VII was the only son of Edmund Tudor and Margaret Beaufort. Through the Beaufort family, Henry was descended from Edward III, and in 1470 he was given the title of Earl of Richmond by Henry VI, last of the Lancastrian Kings.

The Yorkist victories of 1471 brought death to Henry VI and his son, and Henry Tudor became a refugee in Brittany as well as heir to the claims of Lancaster. The death of Edward IV in April 1483 left the Yorkist monarchy to his 12-year-old son Edward V, soon deposed and imprisoned by his uncle, regent, and successor, Richard III. Henry attempted a Lancastrian uprising in October 1483 but was balked by bad weather and Richard's soldiers.

Aided by Charles VIII of France, Henry landed at Milford Haven in August 1485 with 2,000 men. Large Welsh troops under the banner of Cadwalader were among the following of 5,000 with whom Henry won the Battle of Bosworth Field (Aug. 22, 1485), where Richard was killed at the head of his forces. The victor was proclaimed King Henry VII by his own soldiers and some of Richard's. There were only three post combat "reprisal slayings" at Bosworth, and Henry made broad use of "temporary forfeiture" to encourage former opponents to earn back their estates by service to the king.

Henry's coronation on Oct. 30, 1485, was marked by expensive pageantry, as he considered an appearance of splendor appropriate to a monarch. On November 7 Henry opened Parliament, which accepted him as king, and attainted Richard for usurpation and "shedding of infants' blood,"

presumably explaining the fate of Edward V and Richard of York. Customs for life and an act of resumption were voted. On Jan. 18, 1486, Henry fulfilled a parliamentary petition, and his own promise to unite the families of York and Lancaster, by marrying Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV.

### **Threats to His Crown:**

But the Yorkist faction was not to be romanced out of existence. Lambert Simnel, son of an Oxford tradesman, was coached to an impersonation of Edward of Warwick, son of Edward IV's brother, George of Clarence. Henry demonstrated Simnel's imposture by having Warwick taken from the Tower of London long enough to attend High Mass at St. Paul's. Nevertheless, a serious Yorkist movement developed, supported by several councilors and the King's mother-in-law, among others. This uprising was checked only by Henry's victory in the Battle of Stoke (June 16, 1487). The captured Simnel was made a palace servant.

By 1489 Henry had settled on a foreign policy of limited rivalry with Charles VIII. This suited England's anti-French prejudices and gave Henry a diplomatic rationale for alliances with the emperor Maximilian I, the Duchess of Brittany, and Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. The 1489 Treaty of Medina del Campo linked England and Spain in policy and a promise of marriage alliance. Henry asked the 1489 Parliament for a subsidy of £100,000 to finance war against France. The policy was popular, but not the price.

Attempted collection led to tax riots, and only after a further grant of £60,000 was Henry able to stage a brief campaign in Picardy in 1492. By the Treaty of étaples, Henry agreed to give up the invasion, and Charles agreed to pay Henry an indemnity and a pension of £5,000 per year.

This settlement was viewed in England as a betrayal of the national investment to the profit of the King's treasury, and Henry's 1492 unpopularity encouraged one Perkin Warbeck to an impersonation of Richard of York (younger brother of Edward V). For 5 years the elusive Warbeck cultivated anti-Tudor interests in Ireland, Scotland, and on the Continent, with occasional forays into England to encourage a Yorkist faction. The attainder of Sir William Stanley was one result of these disorders. Another was the appointment of Edward Poyning to govern Ireland, resulting in "Poyning's Laws" on the relation of the English and Irish governments.

While Charles VIII's 1494 invasion of Italy preoccupied Europe, Henry remained neutral and solvent in anticipation of troubles at home. The prudence of this policy was shown when Charles's campaign collapsed in 1495 and when the Scots invaded England in 1496. Taxes for an army in 1497 provoked riots and a full-scale rebellion in Cornwall. Henry left the Scots to Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey, who ended a successful campaign with the Truce of Ayton in September. The Cornish rebels advanced on London with a force of 15,000 but were driven back by Henry and an army of 25,000. Perkin Warbeck linked his fortune to the Cornish rebellion only to share its failure in the summer of 1497. Warbeck was captured, confessed his imposture, and was removed to the Tower.

These events were the last serious challenges to Henry's throne. Ralph Wilford's 1499 "Warwick" gained him only a speedy hanging. At the same time, Henry used a futile Warbeck and Warwick plot to escape as an excuse to make an end of both. Warbeck was hanged on Nov. 23, 1499, at Tyburn. Warwick, imprisoned since childhood, was beheaded at Tower Hill on Nov. 29, 1499, and the male line of York was no more.

## **Diplomatic and Domestic Policies:**

Henry negotiated marriage alliances for his children as part of his diplomacy. The 1503 marriage of his daughter Margaret to James IV of Scotland aimed at detaching James from the "Auld Alliance" with France and ultimately led to a union of English and Scottish governments.

Prince Arthur's Nov. 14, 1501, marriage to Catherine of Aragon was ended by Arthur's death on April 2, 1502, from a respiratory infection. Ferdinand and Isabella suggested Henry's younger son and namesake as a husband for their daughter, but the June 25, 1503, marriage contract made this dependent on Prince Henry's consent when he came of age on June 28, 1509. Consummation of the marriage to Arthur was a point in dispute, and Henry VII thoughtfully collected testimony that Henry VIII later used in his divorce of Catherine of Aragon.

Henry VII's 1508 proxy marriage of his daughter Mary to Prince Charles of Castile did not become a real union, and as a widower Henry was unsuccessful in his attempts to marry his own way into the control of another kingdom. He could not prevent Spain and France from growing into kingdoms of increasing solidity and strength, but Henry at least helped to save England from becoming the victim of France or Spain.

Henry VII continued the restoration of governmental effectiveness begun by Edward IV, following the bankruptcy and collapse of government under Henry VI. A more general enforcement of law and order earned Henry much of his support, despite particular abuses in Star Chamber cases or in the field of jury tampering. Government income more than doubled in Henry's reign, and he showed great sense in the use of money. The structure of Henry's government remained medieval in organization, but the King's investments in commerce,



attention to technological changes in shipbuilding and mining, and sponsorship of John Cabot's voyage to America all gave to the general impression of Henry's government an effect which was both modern and national. Henry's selfishness and capacity for foresighted calculation won him many advantages but few admirers, and in later life Henry at times appeared dissatisfied with the ungenerous methods by which he had prospered. By any account, however, he was one of England's more successful diplomatists.

## **Henry VIII**

Henry VIII (1491-1547) was king of England from 1509 to 1547. As a consequence of the Pope's refusal to nullify his first marriage, Henry withdrew from the Roman Church and created the Church of England.

The second son of Henry VII, Henry VIII was born on June 28, 1491, at Greenwich Palace. He was a precocious student; he learned Latin, Spanish, French, and Italian and studied mathematics, music, and theology. He became an accomplished musician and played the lute, organ, and harpsichord. He composed hymns, ballads, and two Masses. He also liked to hunt, wrestle, and joust and drew "the bow with greater strength than any man in England."

On his father's death on April 21, 1509, Henry succeeded to a peaceful kingdom. He married Catherine of Aragon, widow of his brother Arthur, on June 11, and 13 days later they were crowned at Westminster Abbey. He enthused to his father-in-law, Ferdinand, that "the love he bears to Catherine is such, that if he were still free he would choose her in preference to all others."

### **Foreign Policy**

In short order Henry set course on a pro-Spanish and anti-French policy. In 1511 he joined Spain, the papacy, and Venice in the Holy League, directed against France. He claimed the French crown and sent troops to aid the Spanish in 1512 and determined to invade France. The bulk of the preparatory work fell to Thomas Wolsey, the royal almoner, who became Henry's war minister. Despite the objections of councilors like Thomas Howard, the Earl of Surrey, Henry went ahead. He was rewarded by a smashing victory at Guinegate (Battle of the Spurs, Aug. 13, 1513) and the capture of Tournai and Thérouanne.

Peace was made in 1514 with the Scots, who had invaded England and been defeated at Flodden (Sept. 9, 1513), as well as with France. The marriage of Henry's sister Mary to Louis XII sealed the French treaty. This diplomatic revolution resulted from Henry's anger at the Hapsburg rejection of Mary, who was to have married Charles, the heir to both Ferdinand and Maximilian I, the Holy Roman emperor. Soon the new French king, Francis I, decisively defeated the Swiss at Marignano (Sept. 13-14, 1515). When Henry heard about Francis's victory, he burst into tears of rage. Increasingly, Wolsey handled state affairs; he became archbishop of York in 1514, chancellor and papal legate in 1515. Not even his genius, however, could win Henry the coveted crown of the Holy Roman Empire. With deep disappointment he saw it bestowed in 1519 on Charles, the Spanish king. During 1520 Henry met Emperor Charles V at Dover and Calais, and Francis at the Field of Cloth of Gold, near Calais, where Francis mortified Henry by throwing him in an impromptu wrestling match. In 1521 Henry joyfully received the papally bestowed title "Defender of the Faith" as a reward for writing the *Assertion of the Seven Sacraments*—a criticism of Lutheran doctrine. He tried to secure Wolsey's election as pope in 1523 but failed.

## **English Reformation**

Catherine was 40 in 1525. Her seven pregnancies produced but one healthy child, Mary, born May 18, 1516. Despairing of having a legitimate male heir, Henry created Henry Fitzroy, his natural son by Elizabeth Blount, Duke of Richmond and Somerset. More and more, he conceived Catherine's misfortunes as a judgment from God. Did not Leviticus say that if a brother marry his brother's widow, it is an unclean thing and they shall be childless? Since Catherine was Arthur's widow, the matter was apparent.

The Reformation proceeded haphazardly from Henry's negotiations to nullify his marriage. Catherine would not retire to a nunnery, nor would Anne Boleyn consent to be Henry's mistress as had her sister Mary; she grimly demanded marriage. A court sitting in June 1529 under Wolsey and Cardinal Campeggio heard the case. Pope Clement VII instructed Campeggio to delay. When the Peace of Cambrai was declared between Spain and France in August 1529, leaving Charles V, Catherine's nephew, still powerful in Italy, Clement revoked the case to Rome. He dared not antagonize Charles, whose troops had sacked Rome in 1527 and briefly held him prisoner.

Henry removed Wolsey from office. Actually, Wolsey's diplomacy had been undermined by Henry's sending emissaries with different proposals to Clement. Catherine had a valid dispensation for her marriage to Henry from Pope Julius II; furthermore, she claimed that she came a virgin to Henry. She was a popular queen, deeply hurt by Henry's forsaking her bed in 1526. Henry's strategy matured when Thomas Cromwell became a privy councilor and his chief minister. Cromwell forced the clergy in convocation in 1531 to accept Henry's headship of the Church "as far as the law of Christ allows."

Anne's pregnancy in January 1533 brought matters to a head. In a fever of activity Henry married her on Jan. 25, 1533, secured papal approval to Thomas Cranmer's election as archbishop of Canterbury in March, had a court convened under Cranmer declare his marriage to Catherine invalid in May, and waited triumphantly for the birth of a son. His waiting was for naught. On Sept. 7, 1533, Elizabeth was born. Henry was so disappointed that he did not attend her christening. By the Act of Succession (1534) his issue by Anne was declared legitimate and his daughter Mary illegitimate. The Act of Supremacy (1534) required an oath affirming Henry's headship of the Church and, with other acts preventing appeals to Rome and cutting off the flow of annates and Peter's Pence, completed the break. Individual unwilling to subscribe to the Acts of

Succession and Supremacy suffered, the two most notable victims being John Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and Thomas More (1535). Their executions led to the publication of the papal bull excommunicating Henry.

Although Henry allowed the publication of an English Bible (1538), the Henrician Reformation was basically conservative. Major liturgical and theological revisions came under his son, Edward VI. Henry's financial need, however, made him receptive to Cromwell's plan for monastic dissolutions via parliamentary acts in 1536 and 1539, in which the Crown became proprietor of the dissolved monasteries. The scale of monastic properties led to important social and economic consequences.

### **Later Marriages**

Anne's haughty demeanor and moody temperament suited Henry ill, and her failure to produce a male heir rankled. She miscarried of a baby boy on Jan. 27, 1536, 6 days after fainting at the news that Henry had been knocked unconscious in a jousting accident in which the king fell under his mailed horse. It was a costly miscarriage, for Henry was already interested in Jane Seymour. He determined on a second divorce. He brought charges of treason against Anne for alleged adultery and incest; she was executed on May 19. The following day Henry betrothed himself to Jane and married her 10 days later. Jane brought a measure of comfort to Henry's personal life; she also produced a son and heir, Edward, on Oct. 12, 1537, but survived his birth a scant 12 days.

Henry was deeply grieved, and he did not remarry for 3 years. He was not in good health. Headaches plagued him intermittently; they may have originated from a jousting accident of 1524, in which Charles Brandon's lance splintered on striking Henry's open helmet. Moreover his ulcerated leg, which first afflicted him in 1528, occasionally troubled. Both legs were infected in 1537. In

May 1538 he had a clot blockage in his lungs which made him speechless, but he recovered.

The course of diplomatic events, particularly the fear that Charles V might attempt an invasion of England, led Henry to seek an alliance with Continental Protestant powers; hence, his marriage to the Protestant princess Anne of Cleves on Jan. 12, 1540. His realization that Charles did not intend to attack, coupled with his distaste for Anne, led to Cromwell's dismissal and execution in June 1540 and to the annulment of his marriage to Anne on July 9, 1540.

Cromwell's fall was engineered by the conservative leaders of his Council, Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk, and Bishop Gardiner. They thrust forward the 19-year-old niece of Norfolk, Catherine Howard, and Henry found her pleasing. He married Catherine within 3 weeks of his annulment and entered into the Indian summer of his life. He bore his by now tremendous girth lightly and was completely captivated, but his happiness was short-lived. Catherine's indiscretions as queen consort combined with her sexual misdemeanours as a protégé of the old dowager Duchess of Norfolk ensured her ruin. Inquiry into her behavior in October 1541 led to house arrest and her execution on Feb. 13, 1542, by means of a bill of attainder.

Henry's disillusionment with Catherine plus preoccupation with the Scottish war, begun in 1542, and plans for renewal of hostilities with France delayed remarriage. The French war commenced in 1543 and dragged on for 3 years, achieving a solitary triumph before Boulogne (1545). Henry married the twice-widowed Catherine Parr on July 12, 1543. Though she bore him no children, she made him happy. Her religious views were somewhat more radical than those of Henry, who had revised the conservative Six Articles (1539) with his own hand. During his last years he attempted to stem the radical religious impulses unleashed by the formal break with Rome.

No minister during Henry's last 7 years approached the power of Wolsey or Cromwell. Henry bitterly reflected that Cromwell was the most faithful servant that he had ever had. He ruled by dividing his Council into conservative and radical factions. When Norfolk's faction became too powerful, he imprisoned him and executed his son the poet Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey. The King was unwell in late 1546 and early 1547, suffering from a fever brought on by his ulcerated leg. Before he died on Jan. 28, 1547, Henry reflected that "the mercy of Christ able to pardon me all my sins, though they were greater than they be."

### **Appearance and Assessment**

A contemporary described Henry in his prime as "the handsomest potentate I have ever set eyes on; above the usual height, with an extremely fine calf to his leg; his complexion fair and bright, with auburn hair ... and a round face so very beautiful that it would become a pretty woman. ... He is much handsomer than any other sovereign in Christendom; a great deal handsomer than the King of France." Henry was "a capital horseman, a fine jousting," and "very fond of hunting," tiring 8 or 10 horses in the course of a day's hunting. "He is extremely fond of tennis, at which game it is the prettiest thing in the world to see him play, his fair skin glowing through a shirt of the finest texture."

Henry came to the throne with great gifts and high hopes. Ministers like Wolsey and Cromwell freed him from the burdensome chores of government and made policy, but only with Henry's approval. His relentless search for an heir led him into an accidental reformation of the Church not entirely to his liking. Ironically, had he waited until Catherine of Aragon died in 1536, he would have been free to pursue a solution to the succession problem without recourse to a reformation. His desire to cut a figure on the European battlefields led him into costly wars. To pay the piper, it was necessary to debase the coinage, thus increasing inflationary pressures already stimulated by the influx

of Spanish silver, and to use the tremendous revenues from the sale of monastic properties. Had the properties been kept in the royal hand, the revenue could have made the Crown self-sufficient—perhaps so self-sufficient that it could have achieved an absolutism comparable to that of Louis XIV.

Though personally interested in education, Henry sponsored no far-reaching educational statutes. However, his avid interest in naval matters resulted in a larger navy and a modernization of naval administration. He brought Wales more fully into union with the English by the Statute of Wales (1536) and made Ireland a kingdom (1542). Through the Statute of Uses (1536) he attempted to close off his subjects' attempts to deny him his feudal dues, but this was resisted and modified in 1540. The great innovations came out of the Reformation Statutes, not the least of which was the Act in Restraint of Appeals, in which England was declared an empire, and the Act of Supremacy, in which Henry became supreme head of the Anglican Church. The politically inspired Henrician Reformation became a religiously inspired one under his son, Edward VI, and thus Henry's reign became the first step in the forging of the Anglican Church.

Henry ruled ruthlessly in a ruthless age; he cut down the enemies of the Crown, like the Duke of Buckingham in 1521 and the Earl of Surrey. He stamped out the Pilgrimage of Grace (1536-1537), which issued from economic discontent, and set up a council in the north to ensure that there would be no more disorder. Though he had political gifts of a high order, he was neither Machiavelli's prince in action nor Bismarck's man of blood and iron. He was a king who wished to be succeeded by a son, and for this cause he bravely and rashly risked the anger of his fellow sovereigns. That he did what he did is a testament to his will, personal gifts, and good fortune.



## Edward VI

Edward VI (1537-1553) was king of England and Ireland from 1547 to 1553. His short reign witnessed the introduction of the English Prayer Book and the Forty-two Articles, and thus this period was important in the development of English Protestantism.

The son of Henry VIII and his third wife, Jane Seymour, Edward VI was born on Oct. 12, 1537. His mother died 12 days after his birth. Edward spent most of his childhood at Hampton Court, where he pursued a rigorous educational regimen. He learned Latin, Greek, and French and studied the Bible and the works of Cato, Aesop, Cicero, Aristotle, Thucydides, and the Church Fathers. Roger Ascham, the author of *The Schoolmaster*, was a sometime tutor of his penmanship, and Sir John Cheke of Cambridge instructed him in classical subjects. Philip van Wilder taught him the lute. Edward knew a little astronomy and occasionally jousted. When lost in his studies, he was cheerful.

Since Edward was only 9 years old when he became king in 1547 on the death of his father, a group of councilors stipulated in Henry VIII's will ruled the kingdom in his name. His council elected his uncle Edward Seymour, the Earl of Hertford, as lord protector, and Hertford soon was created Duke of Somerset.

Somerset's Protestantism and his interest in solving the government's financial difficulties set England on a course of religious and economic change. Thomas Cranmer, the arch bishop of Canterbury, given liberty to indulge his Protestant tendencies, pushed through the repeal of Henry VIII's six Articles (1547), dissolved the chantries (1547), and through the Act of Uniformity (1549) endorsed an English Prayer Book that prescribed a new religious service. This Prayer Book was subsequently revised in 1553 (Second Act of

Uniformity). All Englishmen were forced to use it and to adopt the Protestant form of worship. Reaction to the first Prayer Book stimulated an uprising, the Western Rebellion in Cornwall in 1549, which was quelled at Exeter. The Forty-two Articles of religious belief adopted by Parliament in 1551 demonstrated further movement toward Protestant doctrine and were eventually made the basis of Elizabeth's Thirty-nine Articles.

Edward had a consuming interest in religion. No study delighted him more than that of the Holy Scriptures. He daily read 12 biblical chapters, and he encouraged preachers with strong Protestant views. For example, Nicholas Ridley and Hugh Latimer, both later executed for their beliefs by Queen Mary I, were regular preachers. Even the Scottish reformer John Knox delivered a few sermons. John Calvin, the Geneva reformer, wrote to him.

Resistance to a new tax on sheep (1548) and an inquiry into enclosure led to a Norfolk rising called Ket's Rebellion (1549), which was instrumental in precipitating Somerset's fall. The rebellion fueled the antagonism of John Dudley, Earl of Warwick, who thought Somerset too lenient in dealing with the rebels. Warwick became Edward's chief minister and was created Duke of Northumberland. He had, however, little time in which to practice his authority. Edward contracted measles and smallpox in April 1552 and was never well thereafter. He was still too young for marriage. A contract made in 1543 for his marriage to Mary, Queen of Scots, had been abandoned in 1550. In 1551 a contract had been drawn for the hand of Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry II of France. But on July 6, 1553, Edward died of tuberculosis.

A priggish, austere boy, Edward had little sympathy for his uncle Somerset and almost no friends. He was short for his age and fair-complected and had weak eyes. His death at 15 left the English Protestant cause without its principal defender and caused Northumberland hastily and unlawfully to place

his daughter-in-law, Lady Jane Grey, on the throne. Though Edward's reign was brief, it marks an important milestone in the development of English Protestantism.

## **Elizabeth I**

Elizabeth I (1533-1603) was queen of England and Ireland from 1558 to 1603. She preserved stability in a nation rent by political and religious dissension and maintained the authority of the Crown against the growing pressures of Parliament.

Born at Greenwich, on Sept. 7, 1533, Elizabeth I was the daughter of Henry VIII and his second wife, Anne Boleyn. Because of her father's continuing search for a male heir, Elizabeth's early life was precarious. In May 1536 her mother was beheaded to clear the way for Henry's third marriage, and on July 1 Parliament declared that Elizabeth and her older sister, Mary, the daughter of Henry's first queen, were illegitimate and that the succession should pass to the issue of his third wife, Jane Seymour. Jane did produce a male heir, Edward, but even though Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate, she was brought up in the royal household. She received an excellent education and was reputed to be remarkably precocious, notably in languages (of which she learned Latin, French, and Italian) and music.

### **Edward VI and Mary**

During the short reign of her brother, Edward VI, Elizabeth survived precariously, especially in 1549 when the principal persons in her household were arrested and she was to all practical purposes a prisoner at Hatfield. In this period she experienced ill health but pursued her studies under her tutor, Roger Ascham.

In 1553, following the death of Edward VI, her sister Mary I came to the throne with the intention of leading the country back to Catholicism. The young Elizabeth found herself involved in the complicated intrigue that accompanied these changes. Without her knowledge the Protestant Sir Thomas Wyatt plotted

to put her on the throne by overthrowing Mary. The rebellion failed, and though Elizabeth maintained her innocence, she was sent to the Tower. After 2 months she was released against the wishes of Mary's advisers and was removed to an old royal palace at Woodstock. In 1555 she was brought to Hampton Court, still in custody, but on October 18 was allowed to take up residence at Hatfield, where she resumed her studies with Ascham.

On Nov. 17, 1558, Mary died, and Elizabeth succeeded to the throne. Elizabeth's reign was to be looked back on as a golden age, when England began to assert itself internationally through the mastery of sea power. The condition of the country seemed far different, however, when she came to the throne. A contemporary noted: "The Queen poor. The realm exhausted. The nobility poor and decayed. Want of good captains and soldiers. The people out of order. Justice not executed." Both internationally and internally, the condition of the country was far from stable.

At the age of 25 Elizabeth was a rather tall and well-poised woman; what she lacked in feminine warmth, she made up for in the worldly wisdom she had gained from a difficult and unhappy youth. It is significant that one of her first actions as queen was to appoint Sir William Cecil (later Lord Burghley) as her chief secretary. Cecil was to remain her closest adviser; like Elizabeth, he was a political pragmatist, cautious and essentially conservative. They both appreciated England's limited position in the face of France and Spain, and both knew that the key to England's success lay in balancing the two great Continental powers off against each other, so that neither could bring its full force to bear against England.

## **The Succession:**

Since Elizabeth was unmarried, the question of the succession and the actions of other claimants to the throne bulked large. She toyed with a large number of suitors, including Philip II of Spain; Eric of Sweden; Adolphus, Duke of Holstein; and the Archduke Charles. From her first Parliament she received a petition concerning her marriage. Her answer was, in effect, her final one: "this shall be for me sufficient, that a marble stone shall declare that a Queen, having reigned such a time died a virgin." But it would be many years before the search for a suitable husband ended, and the Parliament reconciled itself to the fact that the Queen would not marry.

Elizabeth maintained what many thought were dangerously close relations with her favorite, Robert Dudley, whom she raised to the earldom of Leicester. She abandoned this flirtation when scandal arising from the mysterious death of Dudley's wife in 1560 made the connection politically disadvantageous. In the late 1570s and early 1580s she was courted in turn by the French Duke of Anjou and the Duke of Alençon. But by the mid-1580s it was clear she would not marry.

Many have praised Elizabeth for her skillful handling of the courtships. To be sure, her hand was perhaps her greatest diplomatic weapon, and any one of the proposed marriages, if carried out, would have had strong repercussions on English foreign relations. By refusing to marry, Elizabeth could further her general policy of balancing the Continental powers. Against this must be set the realization that it was a very dangerous policy. Had Elizabeth succumbed to illness, as she nearly did early in her reign, or had any one of the many assassination plots against her succeeded, the country would have been plunged into the chaos of a disputed succession. That the accession of James I on her

death was peaceful was due as much to the luck of her survival as it was to the wisdom of her policy.

### **Religious Settlement:**

England had experienced both a sharp swing to Protestantism under Edward VI and a Catholic reaction under Mary. The question of the nature of the Church needed to be settled immediately, and it was hammered out in Elizabeth's first Parliament in 1559. Retention of Catholicism was not politically feasible, as the events of Mary's reign showed, but the settlement achieved in 1559 represented something more of a Puritan victory than the Queen desired. The settlement enshrined in the Acts of Supremacy and Conformity may in the long run have worked out as a compromise, but in 1559 it indicated to Elizabeth that her control of Parliament was not complete.

Though the settlement achieved in 1559 remained essentially unchanged throughout Elizabeth's reign, the conflict over religion was not stilled. The Church of England, of which Elizabeth stood as supreme governor, was attacked by both Catholics and Puritans. Estimates of Catholic strength in Elizabethan England are difficult to make, but it is clear that a number of Englishmen remained at least residual Catholics. Because of the danger of a Catholic rising against the Crown on behalf of the rival claimant, Mary, Queen of Scots, who was in custody in England from 1568 until her execution in 1587, Parliament pressed the Queen repeatedly for harsher legislation to control the recusants. It is apparent that the Queen resisted, on the whole successfully, these pressures for political repression of the English Catholics. While the legislation against the Catholics did become progressively sterner, the Queen was able to mitigate the severity of its enforcement and retain the patriotic loyalty of many Englishmen who were Catholic in sympathy.

For their part the Puritans waged a long battle in the Church, in Parliament, and in the country at large to make the religious settlement more radical. Under the influence of leaders like Thomas Cartwright and John Field, and supported in Parliament by the brothers Paul and Peter Wentworth, the Puritans subjected the Elizabethan religious settlement to great stress.

The Queen found that she could control Parliament through the agency of her privy councilors and the force of her own personality. It was, however, some time before she could control the Church and the countryside as effectively. It was only with the promotion of John Whitgift to the archbishopric of Canterbury that she found her most effective clerical weapon against the Puritans. With apparent royal support but some criticism from Burghley, Whitgift was able to use the machinery of the Church courts to curb the Puritans. By the 1590s the Puritan movement was in some considerable disarray. Many of its prominent patrons were dead, and by the publication of the bitterly satirical *Marprelate Tracts*, some Puritan leaders brought the movement into general disfavor.

### **Foreign Relations:**

At Elizabeth's accession England was not strong enough, either in men or money, to oppose vigorously either of the Continental powers, France or Spain. England was, however, at war with France. Elizabeth quickly brought this conflict to a close on more favourable terms than might have been expected.

Throughout the early years of the reign, France appeared to be the chief foreign threat to England because of the French connections of Mary, Queen of Scots. By the Treaty of Edinburgh in 1560, Elizabeth was able to close off a good part of the French threat as posed through Scotland.



The internal religious disorders of France also aided the English cause. Equally crucial was the fact that Philip II of Spain was not anxious to further the Catholic cause in England so long as its chief beneficiary would be Mary, Queen of Scots, and through her, his own French rivals.

In the 1580s Spain emerged as the chief threat to England. The years from 1570 to 1585 were ones of neither war nor peace, but Elizabeth found herself under increasing pressure from Protestant activists to take a firmer line against Catholic Spain. Increasingly she connived in privatizing voyages against Spanish shipping; her decision in 1585 to intervene on behalf of the Netherlands in its revolt against Spain by sending an expeditionary force under the Earl of Leicester meant the temporary end of the Queen's policy of balance and peace.

The struggle against Spain culminated in the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588. The Queen showed a considerable ability to rally the people around herself. That the Armada was dispersed owed as much to luck and Spanish incapacity as it did to English skill. In some ways it marked the high point of Elizabeth's reign, for the years which followed have properly been called "the darker years."

The Spanish threat did not immediately subside, and English counteroffensives proved ineffectual because of poor leadership and insufficient funds. Under the strain of war expenditure, the country suffered in the 1590s prolonged economic crisis. Moreover, the atmosphere of the court seemed to decline in the closing stages of the reign; evident corruption and sordid struggling for patronage became more common.

### **Difficulties in Ireland:**

The latter years of Elizabeth's reign were marked by increasing difficulties in Ireland. The English had never effectively controlled Ireland, and under Elizabeth the situation became acute. Given Ireland's position on England's flank and its potential use by the Spanish, it seemed essential for England to control the island. It was no easy task; four major rebellions (the rebellion of Shane O'Neill, 1559-1566; the Fitzmaurice confederacy, 1569-1572; the Desmond rebellion, 1579-1583; and Tyrone's rebellion, 1594-1603) tell the story of Ireland in this period. Fortunately, the Spaniards were slow to take advantage of Tyrone's rebellion. The 2d Earl of Essex was incapable of coping with this revolt and returned to England to lead a futile rebellion against the Queen (1601). But Lord Mountjoy, one of the few great Elizabethan land commanders, was able to break the back of the rising and bring peace in the same month, in which the Queen died (March, 1603).

### **Internal Decline:**

The latter years of Elizabeth also saw tensions emerge in domestic politics. The long-term dominance of the house of Cecil, perpetuated after Burghley's death by his son, Sir Robert Cecil, was strongly contested by others, like the Earl of Essex, who sought the Queen's patronage. The Parliament of 1601 saw Elizabeth involved in a considerable fight over the granting of monopolies. Elizabeth was able to head off the conflict by promising that she herself would institute reforms. Her famous "Golden Speech" delivered to this, her last Parliament, indicated that even in old age she had the power to win her people to her side: "Though God hath raised me high, yet this I count the glory of my crown, that I have reigned with your loves.... It is my desire to live nor reign no longer than my life and reign shall be for your good. And though you have had,

and may have, many princes more mighty and wise sitting in this seat, yet you never had, nor shall have, any that will be more careful and loving."

The words concealed the reality of the end of Elizabeth's reign. It is apparent, on retrospect, that severe tensions existed. The finances of the Crown, exhausted by war since the 1580s, were in sorry condition; the economic plight of the country was not much better. The Parliament was already sensing its power to contest issues with the monarchy, though they now held back, perhaps out of respect for their elderly queen. Religious tensions were hidden rather than removed. For all the greatness of her reign, the reign that witnessed the naval feats of Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Hawkins and the literary accomplishments of Sir Philip Sidney, Edmund Spenser, William Shakespeare, and Christopher Marlowe, it was a shaky inheritance that Elizabeth would pass on to her successor, the son of her rival claimant, Mary, Queen of Scots. On March 24, 1603, the Queen died; as one contemporary noted, she "departed this life, mildly like a lamb, easily like a ripe apple from the tree."

## **Ferdinand II**

Ferdinand II of Aragon was a warrior and campaigning king whose marriage to Isabella I of Castile unified Spain and led to the expulsion of the last remaining Moors in Spain. Their devotion to the Catholic faith rid Spain of "heretic" Jews and Muslims while his patronage of explorer Christopher Columbus's voyage and subsequent gold mining in the New World saw Spain become one of the first global superpowers and become a powerful player in European politics for the next century.

Ferdinand is portrayed as a thoughtful but intelligent man who respects his wife's military instincts and holds his own council until the right moment. As a newly formed royal house, Ferdinand decided to betroth his three year old daughter Catalina to the equally new royal house of Tudor in England. As such, Ferdinand was responsible for the death of Teddy Plantagenet and Perkin Warbeck as one of the conditions of Catalina and Arthur's marriage was there would be no rivals to threaten Catalina's union with Arthur or her claim to the English throne. Upon marrying Arthur, Ferdinand slowly and cautiously began playing Catalina's dowry. When Arthur suddenly died, Ferdinand had no obligation to pay Catalina's dowry leaving her trapped without secure income or assistance in a foreign land. Ferdinand used Catalina's dowry to force Henry VII of England to ensure she would still be queen of England by marrying her to Arthur's younger brother the soon to be Henry VIII of England. Ferdinand could be seen as callous for using his daughter's suffering and poverty to manipulate the English king but his efforts ultimately secure the English throne for Catalina.

## **The Constant Princess**

The novel begins in 1491 Grenada as the Moors raid the military camp of Queen Isabella of Castile. The young infanta Catalina watches with adoration as her warrior mother gathers her army and puts out the flames caused by the night raid. Upon her mother's return, Catalina assures her mother that she was not afraid as she is a Spanish Princess and Princess of Wales. Catalina's parentage and titles are incredibly important to her, even as a young child, as she prepares for her destiny as Queen of England. The morning after the raid, the Spanish generals suggest retreating due to lack of supplies but Isabella pushes the army onwards to vanquish the Moors from their last foothold in Spain. Isabella resolves their lack of shelter by commanding they build a stone fortification using the natural resources of the barren countryside. Her king, Ferdinand of Aragon acquiesces and begins work on stone structure beneath the cliff where the Moors have held the Red Fort for two centuries. Isabella and Ferdinand keep building in the unrelenting heat and against all odds until they found the siege town of Sante Fe.

A short while later, Catalina comes upon one of the great Spanish lords, Don Hernando Perez del Pulgar, and convinces him to be confined in her. Hernando tells her he will break into the Alhambra to worship his Catholicism in the mosque and leave an *Ava Maria*. Catalina promises not to sleep until he returns but when he doesn't return it dawns on Catalina that people can fail and be killed even if she believes they have god's blessing and it puts the first doubts about God's favour in her mind. Fortunately, Hernando and his friends survived and regale the court with their tale of desecrating the mosque. While taking her children to see the fortifications at Zubia, Queen Isabella is informed that the full Moors army is riding out of the Red Fort in retaliation for Hernando's desecration. Queen Isabella, unable to flee the oncoming army, takes her children to hide on a roof to see what the army intends to do. A Moor

named Yarfe comes to challenge Hernado by throwing the Ava Maria back in prevocational insult. Queen Isabella leads her children in prayer that her greatest champion Garallosco de la Vega will appear to defend them and gives her blessing when he arrives to challenge Yarfe. A short battle ensues whereby Vega kills Yarfe and Yarfe's death signals the soldiers to pour out from the Red fort. Queen Isabella once again commands her daughters to pray despite their rising panic. Queen Isabella's composure when faced with the moor's army is well calculated; Yarfe's death would be the last battle against the Spanish as the Moors lose all appetite for war and gift the Red Fort, containing the beautiful palace of the Alhambra, to Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand. With victory over the last of the expelled Moors, Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand begin to persecute and banish anyone that won't convert to the Catholic faith from Spain. Catalina begins sees herself as a princess of the battlefield and firmly believes that she and her mother are favoured by God. Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand make the Alhambra their home and royal court which delights Catalina as she marvels in her surroundings. The luxury and beauty of the Alhambra make a lasting impression on Catalina and the last remaining years of her childhood are happy and tranquil compared to her early life of military campaign.

### **The Spanish Princess**

In 1511, Ferdinand visits England, having seized the throne of Spain for himself after the death of his wife Isabella, and having confined their daughter and heir Joanna to a convent after the death of her own husband, Philip. Ferdinand and his son-in-law King Henry VIII plan to invade France as part of the Holy League. He also seeks to strengthen the alliance by marrying his grandson and heir Charles of Burgundy to Princess Mary.

In England, Ferdinand is boastful, and reminds Catherine of her childhood where he would get her to reach for sugar-coated grapes before slamming down on her hand, mocking her. Ferdinand departs, and Catherine gets Henry to send his troops to Spain to attack France and seize the Duchy of Guyenne. However, Ferdinand betrays Henry and Catherine, instead using the English troops as a diversion to seize his own lands in Navarre. Catherine is disgusted by her father's deception and declares herself reborn, being truly English rather than Spanish."

## Charles V

The French king Charles V (1337-1380) ruled from 1364 to 1380. He skilfully governed France during a critical phase of the Hundred Years War.

Son of John II and Bonne of Luxemburg, Charles V was born at Vincennes on Jan. 21, 1337. He was the first heir apparent to the crown of France to bear the title Dauphin. Although nothing is known of his education, his later activities as a patron of the arts, theoretician of monarchy, and founder of the royal library at the Louvre indicate an early interest in learning. In 1350 Charles married his cousin Jeanne de Bourbon.

Charles was born, grew up, and reigned in the shadow of the great Anglo-French conflict called the Hundred Years War (1337-1453). When he was 16, Charles was made Duke of Normandy by his father and was thus entrusted with one of the most vulnerable areas of warfare. At the age of 19, on Sept. 19, 1356, Charles with his father and two younger brothers led the French army, which was cut to pieces by the English at Poitiers. During the battle John II was taken prisoner and held for ransom. Charles, lacking power and financial resources, had to assume the office of regent during his father's captivity, which lasted until 1360. During this period Charles weathered the threat of an English invasion and, faced with domestic discontent, put down a number of internal revolts, among them the Jacquerie, a peasant uprising. Only his astute political judgment and diplomatic skill saved the crown of France. With the Treaty of Brétigny in 1360 he arranged the terms of his father's ransom and established a temporary truce with the English.

When Charles became king on his father's death in 1364, his experience as regent had prepared him to take on his first great task—undoing the disastrous results of the political ineptitude of his father and grandfather.



Although he was not a good general and was always in ill health, he devoted intense energy to ruling. He chose able advisers and was fortunate in securing a number of effective military commanders, including Bertrand du Guesclin, to counter the continuing threat from England. Charles resumed the war in 1369, and by his death in 1380 he had fought the English to a standstill.

Apart from his activities against the English, Charles's last years were spent in strengthening the defences of France and organizing matters of law and finance. For the first time since the death of Philip V in 1314, France had an effective and intelligent ruler. But Charles's early death on Sept. 16, 1380, brought far less able men to the throne, kings who would preside over even greater defeats at the hands of the English and who would witness the further disintegration of French society.

## **PhillipII:**

### **Early Life:**

The son of Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire, and his wife, Infanta Isabella of Portugal, Philip was born in the Spanish capital of Valladolid on May 21, 1527 at Palacio de Pimentel.

The culture and courtly life of Spain were an important influence in his early life. He was tutored by Juan Martínez Siliceo. Philip displayed reasonable aptitude in arms and letters alike. Later he would study with more illustrious tutors, including the humanist Juan Cristóbal Calvete de Estrella. Philip, though he had good command over Latin, Spanish and Portuguese, never managed to equal his father, Charles V, as a linguist. Despite being also a German archduke from the House of Habsburg, Philip was seen as a foreigner in the Holy Roman Empire. The feeling was mutual. Philip felt himself to be culturally Spanish; he had been born in Spain and raised in the Castilian court, his native tongue was Spanish, and he preferred to live in Spain. This would ultimately impede his succession to the imperial throne.

In April 1528, when Philip was eleven months old, he received the oath of allegiance as heir to the crown from the Cortes of Castile, and from that time until the death of his mother Isabella in 1539, Philip was raised in the royal court of Castile under the care of his mother, and one of her Portuguese ladies, Doña Leonor de Mascarenhas, to whom he was devotedly attached. Philip was also close to his two sisters, María and Juana, and to his two pages, the Portuguese nobleman Rui Gomes da Silva and Luis de Requesens, the son of his governor Juan de Zúñiga. These men would serve Philip throughout their lives, as would Antonio Pérez, his secretary from 1541.

## **The Reign of PhillipII:**

Philip faced many constitutional constraints on his authority. This was largely influenced by the growing strength of the bureaucracy during Philip's reign. The Spanish Empire was not a single monarchy with one legal system but a federation of separate realms, each jealously guarding its own rights against those of the House of Habsburg. In practice, Philip often found his authority overruled by local assemblies, and his word less effective than that of local lords.

Philip II also grappled with the problem of the large Morisco population in Spain, who were sometimes forcibly converted to Christianity by his predecessors. In 1569, the Morisco Revolt broke out in the southern province of Granada in defiance of attempts to suppress Moorish customs; and Philip ordered the expulsion of the Moriscos from Granada and their dispersal to the provinces.

Despite its immense dominions, Spain was a country with a sparse population that yielded a limited income to the crown. Philip faced major difficulties in raising taxes, the collection of which was largely farmed out to local lords. He was able to finance his military campaigns only by taxing and exploiting the local resources of his empire. The flow of income from the New World proved vital to his militant foreign policy, but nonetheless his exchequer several times faced bankruptcy. Philip's reign saw a flourishing of cultural excellence in Spain, the beginning of what is called the Golden Age, creating a lasting legacy in literature, music, and the visual arts.

## **The Spanish Economy under Phillip:**

Charles V had left Philip with a debt of about 36 million ducats and an annual deficit of 1 million ducats. This debt caused Phillip II to default on loans in 1557, 1560, 1575, and 1596. This happened because the lenders had no power over the king and could not force him to repay his loans. These defaults were just the beginning of Spain's economic troubles as Spain's kings would default six more times in the next 65 years. Aside from reducing state revenues for overseas expeditions, the domestic policies of Philip II further burdened Spain, and would, in the following century, contribute to its decline, as maintained by some historians.

King Phillip played groups against each other, leading to a system of checks and balances that managed affairs inefficiently, even to the extent of damaging state business, as in the Perez affair. Following a fire in Valladolid in 1561, he resisted calls to move his Court to Lisbon, an act that could have curbed centralization and bureaucracy domestically as well as relaxed rule in the Empire. Instead, with the traditional Royal and Primacy seat of Toledo now essentially obsolete, Philip moved his Court to the Castilian stronghold of Madrid. Except for a brief period under Philip III, Madrid has remained the capital of Spain to the present day.

## **Death**

Philip II died in El Escorial, near Madrid, on September 13, 1598 of cancer. His death, which was very painful, involved a severe attack of gout, fever, dropsy & edema. For 52 horrific days the King deteriorated. He could no longer be moved to be washed because of the pain; thus a hole was cut in his mattress for the release of bodily fluids. He was succeeded by his son Philip III.

## **Louis XI**

Louis XI (1423-1483), called the Spider King, was king of France from 1461 to 1483. He suppressed baronial power, made peace with England, and reorganized French royal authority.

The prosperity of France and the authority of the Crown were the major concerns of Louis XI. During his reign France recovered from the foreign and civil disasters of the Hundred Years War (1339-1453) and its economic collapse of the early 15th century. By extending his authority into every area of public life, Louis weakened the French aristocracy, always a threat to the Crown, and destroyed the power of the ducal house of Burgundy. He encouraged the development of new industries and put his country on the road to economic recovery after a century of war and occupation.

Louis XI was born at Bourges, the son of Charles VII and Marie of Anjou. At that time most of France was in English hands, and Charles's enemies scornfully called him the "King of Bourges" (that city being his temporary capital). During the next 2 decades Charles slowly re-established his authority. Joan of Arc and later Jacques Coeur and other civil and military officials were of great help to Charles and earned him the epithet "the Well-served."

Louis grew up in the fortress of Loches under the direction of tutors and, like most princes of his day, learned classical Latin. He also achieved a highly developed command of written French and is one of the few kings who has a distinguished personal literary style. At the age of 13, Louis married Margaret Stuart, daughter of James I of Scotland.

## **Rebellious Dauphin**

After 1436 Louis began to accompany his father on military campaigns and civil inspections of his diminished kingdom. Shortly afterward Louis was made lieutenant general of Languedoc and later of Poitou. He was responsible for defending these provinces against bands of roving mercenary soldiers who had terrorized the countryside for most of the century and also for collecting taxes, always a chief concern of the impoverished king of France. In 1440, apparently at the instigation of the dukes of Alençon and Bourbon, Louis joined a conspiracy against his father. After Charles put down the Praguerie, as the revolt was called, Louis again accompanied him on his journeys, but his participation in another conspiracy against the King in 1445 resulted in his banishment to Dauphiné, the traditional province of the heir apparent to the throne of France. From 1445 to 1456 Louis learned the business of ruling.

Louis's wife died in 1445, and in 1451, against his father's wishes, he married Charlotte of Savoy. In 1456, having again angered his father, Louis fled to the protection of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, the most powerful enemy of the French royal house, where he remained until his father's death in 1461. Louis's contemporary biographer Philippe de Comines assessed the importance of this period in Louis's life: "In my opinion, what he did in his youth, when he was a fugitive from his father under the Duke of Burgundy, where he remained six years, was very valuable to him, for he was compelled to please those of whom he had need, and this benefit (which is not small) taught him the meaning of adversity."

## **King of France:**

Upon the death of Charles VII in 1461, Louis ascended the throne of France. At the age of 38, Louis already had the striking appearance that was to inspire so many caricatures. He was somewhat below medium height and

dressed very simply. He had a long nose, deeply set eyes, thin lips, a powerful jaw, and a jutting chin. He grew somewhat heavier in later life, but his legs remained thin. His epithet of "Spider King" was due to both his appearance and his authoritarian and unscrupulous character. Louis was a great talker and listener, and Comines wrote: "No man ever listened more constantly, or sought information on so many subjects as he, or sought to know so many people. ... And his memory was so perfect that he retained everything." Louis was obsessed with the need to obtain accurate information, whether through diplomatic channels or otherwise, and he was just as concerned with the distribution of his own views to all parts of his realm. Louis was religious in an idiosyncratic and often misunderstood way. He endowed and rebuilt many churches, collected relics, and constantly sought the prayers of the French clergy and the Pope. But he also intervened often in Church affairs.

Above all else, Louis worked at rebuilding France. He worked long and hard and brought his will to bear on the great problems of his kingdom in a manner sometimes temperamental and cruel, sometimes jovial and unassuming. Comines's assessment of Louis's life remains a perceptive judgment: "I think that if all the good days he enjoyed during his life, days in which he had more pleasure and happiness than hard work and trouble, were carefully numbered, they would be found to be few; I believe one would find twenty days of travail and worry for every one day of ease and pleasure."

### **French Aristocracy and the English King**

The great territorial principalities of 15th-century France, such as Burgundy and Brittany, were nominally fiefs granted by the king, but the allegiance of the great nobles had been strained or obliterated by English success during the Hundred Years War. Before he became king, Louis himself had attempted to profit from aristocratic disaffection in a series of revolts

against his father. In 1464 Louis was faced with a serious revolt of the nobles who had formed the League of the Public Weal. He was forced to fight against the combined strength of the dukes of Burgundy, Bourbon, Brittany, and Lorraine, the Count of Armagnac, the Prince of Calabria, and his own brother, Charles of France. Louis fought the barons to a standoff in 1465 and settled the revolt by granting financial and legal concessions. In 1468 another conspiracy was formed, directed by Charles the Bold of Burgundy and supported by Edward IV of England. Again, Louis's adroitness and readiness to make concessions that he could later repudiate ended the revolt. In 1472 and again in 1474 Louis put down uprisings led by Charles. From 1475 to 1477 Louis withstood a last revolt and emerged with great gains. Charles the Bold and Edward IV had again allied against France, but Louis was able to secure a final truce between England and France in the Treaty of Picquigny (1475). This treaty marked the real end of English intervention in France after a century and a half of conflict. Charles the Bold was killed at Nancy in 1477 in a battle against the Swiss, with whom Louis had formed an alliance. With Charles's death the greatest single threat to Louis's stabilizing rule was removed.

Besides his political and military skill, Louis also had dynastic fortune on his side in his struggles with the nobles. During his reign the dynasties which ruled the great princely houses began to die out, thus allowing the king to reabsorb these dangerous principalities into the authority of the Crown. By skill, luck, and persistence, Louis had reassembled his kingdom.

### **Louis's Government of France**

Louis was faced with the task of reorganizing the civil institutions of France. His reign was a sustained attempt to use royal authority to alleviate the economic and social problems of the kingdom. His methods did not make him loved. He continually raised old taxes and invented new ones. He insisted upon maintaining the effective standing army that his father had created. But he



ruthlessly repressed abuses, particularly those of the nobility. His infinite capacity to obtain and absorb information made him intimately familiar with the events in the remotest parts of the kingdom—more familiar than some men would have cared him to be.

Louis's awareness of the complex role of economics in 15th-century society drove him to practice not only economic warfare against his enemies but also effective economic protectionism on behalf of his own territories. He urged the renewal of fairs and the abolition of tariff restrictions within the kingdom; he supported efficient city government; and he was always prepared to lessen the severity of his economic measures when he thought it necessary. Louis was much concerned with the role of the state in France's economy, and he experimented with state-owned shipping in the Mediterranean, state-operated arsenals, urban development, and control of the silk trade. At his death in 1483, France had begun to improve its economic position, the great barons had been humbled, and the income of the Crown had been quadrupled. Louis left his son and heir, Charles VIII, a full treasury, a strong diplomatic position, and a restored throne.

## **Charles VIII**

The French king Charles VIII (1470-1498) ruled from 1483 to 1498. Struggles for control during his minority and his attempt to conquer Naples were detrimental to France's political and economic life.

Charles VIII was born in Amboise on June 30, 1470. He was only 13 when he succeeded his talented and ambitious father, Louis XI, and his older sister Anne de Beaujeu served as regent during the early years of his reign. At this time the most important problem facing Charles was the virtual independence of the duchy of Brittany, the last of the powerful feudal principalities whose independent policies seriously threatened the political stability of 15th-century France. Francis II, Duke of Brittany, rebelled against Charles in 1484, but the King defeated him in 1488. During this period Charles was also involved in putting down uprisings led by his cousin Louis, Duke of Orleans, who later succeeded him. In 1491 Charles annexed Brittany by marrying Anne of Brittany, who had inherited the duchy from her father on his death in 1488. This marriage brought the last of the independent principalities under control of the Crown.

By this time Charles was free of the regency's influence, but he was at best ill-equipped to deal with the great difficulties of ruling. A contemporary described him as "very young, weakly, wilful, rarely in the company of wise men endowed with neither money nor sense." Unlike most rulers of the time Charles was barely literate, and his interests appear to have been absorbed by the reading of tales of adventure, history, and chivalry rather than by study of state documents.

By 1491 Charles was faced with a number of important problems. Political institutions needed reform and change; the status of the Church was vague and a definitive policy of church-state relations was called for; and strong measures were required to strengthen the economy. Unfortunately Charles did not give continuing attention to the political and economic problems of France; instead he was absorbed by a chivalric and foolhardy dream of acquiring yet another kingdom, Naples, for himself. Reviving an old and remote Angevin claim to the throne of Naples, he mobilized the resources carefully husbanded by his father, traded away most of the diplomatic advantages which France had gained in the preceding half century, and in 1494 launched the largest invading army ever to have entered northern Italy.

In 1495 Charles briefly held Naples, but he was defeated at Fornovo and made a hasty retreat into France. The war which Charles began in 1494 was to turn Italy into a battlefield upon which France and Spain were to contend until the Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis in 1559. Charles's Italian campaign caused him to neglect French internal affairs almost completely, and many of the gains made during his father's reign were wiped out. But his expedition also had important international consequences; his initial success had shown more astute rulers that Italy was a rich prize which could be taken by force. Charles's French army had been defeated in part by a Spanish one, and this was the first indication that the hitherto independent activities of the Italian principalities were to be drastically curtailed by intervention of stronger powers.

In spite of his commitment of French resources to a fruitless expedition into Italy, Charles VIII did not notably weaken the power of the French monarchy. The achievements of Charles VII and Louis XI had made the king the ruler of France in practice as well as theory. This great royal authority was wielded in a number of institutions which continued to proliferate and grow during Charles's reign, despite his use of royal power in ill-considered enterprises. A lesson, which continues to have validity, can be drawn from this:

it is difficult, even for a weak and foolish king, to impair a governmental apparatus whose basis was established by astute and perceptive rulers. In areas other than that of royal authority, Charles obliterated many of his father's achievements. Perhaps the most disastrous effect of his foreign policy was the formation of the anti-French alliance of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire, which lasted until the 18th century.

Charles VIII died childless, at the age of 27, on April 7, 1498. He was succeeded by the Duke of Orleans, who became Louis XII.

## **Francis I**

Francis I (1494-1547) was king of France from 1515 to 1547. He continued the consolidation of monarchical authority and the expansionist foreign policy of his predecessors. He supported humanist learning and was a patron of the arts. Born on Sept. 12, 1494, at the château of Cognac, Francis I was the son of Charles, Comte d'Angoulême, a member of the house of Orléans. Francis' mother was Louise of Savoy, who descended from a younger branch of the ruling house of Savoy and from the French noble house of Bourbon.

Francis was less than 2 years old when his father died and only 4 years old when he became heir apparent to the throne. He grew up as a ward of Louis XII. His education, which was primarily a training in arms, was supervised by Cardinal Georges d'Amboise, the most important councilor of Louis XII. The marriage of Francis to Claudia, daughter of Louis XII, was also arranged by the King. Francis' closest personal associations during his youth were with his mother and his sister Marguerite, the future queen of Navarre. Francis never outgrew his close relationship with the two women, and even after his accession to the throne he was influenced by them.

### **Rivalry with Charles V**

The first major project undertaken by Francis I after he came to the throne in 1515 was the reconquest of the duchy of Milan. After defeating the Swiss at Marignano (1515) and taking Milan, Francis set out to assure the permanency of the French preponderance in northern Italy by signing treaties with the Pope, the Swiss Confederation, the Holy Roman emperor Maximilian I, and Maximilian's grandson Archduke Charles, ruler of the Netherlands and heir apparent to the kingdom of Aragon.

The treaties which Francis made with these individuals had barely been signed when the emperor Maximilian died. Francis I presented himself as a candidate for the imperial throne (it was an elective monarchy). But Archduke Charles, now king of Aragon and Castile, was elected Emperor Charles V in 1519. This election destroyed the settlement reached after Marignano and reopened the old rivalry of France and Aragon. Francis was now virtually encircled by territories belonging to his chief rival for influence in Italy (Charles V ruled Spain, the Low Countries, the Holy Roman Empire, and Franche-Comté). He was forced to embark upon new diplomatic initiatives. The cornerstones of his anti-imperial policy were alliances with the Lutheran princes of the Holy Roman Empire and with the sultan of Turkey. Francis' policies of keeping Germany disunited and of allying with powers on the eastern flank of Germany would remain basic elements of French policy in Europe for centuries.

Four times (1522, 1527, 1536, and 1542) Francis went to war against Charles V, but at the end of their last encounter Francis had proved himself no better at keeping his Italian conquests than his predecessors had been. Milan was lost in 1522, and his attempt to regain it in 1525 ended in the disastrous defeat at Pavia. The French army was slaughtered, and Francis was taken prisoner by the Emperor. France itself was periodically invaded by the imperial armies during the wars. The two territorial acquisitions that Francis retained when the wars ceased following the Peace of Crépy (1544) were Savoy and Piedmont.

### **Cultural Activities**

The rivalry of Francis I with his contemporary sovereigns also extended into the realm of learning and the arts. He retained the leading humanist scholars Jacques Lefèvre d'Étaples and Guillaume Budé and the poet Clément Marot in his service. Lefèvre, who acted as a spiritual councilor to the King's

sister Marguerite, supervised the education of two of the King's sons, and Budé was instrumental in founding the College de France (1529-1530). The King also took steps to improve the royal library. The library was essentially a manuscript collection, but in 1536 and 1537 Francis ordered that henceforth a copy of all books printed in his realm be sent to it.

Francis derived more pleasure from, and certainly spent more money on, the arts than on the new learning. He commissioned and collected paintings by the great masters of Italy, but he was devoted most of all to architecture. He added a new wing to the château of Blois and created a wholly new château at Chambord. He carried out extensive remodelling at the château of Fontainebleau and at Saint-Germain-en-Laye and built a completely new château at Villers-Cotterets and another, now destroyed, just west of Paris in the Bois de Boulogne (the château of Madrid). He also commissioned the rebuilding of the Paris city hall.

Francis employed several Italian artists on these and other artistic projects. While the contributions of several, like Leonardo da Vinci, Andrea del Sarto, and Benvenuto Cellini, were few and their influence ephemeral, some, like Il Rosso and Francesco Primaticcio, who created the distinctive decoration at Fontainebleau, and Sebastiano Serlio, an architect and architectural writer, made lasting contributions to Renaissance art in France.

## **Reformation in France**

Francis' attitude toward the growth of Protestantism was determined in part by his concern to play the role of protector of the new learning and in part by his foreign policy, both of which made him less anxious to persecute religious reformers and innovators than his theologians and judges would have liked. Because the educational and moral reform programs of the humanists made them appear to be religious innovators, Francis' support of the new

learning made it seem that he favoured some degree of religious innovation. Moreover, his sister Marguerite was very interested in the program of Christian renewal put forth by humanists such as Lefebvre d'Étaples, and she supported a number of them at her court.

But, although he was willing to allow the humanists to publicize their program, Francis I had no intention of actually supporting the establishment of Lutheranism in France. The French Church was already institutionally very much under his control as a result of the Concordat of Bologna, a bilateral accord he reached with the Pope in 1515. In return for disavowing formally the theory that an ecumenical council of the Church was superior to the Pope and for allowing the Pope a nominal role in the administration of the French Church, Francis obtained a formal statement guaranteeing his right to nominate the holders of the most important benefices in France (archbishops, bishops, and abbots), to tax the clergy, and to limit drastically the jurisdiction of Roman courts over French subjects.

The threat that Lutheranism posed to civil society and to traditional religious practice was clear in the 1520s, but Francis refrained from actively persecuting Protestants until the late 1530s. This course was in large measure imposed by his policy toward Charles V. Through most of the 1530s Francis was allied with the German Protestant princes, and he therefore could not persecute Protestants in France. Only once in this period did he turn sharply against the Protestants. On the night of Oct. 17-18, 1534, placards attacking the Mass were put up all over France, even upon the door to the King's bedchamber. This provocation led to a brief persecution of suspected Lutherans.

But when Francis changed his foreign policy and tried in 1538 to reach an accord with Charles V, persecution of Protestantism in France began more earnestly. The Edict of Fontainebleau (1540) brought the full machinery of



royal government into action against suspected heretics. A second reversal in his foreign policy that reopened the alliance with the German Protestant princes in the early 1540s slowed the persecutions, but they began again after the accord with the Emperor reached in the Peace of Crépy (1544).

### **Internal Administration**

The machinery of royal government was strengthened and extended in a number of different ways by this absolutist ruler, ably assisted by his equally tough-minded chancellor, Antoine du Prat. The Concordat of Bologna was one of the most important of their measures directed to this end. In this reign the last of the great semi-independent princely appanages, the duchy of Bourbon, was extinguished by a virtual act of confiscation that disinherited Charles de Bourbon (1523). The duchy of Brittany, administered separately by the first wife of Francis I, Queen Claudia, was brought under the direct administrative control of the King in 1535. Following a policy employed by his predecessors, Francis I also extended French administrative institutions into the territories he added to the realm.

The extent of the intrusion of the central administration into local society during this reign is best exemplified by the Ordinance of Villers-Cotterets (1539), in which the King commanded each parish priest to keep a record of all births, deaths, dowries, wills, and other significant exchanges of property. The clergy was taxed more regularly and more heavily than ever before, and the sale of government offices, once a private affair, was now conducted under the auspices of royal officials for the profit of the royal treasury. The first experiment in public credit, interest-bearing loans to the King, called *rentes*, which were guaranteed by the properties and revenues of the towns of France, was introduced in this reign. But the attempt to centralize the administration of all royal revenue, carried out with ruthlessness in 1522 and 1523, proved

unsuccessful, and the collection and disbursement of the King's income remained a local operation.

As might be expected, there was resistance to some of the King's authoritarian policies and the procedures used to implement them. Constable Bourbon tried unsuccessfully to organize a revolt of the nobility, but throughout Francis' reign the nobility remained surprisingly quiet. In the early part of his reign, Francis faced opposition from within his administration. The Parliament of Paris resisted stoutly his new financial measures (especially the sale of offices), his protection of the religious innovators, and, above all, the Concordat of Bologna. The captivity of the King after the defeat at Pavia gave the Parliament an opportunity to demand reforms, but the judges had no real power behind them and Francis silenced them with his characteristic firmness when he returned from captivity. After that, with the exception of a tax rebellion in the west (1542), the internal politics of the reign consisted of little more than the rise and disgrace of different personages at the royal court.

## Henry IV

Henry IV became heir to the French throne through his marriage to Margaret of Valois but was challenged during a time of religious strife. Despite converting to Catholicism after becoming king of France in 1589, Henry IV issued the Edict of Nantes to foster religious tolerance. He was killed on May 14, 1610, in Paris, France.

### Early Life

Henry of Navarre was born in Pau, France, on December 13, 1553. His parents, who became king and queen of Navarre shortly after Henry was born, were of different faiths and exemplified the strife in France between the Huguenots (Protestants) and Catholics. Although Henry was baptized a Catholic, he was raised a Protestant following the death of his father in 1562.

At age 14, Prince Henry began his military service in an expedition against rebellious Roman Catholics in Navarre, which ended in a victory for the Huguenots. Henry distinguished himself and the experience forged a soldierly spirit within him. However, the spread of civil war made him reflect on its disastrous effect on France.

Following the death of his mother in June 1572, Henry became king of Navarre. An arranged marriage to Margaret of Valois, daughter of Henry II and Catherine de' Medici, brought Parisian Catholics and visiting Huguenots together in an uneasy standoff. The tension erupted into the full-scale killings of the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre on August 24, 1572, and Henry escaped death with the help of his wife and his promise to convert to Catholicism.

## **War of the Three Henrys**

Upon the death of François, Duke of Anjou, in 1584, Henry became heir to the throne of France. He was opposed by the Holy League, made up of Catholic aristocrats, and Pope Clement VIII, who excommunicated the French heir from the church. The situation brought about the War of the Three Henrys, pitting Henry against King Henry III of France and the staunchly Catholic Henry, Duke of Guise.

Henry of Navarre acted boldly, defeating the army of Henry III in the crucial Battle of Coutras on Oct 20, 1587. Eventually, Spanish interference with French succession prompted Henry III to join forces with Henry of Navarre to take control of Paris and the French countryside. Henry III was stabbed on August 1, 1589, and died the next day after declaring Henry of Navarre his successor.

## **Unit IV**

### **Thirty Years' War:**

The Thirty Years' War was a 17th-century religious conflict fought primarily in central Europe. It remains one of the longest and most brutal wars in human history, with more than 8 million casualties resulting from military battles as well as from the famine and disease caused by the conflict. The war lasted from 1618 to 1648, starting as a battle among the Catholic and Protestant states that formed the Holy Roman Empire. However, as the Thirty Years' War evolved, it became less about religion and more about which group would ultimately govern Europe. In the end, the conflict changed the geopolitical face of Europe and the role of religion and nation-states in society.

### **Causes of the Thirty Years' War:**

With Emperor Ferdinand II's ascension to head of state of the Holy Roman Empire in 1619, religious conflict began to foment.

One of Ferdinand II's first actions was to force citizens of the empire to adhere to Roman Catholicism, even though religious freedom had been granted as part of the Peace of Augsburg.

Signed in 1555 as a keystone of the Reformation, the Peace of Augsburg's key tenet was "whose realm, his religion," which allowed the princes of states within the realm to adopt either Lutheranism/Calvinism or Catholicism within their respective domains.

This effectively calmed simmering tensions between peoples of the two faiths within the Holy Roman Empire for more than 60 years, although there were flare ups, including the Cologne War (1583-1588) and the War of the Julich Succession (1609).

Still, the Holy Roman Empire may have controlled much of Europe at the time, though it was essentially a collection of semi-autonomous states or

fiefdoms. The emperor, from the House of Habsburg, had limited authority over their governance.

### **Defenestration of Prague:**

But after Ferdinand's decree on religion, the Bohemian nobility in present-day Austria and the Czech Republic rejected Ferdinand II and showed their displeasure by throwing his representatives out of a window at Prague Castle in 1618.

The so-called Defenestration of Prague (fenestration: the windows and doors in a building) was the beginning of open revolt in the Bohemian states – who had the backing of Sweden and Denmark-Norway – and the beginning of the Thirty Years' War.

### **Bohemian Revolt:**

In response to Ferdinand II's decision to take away their religious freedom, the primarily Protestant northern Bohemian states of the Holy Roman Empire sought to break away, further fragmenting an already loosely structured realm.

The first stage of the Thirty Years' War, the so-called Bohemian Revolt, began in 1618 and marked the beginning of a truly continental conflict. Over the first decade-plus of fighting, the Bohemian nobility formed alliances with the Protestant Union states in what is now Germany, while Ferdinand II sought the support of his Catholic nephew, King Phillip IV of Spain.

Soon, armies for both sides were engaged in brutal warfare on multiple fronts, in present-day Austria and in the east in Transylvania, where Ottoman Empire soldiers fought alongside the Bohemians (in exchange for yearly dues paid to the sultan) against the Poles, who were on the side of the Habsburgs.

Catholic League Victories

To the west, the Spanish army aligned with the so-called Catholic League, nation-states in present-day Germany, Belgium and France, who supported Ferdinand II.

At least initially, Ferdinand II's forces were successful, quelling the rebellion to the east and in northern Austria, leading to the dissolution of the Protestant Union. However, fighting continued to the west, where Denmark-Norway's King Christian IV threw his support behind the Protestant states. Even with help from soldiers from Scotland, however, the armies of Denmark-Norway fell to the forces of Ferdinand II, ceding much of northern Europe to the emperor.

### **Gustavus Adolphus:**

But in 1630, Sweden, under the leadership of Gustavus Adolphus, took the side of the northern Protestants and joined the fight, with its army helping to push Catholic forces back and regain much of the lost territory lost by the Protestant Union.

With the support of the Swedes, Protestant victories continued. However, when Gustavus Adolphus was killed in the Battle of Lutzen in 1632, the Swedes lost some of their resolve.

Using military assistance of Bohemian nobleman Albrecht von Wallenstein, who provided his army of an estimated 50,000 soldiers to Ferdinand II in exchange for the freedom to plunder any captured territory, began to respond and, by 1635, the Swedes were vanquished.

The resulting treaty, the so-called Peace of Prague, protected the territories of the Lutheran/Calvinist rulers of north-eastern Germany, but not those of the south and west in present-day Austria and the Czech Republic. With religious and political tensions in the latter regions remaining high, fighting continued.

## **French Involvement**

The French, though Catholic, were rivals of the Habsburgs and were unhappy with the provisions of the Peace of Prague.

Thus, the French entered the conflict in 1635. However, at least initially, their armies were unable to make inroads against the forces of Ferdinand II, even after he died of old age in 1637.

Meanwhile, Spain, fighting at the behest of the emperor's successor and son, Ferdinand III, and later under Leopold I, mounted counter-attacks and invaded French territory, threatening Paris in 1636. However, the French recovered, and fighting between the French-Protestant alliance and the forces of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire were at a stalemate for the next several years.

In 1640, the Portuguese began to revolt against their Spanish rulers, thereby weakening their military efforts on behalf of the Holy Roman Empire. Two years later, the Swedes re-entered the fray, further weakening Habsburg forces.

## **A Shift in the Thirty Years' War**

The next year, 1643, was pivotal in the decades-long conflict. That year, Denmark-Norway took up arms again, this time fighting on the side of the Habsburgs and the Holy Roman Empire.

At around the same time, French monarch Louis XIII died, leaving the throne to his 5-year-old son, Louis XIV, and creating a leadership vacuum in Paris.

Over the ensuing years, the French army had several notable victories, but also suffered significant defeats, particularly at the Battle of Herbsthausen in 1645. Also in 1645, the Swedes attacked Vienna, but were unable to capture the city from the Holy Roman Empire.



## **Prague Castle Captured**

In 1647, the Habsburg forces led by Octavio Piccolomini were able to repel the Swedes and the French from what is now Austria.

The next year, in the Battle of Prague – the last significant fighting in the Thirty Years' War – the Swedes captured Prague Castle from the forces of the Holy Roman Empire (and looted the priceless art collection in the castle), but were unable to take the bulk of the city.

By this time, only the Austrian territories remained under the control of the Habsburgs.

## **Peace of Westphalia**

Over the course of 1648, the various parties in the conflict signed a series of treaties called the Peace of Westphalia, effectively ending the Thirty Years' War – although not without significant geopolitical effects for Europe.

Weakened by the fighting, for example, Spain lost its grip over Portugal and the Dutch republic. The peace accords also granted increased autonomy to the former Holy Roman Empire states in German-speaking central Europe.

## **Legacy of the Thirty Years' War**

Ultimately, though, historians believe the Peace of Westphalia laid the groundwork for the formation of the modern nation-state, establishing fixed boundaries for the countries involved in the fighting and effectively decreeing that residents of a state were subject to the laws of that state and not to those of any other institution, secular or religious.

This radically altered the balance of power in Europe and resulted in reduced influence over political affairs for the Catholic Church, as well as other religious groups.

As brutal as the fighting was in the Thirty Years' War, hundreds of thousands died as a result of famine caused by the conflict as well as an epidemic of typhus, a disease that spread rapidly in areas particularly torn apart by the violence. Historians also believe the first European witch hunts began

during the war, as a suspicious populace attributed the suffering throughout Europe at the time to “spiritual” causes.

The war also fostered a fear of the “other” in communities across the European continent, and caused an increased distrust among those of different ethnicities and religious faiths – sentiments that persist to some degree to this day.

### **Cardinal Richelieu (1585-1642):**

Cardinal Richelieu (1585-1642) was one of France's most significant leaders because he both strengthened and consolidated the power of the monarchy. He was chief minister to Louis XIII, and he changed the nature of the French government and society. Today, he is best known as a character in Alexander Dumas' classic novel, *The Three Musketeers*. Richelieu was a master politician and diplomat who used his influence to lay the foundations of an 'absolute monarchy' in France.

Richelieu was also able to use the Thirty Years War to further France's national interests. More than anyone else, he made France the greatest power in Europe by the second half of the seventeenth century. However, these achievements, while significant, were a catastrophe for most French citizens.

In the early seventeenth century, France was one of Europe's leading powers, but it was very divided and vulnerable. It was surrounded by the Hapsburgs, who controlled the Low Countries and Spain. The kingdom was also very divided because of religion. Europe was torn by religious conflict, and in 1618 the Thirty Years War broke out, and much of the continent was dragged into the conflict between Catholic and Protestant. The international situation was destabilizing French society, which was divided between Catholic and Protestant (Huguenot).

The Edict of Nantes had granted French Protestants religious toleration, and this community effectively ran their own 'parallel state.' There were continued tensions between Catholics and Protestants, and this frequently exploded into riots and violence. The Catholic community itself was divided

between hardliners and those who took a more pragmatic approach to religion. The country itself was still largely feudal society.

The local nobility and magnates dominated the localities, and they were the de-facto rulers in their lands. The great noble families such as the Conde owned massive estates, and they even had their private armies. These noble families owed more allegiance to themselves than to France. The nobility was factionalized, and they constantly quarrelled and fought each other to gain influence and even intrigued by the Hapsburgs against their king. The actual power of the monarch was minimal. The king in France was dependent upon the nobles to raise taxes and an army. If the aristocrats did not want to cooperate with the king, he was in great difficulties. Many found this situation intolerable and demanded reforms, especially the middle class and urban elites.

Cardinal Richelieu was born in 1585, during one of France's many Religious Wars. Richelieu was the son of the Lord of Richelieu and a member of the minor nobility. He was educated in Paris College de Navarre, a brilliant student he was well-versed in history and the classics. He had originally intended to the military, but his family decided that he should enter the priesthood. In April 1607, after receiving a papal dispensation as he was only 21, he was ordained as a priest and bishop at Lucon. Richelieu was very ambitious and studied the works of Machiavelli. The extent of the Italian political philosopher's influence can be seen in Richelieu's cynical aphorisms, especially in his *Testament Politique* (1641).

His most famous epigram is 'one may use all means against one's enemies.' By 1614, the young prelate had achieved a reputation as a capable administrator and regularly attended meetings of the Estates-General (French Parliament), where his oratory impressed many. Richelieu was a member of the *dévo*t party and a powerful supporter of Roman Catholicism and held pro-Spanish views.

The young bishop came to the queen regent's attention, Marie de Medici, who asked Richelieu to attend the Royal Court. Richelieu became the chaplain of the young Queen Anne in 1615. She was the wife of Louis XII, who was too young to rule in his name, and power rested with his mother, Marie de Medici. Richelieu was a political genius, and soon he was appointed Secretary of State for War. However, his patron Marie de Medici fell from grace with the king because of court-politics, and it seemed that Richelieu's career was over. However, Richelieu managed to reconcile the queen-mother and her son. He eventually was rewarded with the position of Chief Minister, and with the backing of Louis XII, he began the transformation of French society.

The king also secured a Cardinal's hat for Richelieu. The French statesman was committed to furthering the power of the monarchy and France. In pursuit of this, he attacked the Huguenots and began to erode their power base. He reformed the navy and the army. He also reorganized the bureaucracy and sought to curb the power of the nobles. Much of his time in power was an effort to centralize power. He was dependent upon the king's favour and confidence. Still, Louis XIII, an indolent and enigmatic man, gave Richelieu great leeway to pursue the policies that he thought were best for the kingdom. The Cardinal was often embroiled in disputes with noble factions, but the monarch's support allowed him to initiate fundamental reforms and radical policies.

The Cardinal sought to establish an Absolute Monarchy in France, where the king would be, obeyed through the land, and the feudal nobility no longer acted like independent lords. He suppressed several conspiracies and rebellions and limited the powers of the nobility. Richelieu was very much a 'realist' in international affairs. He allied himself with Protestant nations, though a Catholic, to strengthen his position beloved France in Europe. He intervened in the Thirty Years War and changed the direction of that conflict. Richelieu died

hated by many in 1642. His work was continued by his hand-picked successor Cardinal Mazarin, who completed his old master's work and created an absolute monarchy in France.

Richelieu made sweeping changes to how France was governed. He expanded the standing army and the navy. He also made sure that the Royal Treasury regularly funded them for the first time. Richelieu was eager to remove the nobility's influence from the bureaucracy, and he opened the civil service to commoners. However, many of these bought their positions, leading to nepotism and corruption in the later years of Richelieu's. The Cardinal did make the bureaucracy more efficient and made sure that the royal budget was balanced. His most important reforms were in local government. Traditionally the local notables had been free to do what they like; they were expected to administer their district.

This was a relic of feudalism, and Richelieu believed it was not suitable for a modern state. He persuaded Louis XIII to appoint an 'intendant' or official to every district, and they would administer the area. This did much to reduce the influence of the local notables, but they still had immense powers. The appointment of government officials did much to curb the authority and freedom of provincial nobles. Richelieu's administrative reforms did much to change France from a feudal to a modern state. However, this was arguably not finished until the French Revolution. Richelieu also had many castles and fortresses demolished, which reduced the nobility's ability to defy their monarch. However, they were still able to recruit large private armies from among their tenants and retainers. The new administration also meant more taxes for the peasantry, and there were many peasant uprisings during the Cardinal's ministry.

## **Richelieu at the siege of La Rochelle**

The Huguenots were perhaps the strongest faction in the country, and they had a significant army and were supported by Charles I of England. Richelieu attempted to revoke many of the privileges granted to the Huguenots under the Edict of Nantes. This action led to a rebellion, and Richelieu besieged one of their main strongholds La Rochelle. The Cardinal personally directed this siege, and he imitated Alexander the Great's siege tactics to capture the strategic port.

The Huguenots continued their rebellion, but the Cardinal was implacable, and the Royalist army defeated the French Protestants in battle. This forced the Huguenot leader to seek terms with the king. Richelieu adopted a conciliatory policy towards them because of personal philosophy 'First, all means to conciliate; failing that, all means to crush.' If the Huguenots had not obeyed the Cardinal's will, he would have waged total war against them. Richelieu eventually appointed the Huguenot leader to a senior position in the army and integrated some Huguenot soldiers into the Royal army. The Cardinal at the same time, under the Peace of Alais, the Protestants still had religious freedom, but they were shorn of their military and political rights.

## **19th-century painting of the Battle of Lens (1648)**

Richelieu was unique among politicians of the time as he put his king's needs before that of his religion. He devised a strategy that promoted and safeguarded the geopolitical interests of France. Despite being an early adherent of the Devot party, he was determined to limit his fellow Catholics' power, the Hapsburgs.

This dynasty ruled in Spain and Austria, and they dominated much of Europe. For over a hundred years, they had threatened France or interfered in her internal affairs. When he became Minister, he adopted a determined anti-Hapsburg policy. Through subsidies, he supported various Protestant armies in Germany that were fighting the Catholic armies of the Hapsburgs. In 1629 when the Hapsburgs seemed on the point of victory, he encouraged the Swedes to invade Germany. This was not enough for Richelieu, and he had French armies fight against the Spanish Hapsburgs in Northern Italy and even in Spain itself (Catalonia).

The Cardinal used all the resources of France to contain and defeat the Hapsburgs. He was concerned that the Hapsburgs sought to encircle and conquer France. He raised taxes to pay for the military campaigns. The increased taxes disproportionately targeted ordinary families and even caused localized famines. However, Richelieu's policies were continued with, and they eventually led to the French victory over the Spanish Hapsburgs at Lens in 1648. This is widely regarded as the end of the Hapsburgs' supremacy in Europe and was a victory that saw France's emergence as the most significant power in Europe. Richelieu did not live to implement all his plans, but he undoubtedly helped make France the preeminent power in seventeenth-century Europe.

Not only did Richelieu help to make France the greatest power in Europe, but he was also instrumental in the establishment of a French overseas Empire. His Navy reforms meant that the French could secure new colonies, especially in the eighteenth century. When he came to power, the French colony in New France (Canada) was in decline. He revived the fortunes of the colony by the formation of the 'Company of New France.'



This shift helped boost trade between the colony and France, which encouraged many French emigrants to settle in the territory. Richelieu encouraged the settlers to live in harmony with the Native Americans, which did much to strengthen the French colony. The Cardinal was one of the pivotal figures in the history of Quebec and Francophone Canada.

Richelieu died before his policies came to fruition, but his protégé Mazarin ensured that the Cardinal plans were carried out. This meant that French society was utterly changed. Richelieu also had a very modern outlook, and he created the apparatus of a modern nation-state and laid the foundations for the future French Empire in North America. His last words to the king, before he died, sum up his achievements. Richelieu said "I have the consolation of leaving your kingdom in the highest degree of glory and reputation."

However, all of this came at a cost. After his death, the French nobility revolted in two wars known as the Fronde, which devastated France. His military campaigns and administrative reforms led to widespread poverty, rebellion, and famine in the countryside. Richelieu did make France great, but in doing so, he caused many millions to suffer. No wonder he was such a divisive figure who was either hated or loved.

## Cardinal Mazarin

Cardinal Jules Mazarin was an Italian cardinal, diplomat, and politician who served as the Chief Minister to the King of France from 1642 until his death in 1661. After serving in the papal army and diplomatic service and at the French court, he entered the service of France and made himself valuable to King Louis XIII's chief minister, Cardinal Richelieu, who brought him into the council of state. After Richelieu's death, Mazarin succeeded him as Chief Minister of France. At the time of King Louis XIII's death in 1643, his successor, Louis XIV, was only five years old, and his mother, Anne of Austria, ruled in his place until he came of age. Mazarin helped Anne expand the limited power her husband had left her. He functioned essentially as the co-ruler of France alongside the queen during the regency of Anne, and until his death Mazarin effectively directed French policy alongside the monarch.

### Policies

Mazarin continued Richelieu's anti-Habsburg policy and laid the foundation for Louis XIV's expansionist policies. During the negotiations of the Peace of Westphalia, which concluded the Thirty Years' War, Mazarin (together with the queen) represented France with policies that were French rather than Catholic. The terms of the peace treaties ensured Dutch independence from Spain, awarded some autonomy to the various German princes of the Holy Roman Empire, and granted Sweden seats on the Imperial Diet and territories to control the mouths of the Oder, Elbe, and Weser rivers. France, however, profited most from the settlement. Austria, ruled by the Habsburg Emperor Ferdinand III, ceded all Habsburg lands and claims in Alsace to France and acknowledged her *de facto* sovereignty over the Three Bishoprics of Metz, Verdun, and Toul. Moreover, eager to emancipate themselves from Habsburg domination, petty German states sought French

protection. This anticipated the formation of the 1658 League of the Rhine, leading to the further diminution of Imperial power.

The League was designed to check the House of Austria in central Germany. In 1659, Mazarin made peace with Habsburg Spain in the Peace of the Pyrenees, which added Roussillon and northern Cerdanya—as French Cerdagne—in the far south, as well as part of the Low Countries, to French territory.

Towards Protestantism at home, Mazarin pursued a policy of promises and calculated delay to defuse armed insurrections and keep the Huguenots disarmed. For six years they believed themselves to be on the eve of recovering the protections of the Edict of Nantes, but in the end they obtained nothing. Mazarin was also more consistently an enemy of Jansenism, more for its political implications than out of theology.

## **The Fronde**

As the Crown needed to recover from its expenditures in the recent wars, the increase of taxes contributed to already growing social unrest. The nobility refused to be taxed, based on their old liberties or privileges, and the brunt fell upon the bourgeoisie. The Fronde began in January 1648, when the Paris mob used children's slings (*frondes*) to hurl stones at the windows of Mazarin's associates. The insurrection did not start with revolutionary goals but aimed to protect the ancient *liberties* from royal encroachments and to defend the established rights of the *parlements*—courts of appeal rather than legislative bodies like the English parliaments. The movement soon degenerated into factions, some of which attempted to overthrow Mazarin and reverse the policies of his predecessor, Cardinal Richelieu, who had taken power for the

Crown from great territorial nobles, some of whom became leaders of the Fronde.

In May 1648, a tax levied on judicial officers of the Parlement of Paris provoked not merely a refusal to pay but also a condemnation of earlier financial edicts and a demand for the acceptance of a scheme of constitutional reforms framed by a united committee of the *parlement* (the Chambre Saint-Louis), composed of members of all the sovereign courts of Paris. The military record of what would be known as the First Fronde (the *Fronde Parlementaire*) is almost blank. In August 1648, Mazarin suddenly arrested the leaders of the parlement, whereupon Paris broke into insurrection and barricaded the streets. The royal faction, having no army at its immediate disposal, had to release the prisoners and promise reforms, and on the night of October 22 it fled from Paris. However, France's signing of the Peace of Westphalia allowed the French army to return from the frontiers and put Paris under siege. The two warring parties signed the Peace of Rueil (1649) after little blood had been shed.

The peace lasted until the end of 1649. In January 1650, an armed rebellion (the onset of what would be known as the Second Fronde or the *Fronde des nobles*) followed the arrests of several nobles by Mazarin. By April 1651, after a series of battles, the rebellion collapsed everywhere. A few months of hollow peace followed and the court returned to Paris. Mazarin, an object of hatred to all the princes, had already retired into exile. His absence left the field free for mutual jealousies and for the remainder of the year anarchy reigned in France.

In December 1651, Mazarin returned to France with a small army. The war began again, but this time some leaders of the rebellion were pitted against one another. After this campaign the civil war ceased, but in the several other campaigns of the Franco-Spanish War that followed, two great soldiers leading

the Fronde were opposed to one another: Henri, Viscount of Turenne, as the defender of France and Louis II, and Prince de Condé as a Spanish invader. In 1652, an insurrectionist government appeared in Paris. Mazarin, feeling that public opinion was solidly against him, left France again. Although in exile, he was not idle, and reached an agreement with Turenne. Turenne's forces pursued Condé's, who in 1653 fled to the Spanish Netherlands. Louis XIV, now of age to claim his throne, re-entered Paris in October 1652 and recalled Mazarin in February 1653. The last vestiges of resistance in Bordeaux fizzled out in the late summer of 1653.

## **Legacy**

Following the end of the Thirty Years' War, Mazarin, as the de facto ruler of France, played a crucial role establishing the Westphalian principles that would guide European states' foreign policy and the prevailing world order. Some of these principles, such as nation-state sovereignty over its territory and domestic affairs and the legal equality among states, remain the basis of international law to this day. The French people suffered terribly in the Fronde, but the wars achieved no constitutional reform. The liberties under attack were feudal, not of individuals, and the Fronde in the end provided an incentive for the establishment of royalist absolutism, since the disorders eventually discredited the feudal concept of liberty. Royal absolutism was reinstalled without any effective limitation. On the death of Mazarin in 1661, Louis XIV assumed personal control of the reins of government and astonished his court by declaring that he would rule without a chief minister.

## **Gustavus Adolphus**

King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden reigned for 20 years, and many credit him with the development of Sweden as a powerful force – both militarily and politically – in 17th century Europe. A renowned military strategist and charismatic leader, he died at the bloody Battle of Lutzen in November 1632.

### **1. He's widely regarded as one of Sweden's best kings**

Gustavus Adolphus is the only king in Sweden to have been awarded the epithet 'the Great' – a title bestowed upon him posthumously in 1633 by the Swedish Estates of the Realm. His reputation was as good at the time as it is with historians today: a rare achievement.

### **2. He was a progressive**

Under Gustavus Adolphus, peasants were granted greater autonomy, more educational establishments were established including Sweden's second university – the Academia Gustaviana. Domestic reforms dragged Sweden from the medieval period into the early modern world, and his governmental reforms helped found the basis of the Swedish Empire.

### **3. He is known as the 'Father of Modern Warfare'**

Unlike many contemporaries, Gustavus Adolphus organised a highly disciplined standing army, and enforced law & order. With no mercenaries to control, he also managed to prevent his army from looting, raping and pillaging.

He also made use of light artillery for the first time on the European battlefield, and used combined arms formations which were often much shallower. Being only 5 or 6 men deep, these formations could be deployed much more freely

and helpfully on the battlefield: some contemporary armies would have fought in blocks 20 or 30 men deep.

In this fascinating discussion with Dan Snow, Cambridge University's Dr Kate Fleet takes us on a tour of the hugely successful and long lasting empire, and questions how we should view its legacy in the modern era.

#### **4. He survived a nearly fatal bullet wound**

In 1627, Adolphus suffered a bullet wound in the muscles surrounding his shoulders from a Polish soldier: doctors could not remove the bullet itself, which prevented Adolphus wearing armour in future combat. Two of his fingers were paralyzed as a result of the injury.

#### **5. He was no stranger to war**

At sixteen he contested three wars, against the Russians, the Danes and the Poles. Sweden emerged unscathed. Victories in two of the wars brought new territory, expanding the Swedish empire.

The Thirty Years' War (1618-48) consumed Europe for much of Adolphus' reign: it remains one of the most destructive wars in European history, resulting in around 8 million deaths.

The conflict began when Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II demanded that all his subjects – who came from many different ethnicities and backgrounds – convert to Catholicism. His northern territories in Protestant Germany rebelled, forming the Protestant Union. They were joined by other Protestant states in a war that escalated over the next decade and became a struggle for European supremacy.

In 1630, Sweden – which was then a major military power – joined the Protestant cause, and its king marched his men into Germany to fight the Catholics.

## **6. He died at the Battle of Lutzen**

In November 1632, the Catholic forces were preparing to retire to Leipzig for the winter. Adolphus had other plans. He launched a surprise attack against the retreating forces, who were under the command of Albrecht von Wallenstein. But Wallenstein regrouped and prepared to defend the road to Leipzig. Adolphus attacked at 11am with a thunderous cavalry charge.

The Protestants gained an advantage, threatening to overrun the left flank of the Protestant army, but a counterattack held them off. Both sides rushed reserves to this crucial sector of the battle and Adolphus himself led a charge into the melee.

Amid the smoke and fog, Adolphus suddenly found himself alone. A shot shattered his arm before another hit his horse in the neck and caused it to bolt into the midst of the enemy. Unable to control it with his mangled arm, he was shot in the back, stabbed, and then finally killed with a close-range shot to the temple.

With much of the army ignorant of their heroic commander's death, one final assault secured a costly victory for the Protestant forces. Adolphus' body was found and returned to Stockholm where it was greeted with a huge display of mourning. Lutzen was a pyrrhic victory for the Protestants, who had lost thousands of their best men and their greatest leader. The Thirty Years' War resulted in no outright winner when peace was signed between the major belligerents in 1648. The northern German territories would remain Protestant.



## **Unit- V**

### **Age of Enlightenment**

#### **Louis XIV of France (Grand monarchy)**

##### **Life History:**

After the death of Mazarin in 1661, King Louis XIV assumed the throne in France. In 1661, Louis took charge upon the France. At that time he was 23 years old. He was the First ruler who made new era.

##### **The grand Monarchy:**

Louis said “I am the state”. Louis had twin objectives to achieve: to extend the boundaries in France, make France into supreme in Europe. From his motto he explain his monarchy and diplomatic rule. In this period France got Fame. Historians said France was “the Queen of western civilization”. This period was called “Age of Louis XIV”.

##### **Louis XIV’s Internal policy:**

Louis made a great monarchy in France. He abolished representative council. He reduced the power from ministers. He spread Roman Catholic and he oppressed Protestant Hunars. He increased economic in his country.

##### **a)Louis XIV administration:**

Louis was served by such great men like Colbert of Finance minister, Lionne of famous diplomatic, Louis of war minister, Turenne and Conde of French generals, Vauban of master of builder of forts. Louis ruled France by the help of four councils. Council of State, Council of Dispatches, Council of Finance and Council of Privy. The council members were appointed by the king. France divided into ‘Intendents’. Louis divided his rule into war, administration, finance, coast guard, public works department, education these

all the representatives watch out by Louis XIV. They were called Secretaries of State.

### **b)Colbert Reformation:**

In 1661 Colbert took charge as Finance department. Already he worked as public works department, finance, coast guard, commercial, agriculture during Mazarin period. He earned good name and fame from France people.

(i)Finance reforms: Colbert introduced measures for property. He promoted manufacture and commerce in France. He introduced tariff system it was called Taille.

(ii)Industries and agriculture reformation: Peasants relief from the taxes. He helped a lot to increase the product of agriculture. He invited experts from England, Holland, Italy for Silk, glass works, garments works were done by the experts.

(iii)External commerce reforms: Colbert introduced over sea commercial from Baltic Sea, Mediterranean Sea, Indian coast and America.

(iv)Internal commercial reforms: transport facilities increased for the purpose of internal commerce. He built berth for commerce in Roche port, Colosia, Brest and Harve.

(v) Colonial policy: Colbert believed that the government should regulate the economy. The French royal army manned by skill. He encouraged French settlement in West Indies, India, Louisiana, Canada and some parts of Africa.

c) Religious policy of Louis XIV: New sects like Jansenism and Quietism were also differing from King religious. Louis published The Declaration of Liberties of the Gallican church in 1682. The denial of Pope's ceremony over the general council of the church. The Papal decrees were subject to the approval of the

bishops. Jansenism: The Jansenism were a group of Catholics who were led by Corelius Jansen a theologian. In France they were known as Protest Catholics. They believed in God Almighty more than the concern of salvation. Louis XIV did not tolerate any convert from main principles of Catholic faith.

### **Foreign Policy of Louis XIV:**

In Louis XIV period there were four important war held in France. They were, (i) War of Devolution(1667- 1668): France (Louis XIV) and Spain (Charles II). After the death of Philip IV his son Charles II ascended the throne in 1665. Charles II was a weak in mind and body. Louis XIV claimed Netherland in the name of his wife Maria Theresa. Maria Theresa was a daughter of Philip IV by his first wife. Devolution means “to claim a land”. Louis XIV decided to war against Charles II in 1667. The French armies invaded the Netherland. Louis made diplomatic moves to isolate Spain. He secured the neutrality of Sweden, Germany Austria and Habsburgs. French armies captured a large number of fortress on the borders like Charlarie, Turnnie, Lille. England, Holland, Sweden planned against France. Louis XIV knew their plan so he stopped the war against Netherland. This war was concluded by the Treaty of Aix-La-Chappelle in 1668. By this treaty Louis returned the fortress to Spain.

### **(ii)War with the Dutch (1672-1678):**

Louis hated the Dutch, because they were Protestant Republicans. He as jealous on their commercial and colonial enterprises. Therefore decided to crush trade monopolies if possible by defeating them a war. Already Colbert has taken steps like raising the tariff against Dutch goods coming to France. Louis XIV took steps to break triple alliances and isolated Holland. He signed a secret Treaty of Dover with England King Charles II. Louis launched his invasion to

Holland in 1672. French armies captured many places and fortresses under the leadership of Conde and Turnne.

Holland armies under the leadership of Orange William. Lastly, England, Spain, Brandenburg formed a group to attack France. The Dutch war turned into Europe war. Now France had Sweden as her only ally. The Triple Alliance breaks the Dykes Dam. So the sea water entered large into city. France went back this war was concluded by treaty of Nimwegen in 1678-1679. Results of the war: By this treaty Dutch did not lose anything. Spain lost her wealth. Spain returned the French Comdae state and Belgium- Netherland fortress to France. Louis dream was scattered. France lost her treasury.

### **(iii) War with the League of Augsburg (1686-1697):**

Louis XIV captured Alsace, Lorraine, Brandenburg, Strasbourg. After capturing these all places he targeted on Palatinate. Leopold was an Emperor of Holy Rome Empire. Emperor Leopold formed a League called the League of Augsburg in 1686 with Spain, Sweden, Germany. To protect the sovereign and integrity of the Holy Rome empire. Louis invaded against Palatinate in 1686 with his war commander Nickampark. At that time England king fleet to another country, William III used this opportunity and assumed as a king of England. By this conquest Louis defeated Anglo-Dutch. In 1692, the same countries fought at La-Hague. Finally the war came to be an end by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697. Treaty of Ryswick(1697): Louis withdrew his right on Palatinate. Louis accepted William III as a King of England. Louis returned the places like Lorraine, Luxembourg, Strasbourg. Louis accepted the Dutch troops keep stayed in the fortress of Belgium, Netherland.

### **(iv) The war of Spanish Succession (1701-1714):**

This war was a fourth and last war of Louis XIV. Charles II of Spain had no heir. Philip V of Anjou, the ruler of Spain and grandson of Philip IV. Maria

Theresa and Margret Theresa was a sisters of Charles II and a daughters of Philip II of Spain. Maria Theresa and Margret Theresa the wife Louis XIV of France and Leopold I of Holy Rome were respectively. The Bavarian king Max Emmanuel claimed Spain for his son Joseph Ferdinand. Louis XIV, Leopold I and Bavarian had agreed to treaty to maintain the balance of power. In 1698, the Spain was divided into 3 parts. Unfortunately the Bavarian Ferdinand died. In the meantime Charles II to draw a will assigning his whole empire to Philip V of Spain. This decision induced Louis's angry. Louis sent his army to Spain and other opponent countries sent their troops. The war was fought between 3 continents from 1702 to 1713. England formed a grand alliances against France. The duke of Marlborough, Prince of Eugene of savoy together scored against French forces in Blenheim. William III was passed away. After his death, Queen Ann, ruled in England. Both of them ready to Signed a treaty. In 1713-1714 this war was concluded by the treaty of Utrecht. Treaty of Utrecht: This treaty was signed in 1713-1714. The Holy Rome was compensated with Naples Sardinia and Milan to Netherland. Louis XIV left his supremacy and Philip V assumed as a king of Spain.

## **Frederick the Great**

### **Internal policy:**

#### **a)Agriculture reforms:**

Frederick was keenly interested in land use. Especially draining swamps and new farmland. He paid attention to the improvement of agriculture. He encouraged the landlords to introduced scientific farming and enlarge the cultivation. He called it People's policy. He introduced several reforms to achieve his goal

#### **b)Judicial reforms:**

As an enlightened despot Frederick the great took much interest in the justice. He remodeled the legal code. The press in Prussia was free. He allowed freedom of speech, the press and abolished most uses of judicial torture.

#### **c)Intellectual reforms:**

It is well known that Frederick the great earned his fame as a great intellectual. He patronized Voltaire. He restored the glory of Berlin Academy of Science. He opened many elementary schools for the benefits of lower classes.

#### **d)Religious and Education reforms:**

Frederick the great was a shout protestant. But he remained special about Christian Faith and morals. He extended religious tolerance to all. He welcomed Catholics and Jews were selected to his Kingdom. Providing shelter to the foreign artisans who brought prosperity to the country.

## **Foreign policy:**

### **a) Austria war of succession:**

Causes of the war: Charles IV was an Austrian king and Holy Rome Empire. He had no male heir. Charles desired his daughter Maria Theresa want to rule Austria, Habsburgs. So he made a pragmatic sanction. Spain, France, England, Russia and Prussia were signed in its. In 1740, Charles IV died. After his death Maria Theresa ascended the throne. By using this opportunity Frederick invaded against Austria without intimate. Frederick captured Silesia which was a fertile place in Austria. There were 2 lakhs people. Courses of the war: Maria Theresa sought help to other European countries. England helped to Austria because of England wanted to settled colonization over Austria. France wanted to revenge on Austria. So he joined with Prussia. There were two groups participated in this war. England and Holland captured Bavaria. This war was reflect in North America and Canada. Finally the war was concluded by Treaty of Aix-la-Chappelle in 1748. Results of the war: By this treaty Frederick gained Silesia. Francis Stephen who was Maria Theresa's husband became an Emperor of Holy Rome. France gained Louisburg in Canada. England gained Madras in India.

### **2) Diplomatic revolution:**

There were great changes took in 1748 to 1756 among the European countries. Kaunitz who was the minister of Maria Theresa. Kaunitz felt the Prussia growth than Austria. So she wanted to make cordial relationship with France. Marie Antoinette who was the daughter of Maria Theresa married Louis XIV king of France. At that time England feared about than over. So England sought help to Austria but Maria Theresa refused it. Finally England joined with Frederick. New team was interchanged. Austria, France and Spain were one

team. Prussia, England and Holland were another team. Frederick signed a Treaty of West Minister in 1755. This was made drastic changes in Europe.

### **3) Seven Years War (1756-1763):**

Causes of the war: a) Want to regained Silesia: In Austrian war of succession, Frederick captured Silesia. Maria Theresa want to regained it. So she sought help to Russia Queen Elizabeth. Sweden also helped to Maria Theresa. b) Commercial rivals between England and France. England and France wanted to war though the colonization. So they used the opportunity. England accompanied Prussia. France accompanied with Austria. c) Army rival between France and Prussia: In Europe France had no supreme army force when compared with other European countries. But New Prussia also supreme powers in army. Courses of the War: The Seven Years of war proved to be the bloodiest war fought in Europe and the others continent. It began after Frederick invaded Saxony and occupied Dresden. Russia and France entered the war on the side of Austria to attack Prussia. In 1757 Frederick captured Bohemia. Following this Frederick was defeated by Austria and Prussia troops. Surrendered on all sides by numerous enemies. In 1757 France was defeated by Frederick at Rossbach from west side. In the same yea Austria was defeated by Frederick at Leuthen from south side. In 1757 Russian also defeated by Frederick at Lefort from east side. In England William Pitt resigned his position in 1761. In 1759 Russia defeated the Prussia troops. So Frederick totally disappointed. In 1760 Russia captured Berlin. After the death of Queen Elizabeth, Peter III ascended the throne. Peter III withdrew support to Austria. Peter III admired of Frederick's activities. Finally the Seven Years of War was concluded by the treaty of Paris in 1763. England, France, Spain signed in this treaty. Maria Theresa did not captured the Prussia without any support. So she decided to withdrew the war by signed a Treaty of Hubertsburg. Results of the war: By this treaty, England gained Comda, Minakar and some part of West Indies Island from France.



France colonization came to be an end from America and India. By the treaty of Hubertsburg, Prussia gained Silesia and Glatz. After Maria Theresa his son Joseph II ascended the throne of Holy Rome Emperor. Prussia developed her strength in Army France lost her men and materials. England has received the victory. After the Seven Years of War Austria's influence was reduced.

#### **4) Partition of England:**

After the Seven Years of War, Frederick ruled 23 years. He promoted the wealth of his country. But he involved in the Partition of Poland. By this he gained some parts of Poland. Frederick did not to avoid the conflict between Turkey and Russia. So he planned the partition of Poland. Frederick received Dharn Dansik and West Prussia.

## **Peter the Great**

### **Peter's life: (1682-1725)**

Peter I or Peter the Great was the grandson of Michael Romanov. He is described as the father of Russia. He inaugurated a new era in the history of Russia which was known for autocracy of the Czars. Peter displayed from his boyhood days a great liking and skill designing and building boats and ships. After the death of his brother (Ivan) in 1696 he became a sole ruler of Russia. During this day he be caught the Turkey on the Black sea. The defeat of Turkey seashore in the capture of the Black sea port of Azov.

### **Peter's Policies:**

Centralization of administration. State control over church. Several reforms to westernised the backward Russian society. He laid the foundation of the modern state of Russia almost single-handed.

### **Conditions of Russia:**

There were 3 institutions functioned in Russia. The Czar, The Duma, The orthodox church headed by a Patriarch.

### **1. Peter's Reforms:**

1) Peter's voyage to west countries: Pete took effort to develop the Russia's states. He went to Germany, England, Holland, Austria. He joined as Marine workers in Amsterdam. He learned art, science administration, invasions.

2) **Kings power:** Like Louis XIV established administration in Russia. He divided the empire into Provinces each provinces into Village panchayat. Each provinces was placed under the charge of a military governor. Peter abolished streltsy and created a new army by recruiting loyal guard.

**3) Education reforms:** Peter introduced western education in Russia. Mathematics, Scientific subjects were introduced. Western education was organized in a colleges. In 1724 he founded the Russia Scientific Academy. In this Academy organized Mathematics, Science and Social. Germany philosopher assisted to peter for his administration.

**4) Economic system:** Peter had great schemes in mind to improve the economy of the country. With the help of foreign experts he opened factories, canals and road. He paid some attention to agriculture.

**5) Military system:** Peter appointed PatrickCardon, Bruce who were experts in Military from Scotland. He had 1 lakh Artillery ship and 2800 sailors.

**Peter's Foreign Policy:** 1) War with Turkey: The capturing of Turkey was impossible. Peter wanted to capture the Harbor of Azov. In 1695 Peter invaded Turkey. In 1696 Peter captured Azov harbor. At that time Turkey was ruled by Sultan Mustafa II. Again in 1710 turkey invaded Russia in river bed of Brath. Hence Peter loss Azov and returned it to Turkey in 1711.

## **2) War with Sweden:**

Sweden was a great power in Northern European with glorious military past. Peter planned how to capture the Baltic Sea which was best pace for trade and commerce. Charles XII was a 12 years old who ascended the throne of Sweden. There were Triple alliances (Poland, Denmark, Russia) signed to defeat Sweden. But unfortunately Charles XII defeated all the powers. In 1699 Augustus II was appointed as a Poland Saxony. Course of the war: In 1700 Charles XII was defeated Denmark. Secondly Russia defeated in 1700. Due de Cray led 8000 soldiers who was a commander in Sweden. He defeated Russia and captured Narva. Augustus II lost his position. In 1709 Russia won the war in Poltova. Russia captured Reeva, Dinaburg, Livonia, Eastland in 1710. In 1714 again Russia defeated Sweden's military forces. In 1718 Charles XII died.

Finally the war came to be an end with the Treaty of Nystad in 1721. Results of the War: Russia got Lithuania and as round the state of Finland. Augustus II replaced his position. Peter created a new places in Baltic areas it is called St. Petersburg. Peter established the city of St. Petersburg on the Neva River and moved the capital there from its former location in Moscow. Shortly after, St Petersburg was deemed Russia's "window to Europe".

### **Shortcomings and Death:**

Under Peter's rule, Russia became a great European nation. In 1721, he proclaimed Russia an empire and was accorded the title of Emperor of All Russia, Great Father of the Fatherland and "the Great." Although he proved to be an effective leader, Peter was also known to be cruel and tyrannical. The high taxes that often accompanied his various reforms led to revolts among citizens, which were immediately suppressed by the imposing ruler. Peter, who stood at roughly 6 1/2 feet tall, was a handsome man who drank excessively and harbored violent tendencies.

Peter married twice and had 11 children, many of whom died in infancy. The eldest son from his first marriage, Alexis, was convicted of high treason by his father and secretly executed in 1718. Peter the Great died on February 8, 1725, without nominating an heir. He is entombed in the Cathedral of Saints Peter and Paul, located in St. Petersburg.

## **Maria Theresa**

In 1740, Maria Theresa succeeded the Habsburg throne. In resistance, Frederick II's army invaded and claimed Silesia. The war ended in 1748, after which she reformed her government and military. In 1756 Frederick II waged the Seven Years' War against her. In 1765 she appointed her son her co-regent. She died on November 29, 1780, in Vienna, Austria.

### **Early Life**

Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI and his wife, Elisabeth Christine of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, welcomed their first daughter, Maria Theresa, into the world on May 13, 1717. She was born at the Hofburg Palace in Vienna, Austria.

Maria Theresa's father was the last remaining male heir to the Habsburg throne, so before she was born, fearing that he might not produce a son, Charles VI reformed the Salic Law, which prevented any female heir from succeeding her father. In 1713 he issued the Pragmatic Sanction to ensure his eldest daughter's right to take over the throne when he died, provided he never had a son. In 1720 Charles worked tirelessly to earn support for the sanction from his crown lands and several of the great European powers. Over time, they begrudgingly agreed to honour the sanction.

Maria Theresa's education and upbringing were typical of princesses at the time. Her studies focused on frivolous skills thought to befit a young noblewoman. Despite the fact that Maria Theresa, who indeed still did not have a brother, was increasingly likely to inherit the Habsburg throne, she was ill-acquainted with affairs of state.

### **Marriage and Children**

Charles VI had been encouraged by his trusted adviser, Prince Eugene of Savoy, to marry Maria Theresa off to a powerful prince. Instead, Charles VI allowed his daughter to marry for love. In 1736 Maria Theresa and her beloved Duke Francis Stephen of Lorraine, France, were wed. Since Lorraine could

potentially be incorporated into the Habsburg Empire, Duke Francis appeased France by conceding to trade his province for Tuscany, which was of considerably lesser value.

Over the course of her marriage, Maria Theresa would give birth to a sizable brood. Her 16 children consisted of 5 sons and 11 daughters, including the future queen of France, Marie Antoinette.

### **Succession and Resistance**

In October of 1740, Charles VI died. It was time for Maria Theresa, then 23 years old, to succeed to the Habsburg throne. Subjects of her crown lands — the Austrian duchies and Netherlands, and Bohemia and Hungary — were quick to accept Maria Theresa as their empress. But Maria Theresa immediately faced resistance to her succession from European powers who had previously agreed to her father's Pragmatic Sanction. Under the leadership of Frederick II, King of Prussia, those powers formed a coalition against Maria Theresa.

By December of that year, Frederick II's army invaded Silesia, an Austrian province, and claimed it for his kingdom. Bavaria and France followed suit with their own invasion of Habsburg territories, resulting in an eight-year conflict dubbed the War of the Austrian Succession. The war ended in 1748 when Austria was forced to let Prussia keep Silesia and to accept the loss of three of its Italian territories to France.

### **Reforming Domestic Policy**

During the War of the Austrian Succession, Maria Theresa had never found an adequate general. She also struggled to find capable men to align themselves with the Habsburg Empire, with the exception of a few administrators she had managed to appoint.

Once the war had ended, Maria Theresa set about further reforming the Habsburg government, with Silesian exile Count Frederick William Haugwitz heading up the effort. Haugwitz's reform effort focused mainly on the centralization of the empire's power. He assigned Bohemia and Austria to a

joint ministry and took power away from the Provincial Estates. As a result, the affected territories lent Austria's weakened army significantly more military power. Austria also benefited from the wealth produced by those provinces' industries.

Maria Theresa also allowed Haugwitz to do away with yearly resource negotiations with the empire's estates in favor of meeting to negotiate only once a decade. Over the course of that decade, the estates would pay the central government yearly taxes. Additionally, Maria Theresa reorganized several government functions, combining them in a centralized General Directory.

### **Foreign Relations**

The increased revenue and cost savings of Maria Theresa and Haugwitz's domestic reforms further served to strengthen the Habsburg Empire's army. Although it was peacetime, Maria Theresa saw the need to prepare for an impending second war with Fredrick II, as he sought to defend Prussia against Austria's newly formed alliance with its former enemy, France.

In 1756 Fredrick II once again waged war against Maria Theresa's empire. His attack culminated in the Seven Years' War, during which Maria Theresa tried to reclaim Silesia. In 1762, when Empress Elisabeth died, Russia, one of Austria's greatest allies in the war, withdrew. Because it was clear that the Habsburg Dynasty couldn't win the war without its allies, in 1763 Maria Theresa and Fredrick II agreed to a peace treaty on the condition that Prussia would get to keep Silesia.

### **Late Reign and Death**

In 1765 Maria Theresa's husband, Francis Stephen, died. Upon his death, Maria Theresa appointed her eldest son, Joseph II, as emperor and co-regent. The two frequently clashed in their beliefs. After considering her own abdication and ultimately rejecting the idea, Maria Theresa allowed Joseph to take control of army reforms and join Wenzel Anton, Prince of Kaunitz-Rietberg, in determining the empire's foreign policy.

Although Maria Theresa craved peace and promoted diplomacy, during the mother and son's co-regency the War of the Bavarian Succession broke out, lasting from 1778 to 1779.

Maria Theresa died on November 29, 1780, at Hofburg Palace in Vienna, Austria—where she had reigned for four decades—leaving behind a solid basis for future generations of the family empire. With her death, Joseph II assumed full responsibility as Holy Roman Emperor.



## Joseph II

Joseph II was Holy Roman Emperor from 1765 to 1790 and ruler of the Habsburg lands from 1780 to 1790. He was the eldest son of Maria Theresa and her husband, Francis I and thus the first ruler in the Austrian dominions of the House of Lorraine, styled Habsburg-Lorraine. As women were never elected to be Holy Roman Emperor, Joseph took the title after his father's death in 1765 yet it was his mother who remained the ruler of the Habsburg lands. However, Maria Theresa, devastated after her husband's death and always relying on the help of advisors, declared Joseph to be her new co-ruler the same year. From then on, mother and son had frequent ideological disagreements. Joseph often threatened to resign as co-regent and emperor. When Maria Theresa died in 1780, Joseph became the absolute ruler over the most extensive realm of Central Europe. There was no parliament to deal with and Joseph, deeply interested in the ideals of the Enlightenment, was always positive that the rule of reason would produce the best possible results in the shortest time. He issued edicts, 6,000 in all, plus 11,000 new laws designed to regulate and reorder every aspect of the empire. He intended to improve his subjects' lives but strictly in accordance with his own criteria. This made him one of the most committed enlightened despots.

### Josephinism

Josephinism (or Josephism), as his policies were called, is notable for the very wide range of reforms designed to modernize the creaky empire in an era when France and Prussia were rapidly advancing. However, it elicited grudging compliance at best and more often vehement opposition from all sectors in every part of his empire. Joseph set about building a rational, centralized, and uniform government for his diverse lands but with himself as supreme autocrat. He expected government servants to all be dedicated agents of Josephinism and

selected them without favor for class or ethnic origins. Promotion was solely by merit. To impose uniformity, he made German the compulsory language of official business throughout the Empire. Joseph's enlightened despotism and his resulting commitment to modernizing reforms subsequently engendered significant opposition, which eventually culminated in an ultimate failure to fully implement his programs.

### **Tax, Land, and Legal Reform**

To equalize the incidence of taxation, Joseph ordered a fresh appraisal of the value of all properties in the empire. His goal was to impose a single and egalitarian tax on land and thus modernize the relationship of dependence between the landowners and peasantry, relieve some of the tax burden on the peasantry, and increase state revenues. Joseph looked on the tax and land reforms as being interconnected and strove to implement them at the same time. The various commissions he established to formulate and carry out the reforms met resistance among the nobility, the peasantry, and some officials.

In 1781, Joseph issued the Serfdom Patent, which aimed to abolish aspects of the traditional serfdom system of the Habsburg lands through the establishment of basic civil liberties for the serfs. It was enforced differently in all the various Habsburg lands. The nobility in Bohemia refused to enact its provisions, while the Transylvanian nobles simply refused to notify the peasants in their region about this emancipation document. The Hungarian estates claimed that their peasants were not serfs, but "tenants in fee simple, who were fully informed as to their rights and duties by precise contracts" and continued to restrict these "tenants." In contrast, the peasants of the German-speaking provinces were actually aided by the Patent. The Patent granted the serfs some legal rights in the Habsburg monarchy, but it did not affect the financial dues and the physical *corvée* (unpaid labor) that the serfs legally owed to their

landlords, which in practice meant that it did not abolish serfdom but rather expanded selected rights of serfs. Joseph II recognized the importance of further reforms, continually attempting to destroy the economic subjugation through related laws, such as his Tax Decree of 1789. This new law would have finally realized Emperor Joseph II's ambition to modernize Habsburg society, allowing for the end of *corvée* and the beginning of lesser tax obligations. Joseph's latter reforms were withdrawn upon his death and the final emancipation reforms in the Empire were introduced only in 1848.

Despite the attempts to improve the fate of the peasantry, Joseph's land reforms met with the resistance of the landed nobility and serfdom was not abolished in the Empire until 1848. Joseph inspired a complete reform of the legal system, abolished brutal punishments and the death penalty in most instances, and imposed the principle of complete equality of treatment for all offenders. He ended censorship of the press and theater.

### **Education and Public Health**

Joseph continued education and public health reforms initiated by his mother. To produce a literate citizenry, elementary education was made compulsory for all boys and girls and higher education on practical lines was offered for a select few. Joseph created scholarships for talented poor students and allowed the establishment of schools for Jews and other religious minorities. In 1784, he ordered that the country change its language of instruction from Latin to German, a highly controversial step in a multilingual empire.

By the 18th century, centralization was the trend in medicine because more and better educated doctors were requesting improved facilities. Cities lacked the budgets to fund local hospitals and the monarchy wanted to end

costly epidemics and quarantines. Joseph attempted to centralize medical care in Vienna through the construction of a single, large hospital, the famous Allgemeines Krankenhaus, which opened in 1784. Centralization, however, worsened sanitation problems causing epidemics and a 20% death rate in the new hospital, but the city became preeminent in the medical field in the next century.

## **Religion**

Probably the most unpopular of all his reforms was his attempt to modernize the highly traditional Catholic Church and make the Catholic Church in his empire the tool of the state, independent of Rome. Clergymen were deprived of the tithe and ordered to study in seminaries under government supervision, while bishops had to take a formal oath of loyalty to the crown. As a man of the Enlightenment, he ridiculed the contemplative monastic orders, which he considered unproductive. Accordingly, he suppressed a third of the monasteries (over 700 were closed) and reduced the number of monks and nuns from 65,000 to 27,000. Marriage was defined as a civil contract outside the jurisdiction of the Church. Joseph also sharply cut the number of holy days to be observed in the Empire and forcibly simplified the manner in which the Mass (the central Catholic act of worship) was celebrated. Opponents of the reforms blamed them for revealing Protestant tendencies, with the rise of Enlightenment rationalism and the emergence of a liberal class of bourgeois officials.

Joseph's enlightened despotism included also the Patent of Toleration, enacted in 1781, and the Edict of Tolerance in 1782. The Patent granted religious freedom to the Lutherans, Calvinists, and Serbian Orthodox, but it wasn't until the 1782 Edict of Tolerance that Joseph II extended religious freedom to the Jewish population. Providing the Jewish subjects of the Empire with the right to practice their religion came with the assumption that the

freedom would gradually force Jewish men and women into the mainstream German culture. While it allowed Jewish children to attend schools and universities, adults to engage in jobs from which there had been excluded, and all Jewish men and women not to wear gold stars that marked their identity, it also stipulated that the Jewish languages, the written language Hebrew and the spoken language Yiddish, were to be replaced by the national language of the country. Official documents and school textbooks could not be printed in Hebrew.

Josephinism made many enemies inside the empire—from disaffected ecclesiastical authorities to noblemen. By the later years of his reign, disaffection with his sometimes radical policies was at a high, especially in the Austrian Netherlands and Hungary. Popular revolts and protests—led by nobles, seminary students, writers, and agents of Prussian King Frederick William—stirred throughout the Empire, prompting Joseph to tighten censorship of the press.

## **Europe on the eve of French Revolution:**

While France in the last quarter of the eighteenth century remained politically the France of Louis 14 without the Grand monarchy socially the Nation was changing rapidly. There are three powers the monarchy the aristocracy and the people. Under such circumstances revolution can break out only as the result of a gradual process. Historians and writers have explained the causes of the French Revolution according to their own prejudiced.

### **A) Political causes:**

Though France was the most advanced of all Continental countries yet socially it had some glaring defects. French society was divided into three hostile groups: the clergy, the nobles and the third estate comprising comprehensive category of classes.

I) The clergy itself was divided into two classes higher clergy and lower clergy. The higher clergy-arch bishops, bishops and abbots often enjoyed great wealth. The lower clergy profited little by the privileged position of the order.

II) The nobles were divided into three sections. Country nobles, officials' nobility and the nobles of the court. the country nobles who were in a majority had small incomes. The official nobility some 4000 in all chiefly centered in the parliament of Paris. They were opposed to the freedom of the press and to all reforms. The nobles of the court: they were supported by the bankrupt government whose resources they consumed in the idle luxury.

III) The third estate was a comprehensive category including financiers, merchants, officeholders, professional and the agricultural laborers. The peasants had to pay rent to his feudal lords tithes to the church and Taxes to the king.

### **B) Intellectual revolts:**

There had been growing in Europe throughout 18 century a Revolutionary spirit. Though the connection between the philosopher and the outbreak of the French revolution in 1789 is somewhat indirect.

1) Montesquieu: In his earlier work the Persian letters a satire on the French society. Montesquieu attacked the privileged class the corruption of the court and the Folly of religious intolerance. His famous book The Spirit Of The Law which appeared in 1748 had tremendous success.

2) Jean-Jacques Rousseau: Napoleon once declared that if had never lived there would have been no French Revolution. The influence of his book Emile and Discourse were profound. Man was born free, but everywhere he is in chains. He declared that sovereign power could not be divided or separated between a number of Institutions.

3) Voltaire: Voltaire was the best known and the widest read. In one of his work the letters on the english, he pointed out that the church and the nobility in England were not exempt from direct taxation. He was the prince of rationalists. He wrote famous book 'Candid'. Monarchy and religious corruption were main subjects. He accepted Limited monarchy.

4) Cane: he was a French economist. He said the economic progress depends upon freedom of agriculture, business and emancipation of farmers from government. His theory was total freedom in economic field is the real progress of nation.

5) Didro: He was editor of encyclopedia's art and science sections. Through writings he brought real condition of nation before society criticized on inequality, economic exploitation, Anarchy in religion. Reforms are necessary for the development of nation. French government imposed restrictions on encyclopedia.

### **C) Political causes:**

I) Despotic rule of Bourbon dynasty: From 1553 there was despotic rule of Bourbon dynasty in France. All rulers followed divine right theory. Every king ruled unlimitedly. In the reign of Henry 4th Louis 13th and 14th, industrial, educational, cultural development was done but rulers of 15th and 16th Louis were despotic only.

II) Law and Judiciary: All Powers was centralized with King. His word was law and Justice. So there were hundreds of law systems in nation. Laws were unwritten, not clear, unequal, injustice. Military, political, religious courts were there. Judges were getting salaries without working. Judgments were partial. There was not system of Appeal

III) Divine right theory: There was unlimited monarchy in France. King is the part and representative of God. In that capacity only he was ruling on earth. So nobody can change him so disloyalty to king was to God

IV) Aggressive policy: Bourbon rulers accepted Imperial policy. Established colonies in Africa, Asia. French East India Company also helped to this policy. On this issue France had to fight with many European countries. it caused too much economic loss. Due to economic loss injustice taxes imposed upon people.

v) Louis XVI: he was ruling France at the time of revolution. He was not interested in politics. Did not care for people but by advice of upper class. They introduced oppressive policy and opposed Revolution so Revolution became inevitable.



D) Religious causes: The clergies of France were included in upper class. Number of religious centre was 5000.there were 25000 men and women each in all centres. Immortality was among them. Religious institution was strong. Roman Catholic had their Monopoly in France. There were evil traditions by which people were exploited

E) Economic causes: out of total land 60% to feudalism, 20% to clergies, 20% to common people who were 80 lakhs in number. Exploited farmers and serfs were waiting for change. There was ample wealth in France. French East India Company was existed for foreign trade. There was very much injustice in tax system in France before the revolution. Common man had to pay 80 % income as tax. Tax collection was inhuman. Due to oppressive government people were in the calamity like poverty, starvation, hard work 1800 labours were working in Versailles Palace it increased unrest.