

MANONMANIAM SUNDARANAR UNIVERSITY THIRUNELVELI-627012
DDE, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY



HISTORY OF EUROPE 1453-1789AD

Study Material Prepared by

Dr. D. Latha Kumari, MA, M.Phil, B.Ed, Ph.D

Assistant Professor (T), Department of History

MS University, Tirunelveli- 12

III B.A. History - V Semester

Unit I:

Beginning of Modern Age - Renaissance - Meaning - Causes - Renaissance in Italy - Renaissance in literature, art, science and politics - Results of Renaissance - The geographical discoveries – Important discoveries.

Unit II:

The Reformation Movement - Meaning - Causes - Martin Luther-Spread of Reformation - Counter Reformation - Results.

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Unit V:

Age of Enlightenment - Louis XIV - Reforms - Foreign policy - Peter, the Great - Catherine II - Frederick, the Great of Prussia - Maria Theresa of Austria - Joseph II - Causes for his failure.

Reference Books:

- 1. J.P. Sinha, History of Europe, 1453 to present day, Kedarnath Ramnath Publications, Meerat, 1974.**
- 2. B.V. Rao, History of Europe (1450 – 1815) (New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd., 2001).**
- 3. H.A.L. Fisher, A History of Europe Vol. II (Delhi: Surjeet Publications, 1981)**
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1. The Beginning of the Modern Age

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, Western Europe underwent dramatic changes in the political, social, cultural, religious and economic spheres. The Italian humanist Petrarch's *Canzoniere*, German theologian Martin Luther's Ninety-five theses and Portugal Prince Henry's Navigation School heralded the dawn of the modern era. The Holy Roman Empire and the Roman Church became weak and discredited. In their place nation states, new Churches that emphasized individual faith and a commercial revolution based on mercantilism emerged. The modern era was characterized by freedom of thought, individualism, rationalism, and economic and scientific progress. In this lesson let us look at the changes ushered in by the Renaissance, Reformation and Geographical Discoveries. The Modern Age in Europe began after the culmination of the middle ages, which can be interpreted from the second half of the 15th Century to the advent of rapid Industrialisation in the latter half of the 18th Century. This period also witnessed the dramatic events that further shaped the dynamics of Europe. The rise of the concept of "Renaissance" brought substantial changes in Economic, Political and Cultural Spheres. Age-old systems and hierarchies perished under the new wave of Intellectual thoughts and principles that swept the European nations in the 16th Century.

Factors that led to the revival:

Many factors played a crucial role in shaping the course of Modern Europe, and some of the notable ones are listed below.

1. Economy and Trade
2. The advent of Printing
3. Fall of the Eastern European Empire

1. Economy and Trade:

Medieval Europe was also highly dependent on agriculture like all the other pre-Industrial countries. The later part of the Middle Ages saw the fall of the Feudal style of Economy, and slowly Europe moved towards embracing Urbanisation. Trade via Sea was the most viable option, followed by the traders as it was cheaper than the land routes. The Coasts and Rivers of Europe aided the transportation of goods to and fro from the towns. The North and Mediterranean Seas were the most important routes where international trade flourished. Mediterranean Region: The Term Mediterranean is derived from the Latin word

“Mediterranean” which means the “Middle Land”. This region spreads from the Atlantic Ocean in the West to Asia in the East. It is also called the “Cradle of Western Civilisation”. The Arabs from the East brought Slaves, Spices, Ivory, and Gold to the Italian City-States of Pisa, Genoa, Amalfi and Venice, which flourished through the emergence of new markets. The rise in trade paved the way for the emergence of banking institutions in Italy. During the earlier period, the Jewish community controlled the financial and banking institutions. The Jews held most of the financial wealth in the Middle East and Europe. The Italian cities also accrued wealth and slowly became part of the banking institutions.

2. The Advent of Printing:

The Invention of the Movable Type Printing press shifted the growth of Medieval Europe in numerous ways. “Johannes Gutenberg”, a German Goldsmith, invented the Printing Press in 1436.

Gutenberg in his Press

The Printing Press pulled Europe and the rest of the world from its Dark Age by the proliferation of Knowledge and the happenings from different parts of the countries.

Vellum: These are Calf Skin used for writing and Binding of Books in earlier periods before the advent of the Printing press.

The Invention also brought a new network of News which spread the happenings on one part of Europe to the other part of Europe. Printing of Books, Pamphlets etc, rediscovered the spread of Knowledge in Europe.

3. Fall of the Eastern European Empire:

The Seljuk Turks faced the wrath of the Mongol empire and lost many of its territories. The Ottomans who were seeking asylum in the Seljuk empires rose to the occasion when the Seljuk's power went on the wane.

Ottoman: The word Ottoman was derived from its founder, “Osman I” who established the empire in 1299 in Anatolia. Mohammed II, the ruler of the Ottoman Empire, invaded and conquered “Constantinople”, the capital city of the Byzantine Empire in 1453, which ended the reign of the empire in Eastern Europe. Most of the skilled artisans, craftsmen and scholars left Constantinople and were sheltered in Italy City-States. The Renaissance movement, which strengthened during the 16th century across Europe, ignited the minds of people through intellectual thoughts.

Renaissance in Europe: Meaning, Causes and Results of Renaissance

Putting an end to the medieval age, the Renaissance blew the trumpet of modern age. In the fifteenth century A.D. people of Europe developed interest for the literature, art, architecture, painting and culture of Greece and Rome. The beacon light of Renaissance which first appeared in Italy travelled to other countries of Europe in due course of time. The expanded horizon of human knowledge was reflected in various fields including art, literature and science.

Meaning of Renaissance:

‘Renaissance’ means ‘Rebirth’ or ‘New Birth’. Analysed from the point of history, ‘Renaissance’ means the love, eagerness and interest which were shown towards the art and literature of Greece and Rome in the fifteenth century A.D. In medieval times, the Church regulated education and cast its influence upon the society. When human mind wanted to be free from that bandage and welcomed new light. Renaissance took place.

Causes of Renaissance:

There were many causes behind ‘Renaissance’. The fall of Constantinople was its main cause. It was the centre of learning. Although, it was under the clutches of the Christians, many Greek scholars were living there. They became famous by teaching Greek language and literature to the people. In 1453 A.D., Muhammad II of Ottoman Empire occupied Constantinople and devastated it. Out of fear, the Greek intellectuals left Constantinople and entered into different cities of Italy like Venetia, Milan, Naples, Sicily, and Rome etc. They taught mathematics, history, geography, philosophy, astronomy, medicine etc. to the people of Italy. This gave birth to Renaissance.

Secondly, the invention of printing machine was responsible for Renaissance. In 145 A.D. John Gutenberg of Germany invented printing machine and letters and printed book. William Caxton brought this machine to England in 1477 A.D. With the march of time, printing machines were established in Italy, France, Belgium and other European countries. Thus, books could be published very easily with a short span of time. People could easily get books for study and learnt many things. This galvanised Renaissance.

Thirdly, many kings, nobles and merchants encouraged new literature and art. Francis I, the ruler of France, Henry VIII, the king of England, Charles V of Spain, Sigismund I, the king of Poland invited many persons having new ideas to their courts and patronised them.

Loronjo-de-Medicci, the ruler of Florence invited many artists to his court and decorated his palace with new paintings. The progressive idea of these rulers galvanised Renaissance.

Finally, the men with new thoughts paved the way for Renaissance. They advised not to accept anything blindly which is not proved properly. Peter Abelard of the University of Paris inspired his contemporaries to create enthusiasm among them for research. He advised his students not to accept any doctrine blindly as God's version. They should accept anything if it is convinced by reason. His book 'Yes and No' inspired the youths as it revealed the defects of church system. He was compelled by Christian Priests to withdraw his view and he did it. Another Wiseman of the time was Roger Bacon of Oxford University who said that nothing should be accepted without proper experiment and observation. He had to spend some years in the Church prison because of his radical view. Thus, these persons with new ideas paved the way for Renaissance.

Results of Renaissance:

The results of the Renaissance were far reaching. This gave birth to new literature, art and science.

Literature:

The Renaissance literature had its birth in Italy. The first notable creation in this direction was Dante's 'Divine Comedy'. This book was written in Italian language and it was meant for the common people. In the book he describes about the heaven, hell and the other world. It introduced new themes like love of one's country, love of nature as well as the role of individual. Another pioneer of Renaissance thought was Francesco Petrarch. The medieval thought was monastic, ascetic and other worldly. In contrast, Petrarch glorified the secular or Worldly interests of life and humanism through his 'Sonnet', a form of poetry. His notable works were 'Familiar Letters' and 'Lovers of Illustrious Man'. Another great writer of Italy during that period was Boccaccio. In his world famous book 'Decameron' (Ten Days), he denounced God which brought a revolutionary change in the Christian World. The famous philosopher of Italy was Machiavelli who in his famous book 'The Prince' described the principle of the 'Lion and the Fox'. Aristo's 'Orlandofuriso' and Tasso's 'Jerusalem Delivered' were two other great works for the Italian literature.

In other countries of Europe different kind of humanism spread in Renaissance period. In England Thomas Moore's 'Utopia', Milton's 'Paradise Lost' and 'Paradise Regained' were very famous which were created during this period. During Renaissance,

William Shakespeare, the great playwright of England became famous for his plays like 'Julius Caesar', 'Othello', 'Macbeth', 'As you Like it', 'Romeo and Juliet', 'Hamlet', 'Merchants of Venice', 'King Lear', 'Mid-summer Night's Dream', 'The Tempest' etc. Christopher Marlowe of England wrote his famous drama 'Doctor Faustus'. During this period, the Spanish writer Cervantes 'Don Quixote' the works of Lope de Vega and Calderon were very famous. By this time Martin Luther of Germany translated the 'Bible' into German language. The writings of famous Dutchman Desiderius Erasmus like 'In Praise of Folly', 'Handbook of a Christian Soldier' and 'Familiar Colloquies' gave new dimension to the literature. Roberval's 'Gargantua' and the writings of Racine, Sevigne and La Fontaine created 'Golden Age' in the French literature. The Portuguese writer Camoens's 'Lusid' was admired by the people to a great extent.

Art:

The bold departure from medieval tradition was nowhere more clearly revealed than in Art of Renaissance period. Before Renaissance, the chief art of the middle age was essentially Christian. Art was intimately associated with religion. The artists used to draw the pictures of monks, bishops and priests and the church had restricted their freedom of thought and action. One example of such unrealistic representation was of the priests who were carved with long necks to prove that they had easy access to heaven. However, the Renaissance artists and painters developed a growing interest in classical civilisation and accordingly, the European art of fifteenth and sixteenth centuries underwent a great transformation and became more and more secular in spirit.

Architecture:

The Architecture of Italy was largely influenced by the spirit of Renaissance. The builders of this time constructed many churches, palaces and massive buildings following the style and pattern of ancient Greece and Rome. The pointed arches of the Churches and Palaces were substituted by round arches, domes or by the plain lines of the Greek temples. 'Florence', a city of Italy became the nerve centre of art-world. The 'St Peter's Church of Rome' the 'Cathedral of Milan' and the 'Palaces of Venice and Florence' were some of the remarkable specimens of Renaissance architecture. In due course of time, Renaissance architecture spread to France and Spain.

Sculpture:

Like architecture, Sculpture also underwent a significant change during the Renaissance Period. The famous sculptor of Italy during this period was Lorenzo Ghiberti, who carved the bronze doors of the Church at Florence which was famous for its exquisite beauty. Another Italian Sculptor named Donatello is remembered for his realistic statue of 'St. George' and 'St. Mark'.

As a Sculptor Luca Delia Robbia was famous for his classic purity and simplicity of style who had established a school of sculpture in glazed terracotta. Michel Angelo's huge marble statue of 'David' at Florence speaks of his greatness as a Sculptor. He had also made the grand statue of 'Moses'. He had also completed the construction of 'Basilica of St. Peter' at Rome.

Painting:

In Painting, the painters of Italy during Renaissance brought excellence and became world famous. Among the painters of the world, 'Leonardo-da-Vinci' occupied a unique position. The hidden expression in his paintings made them attractive. Leonardo has become immortal for his famous painting of 'Monalisa'. The smile on the lips of Monalisa is so mysterious that it is beyond the comprehension of man. 'The Holy Supper', 'The Virgin of the Rock' and 'The Virgin and Child with Saint Anne' are his other immortal paintings which are appreciated all over the world. Michael Angelo was a painter, sculptor, architect, poet and engineer in one. His paintings like 'Creation of Adam' and the 'Last Judgment' bear testimony of his superb skill. He was invited and rewarded by King Henry VIII of England and Francis I of France. His paintings bore the stamp of originality in every aspect. Another great painter of that time was Raphael. His paintings portray an air of calmness and beauty. His practice Madonna made him world famous painter. The Vatican palace also bears testimony of his paintings. Titian was the official painter of the city of Venice. His oil painting was very famous. His painting 'Christ Carrying the Cross' appeared real and lively. In due course of time the paintings of Italy became world famous. It entered into Germany and Antwerp. The famous artist of Antwerp was Massy. Another noted German artist was Albert Durer. Among other artists of that period was Holbein of Augsburg.

Fine Arts:

During Renaissance, Fine Arts also bloomed. Italy was freed from the clutches of medieval song. The use of Piano and Violin made the song sweeter. Palestrina was a great singer and musician and a composer of new songs. In Churches, old songs were discarded

and new songs were incorporated in prayer. Many other countries of Europe also adopted this practice.

Science:

In the age of Renaissance, Science developed to a great extent. The development in astrology, medicine and other branches of Science made this age distinct. The name of Francis Bacon shines like a star in the realm of science. He was a great scientist who advised to explore nature. He advised that truth was to be discerned by experiment. This idea prompted others to regard him as the 'Father of Modern Science'. While experimenting on the method of preserving food, he breathed his last. In the realm of scientific discoveries, the name of Copernicus of Poland is chanted with reverence. In his book 'On the Revolution of the Celestial Bodies', he opined that Sun is static. The Earth and other planets revolve around the sun in a circle. His view was contrary to the medieval belief that the Earth was the centre of the universe. The Christian priests vehemently criticised Copernicus. However, he remained firm in his faith. The view of Copernicus was supported by the famous German Scientist John Kepler. He slightly changed the view of Kepler and opined that the Earth and other planets revolve around the Sun in 'elliptical' rather than 'circular Path. This created a storm in the field of thinking.

Another great scientist of this age was Galileo of Italy. He had joined as a lecturer of mathematics in the University of Pisa and there he became a professor. He invented Telescope. Through that instrument he proved before his enthusiastic audience that the theory of Copernicus was absolutely true. He further opined and proved that the 'Milky Way' consists of stars. His 'Pendulum Theory' helped later on for inventing clock. For his radical views, he was declared by Pope as 'Out Cast'. Galileo was compelled to withdraw his view out of fear. However, later on, his views were accepted as true and he became world famous. From the leaning tower of Pisa he also proved that heavy and light objects fall to the ground at the same speed.

A great Scientist of repute of that age was Sir Issac Newton of England. In his famous book 'Principia', he stated about the 'Law of Gravitation'. His 'Theory of Motion' also made him famous as a great scientist. The 'Causes of tide' were also discovered by him. Progresses also made in the field of Chemistry. Cordus made 'ether' from sulphuric acid and alcohol which was another astonishment of Science. Another Scientist of that time Helmont had discovered 'Carbon Dioxide' gas. He explained that there are gases distinct in kind from atmospheric air. Later on, this Carbon Dioxide was used to extinguish fire and to prepare

cake and cold drinks. In case of human anatomy, the Science of the Renaissance period brought revolutionary change. Vesalius, a medical scientist described about various parts of human body like skeleton, cartilage, muscles. Veins, arteries, digestive and reproductive systems, lungs and brain. William Harvey of England had discovered The 'Process of blood Circulation'. He pointed out that blood circulates from heart to the arteries and then to veins and back to heart. His contribution was undoubtedly a boon to the modern medical science. Infact, the Renaissance had created humanism in man. It increased the desire in men to know more and more. This Renaissance galvanised the development in the field of literature, art and science. It illumined the world with new Knowledge.

The Geographical Discoveries of the 15th and 16th centuries constitute an important chapter in the history of the modern world. It is also known as the Age of Discovery. The new sea routes to the East as well as the discovery of new continents like the America radically transformed the course of history. The adventurous spirit of the sailors like Bartholomew Diaz, Christopher Columbus and Ferdinand Magellan ultimately led to these historic discoveries. There are several causes that led to these discoveries.

EUROPE AT THE CLOSE OF MIDDLE AGES

History is the study of constant development of human civilization and culture. This development had been slow and steady from time to time but had always continued and reached its zenith by removing the impediments that came its way. No doubt, revolutionary changes happened very rarely in the history of human society but such actions were always supported by the people indirectly. One of the chief characteristics of history is that its continuity does not break nor its unity is destroyed. However, for the sake of facilities the history of a country could be divided into some parts and the history of Europe is also not an exception to this. In fact, the history of Europe also left a permanent impact on the constant development of human race; hence we realize the need of the study of European history to be essential. Some very significant events of Europe, such as, cultural renaissance, reformation movement, rise and expansion of nationalism, search of new sea routes, invention of printing press, industrial revolution and people's constant opposition to autocrats and their decline and the victory of democracy, are such events as have certainly shaken the mankind; therefore, the study of the history of Europe would be very useful for all of us.

Incline of Modern Era in Europe

In 1492 Columbus while making discovery of India suddenly reached the seashore of Southern America travelling through perilous Atlantic Ocean and in 1498 taking round of

Africa, Vasco da Gama reached India. Some scholars regard the discovery of South America by Columbus, the beginning of new era in Europe but most of the scholars do not agree with this view and stick to A.D 1453. Some of the scholars are of the view that 1454 was the beginning of Modern era in Europe because in this year Printing Press was invented which enabled Europe to make books available at cheaper rates and in great numbers. It also helped in the rise and development of knowledge and science in Europe. Scheville has also written about it, "It was the invention of the Printing machine that promoted a mental and social revolution in the latter half of the fifteenth century". It is opined by some prominent scholars that the beginning of the modern era was ushered in, in Europe in the year 1453. But in fact, it was very difficult to draw a dividing line between the two eras; however, be never any remarkable event takes place, the scholars consider it to be the beginning of a new era and the end of the old one. This is also applicable to the case of the history of Europe. Scheville also remarks this connection, "Although history is a continuous study and it is not easy to define Modern period from the medieval one, yet we have to begin our study at some convenient landmark. Our starting point in European history usually begins with the intellectual awakening or the Renaissance". Some other historians are of the view that after the victory of Ottoman Turks over Constantinople in A.D. 1453 they began to tease and harass the Christian merchants for the Turks were the followers of Islam and they were fanatics. Hence it became necessary for the Christian traders to find out new sea routes in order to continue their trade with India.

No doubt, the invention of Printing Press was a wonderful event but it cannot be regarded to be the beginning of Modern era in Europe. Actually, the victory of Ottoman Turks over Constantinople and escape of Greek and other scholars from there along with their literature and knowledge of science which they spread in other parts of Europe gave birth to Renaissance. As a result of this Renaissance the orthodox dogmas perished from Europe and a new era came into being. Grant has also remarked about it, "The Renaissance produced a critical enquiring spirit, gave a new outlook upon life and this emboldened the people to challenge the medieval institution". Acton also writes about it, "The history of Modern Europe began under the stress of Ottoman conquests". Although H.A.L. Fisher remarks, "No single date can be chosen to divide the Medieval from the Modern world". However, the intellectual awakening among the people of Europe was a very significant achievement of A.D. 1453.

Historians have divided the history of mankind into three periods - the Ancient, the Medieval and the Modern. The year 476 A.D that witnessed the deposition of the last West

Roman Emperor is generally taken to mark the end of ancient history and the beginning of the middle Ages. The middle Ages come to an end in 1453 A.D., the year in which Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire, fell into the hands of the Turks. The Modern Period begins from this date. But it is quite impossible to draw a hard-and-fast line of demarcation between the middle Ages and Modern times. One period shades into another in a ceaseless process of change. Many European countries were in some respects medieval as late as a hundred and fifty years ago. For example, feudalism existed in France until the Revolution of 1789 A.D. Serfdom was not abolished in Prussia until the early years of the nineteenth century, while in Russia it existed until 1861.

Nevertheless, historians are in general agreement that three great events, such as the Renaissance, the geographical discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and the Reformation mark a definite transition from the Middle Ages to a state of affairs which can be called Modern. In dealing with a vast and endless subject as human history, it would be convenient for the student of history to break it into smaller parts on the basis of certain factors. It is in this sense that we can justify our referring to the period from 476 to 1453 A.D as the middle Ages.

Generally, the middle Ages are called the 'Dark - Ages'. No doubt this period witnessed a decline in many respects. For example, this period saw the decline of Greek culture and the decline of Roman Empire. The Roman Empire, renowned for its antiquity, witnessed the evening of its period during this middle Ages. Equally there is no doubt that the middle Ages began with the devastating invasions of the Barbarians and the consequent destruction of Social Order. However, it was a blessing in disguise that the middle Ages witnessed the efflorescence of many things which were of high value in life. For example, it produced architecture and culture of very high order. It produced the Christian Church. It was the age of monasticism and it was the age of Universities. The grand civilizing force, Islam, was the offspring of the medieval institution.

Thus, even though the medieval period witnessed destruction, it brought construction in its wake. So the common assumption that the medieval period was the 'Dark Period' would not hold water under these circumstances. We shall deal with the condition of the European states in the ancient period and at the dawn of the Modern Period. By about 1000 B.C. the Greeks got settled in the coastlands of Asia Minor, in the islands of Aegean and the land which is today called Greece. Beyond doubt, the Greek culture is the basis of European civilisation though not of world civilisation.

The history of Europe was dominated by the Greeks for more than eight centuries until her power was eclipsed by Rome in the second century B.C. The two important city states in Greece were Athens and Sparta. While Athens was noted for her democracy. Sparta was famous for her iron discipline. From the imperial city of Athens emanated the world's most dynamic and spectacular political philosophies. By the middle of the 6th century B.C., Athens became powerful in Central Greece and Sparta became the unquestioned master of the Peloponnesus. In the latter half of the sixth century B.C., the Greek world had to face a serious threat from Persia. The naval battle of Eurymedon fought in 468 B.C under Athenian leadership sounded the death-knell of Persian power in the Aegean Sea. It was under the leadership of Sparta that the Persians were finally routed out from Greece.

Later, Sparta established under her leadership a strong confederacy known as the Peloponnesian Confederacy, and they became the unquestioned leader of Southern Greece. She shattered the imperial ambitions of Athens in the Peloponnesian War (431-404 B.C) The fall of Athens left Sparta once again supreme in the Greek world from 404 to 371 B.C. But in the course of three expeditions to the Peloponnesus conducted by Epaminondas, the greatest soldier and statesman that Thebes had ever produced, Sparta was weakened. The Theban supremacy lasted in Greece from 371 to 338 B.C. After the fall of Thebes, Athens once again became the leader of Greece till 338 B.C. when it was snatched by Macedonia. After the conquest of Greece by Rome in the second century B.C. Greece has no history worth recording. "The Spartan form of Government was potent but ephemeral, the Athenian form of Government was impotent and equally ephemeral, but Athenian ideas of Government would never die". "The Romans conquered the Greeks physically, but the Greeks conquered the Romans intellectually".

Rome was not built in a day. From the 8th century B.C. onwards, Italy was occupied by the Gauls in the North, the Etruscans in the Centre and the Latins and the Samnites in the South. According to ancient legend, the eternal city of Rome was founded in 753 B.C. by Romulus and Remus, twin brothers who had been nursed by a she-wolf. To begin with, Rome had a monarchical form of government. From 753 to 509 B.C. seven Kings ruled over Rome. After the fall of monarchy, Rome experimented with a republican form of government. Rome which was a small city gradually developed into a mighty Empire. She established her supremacy over Italy extending over a period from 509 to 264 B.C. In her expansion over the Mediterranean region, extending over a period from 264 to 133 B.C. Rome waged wars with Carthage and Spain in the Western Mediterranean, Greece in the Eastern Mediterranean, and Pergamum in Asia Minor. At the end of these wars, Rome became the undisputed master of

an Empire consisting of Italy and seven provinces. As the Empire grew unwieldy, the Republic had to face many dangers. Sulla, a popular leader, succeeded in establishing this dictatorship. After his death, there was a scramble for power among Pompey, Crassus, Cicero and Julius Caesar. Julius Caesar succeeded and established a government which was really despotism.

He was murdered in 44 B.C. After the murder of Julius Caesar, Augustus Caesar, (27 B.C. - 14 A.D) defeated his rival, Mark Antony, and set up a monarchy, with republican forms in 27 B.C. His reign saw the marked development of architecture and literature. He found Rome in bricks but left it in marble. Augustus Caesar may rightly be considered the first Roman Emperor. The transfer of capital from Rome to Constantinople and the adoption of the Christian religion as the only legal religion in the Empire in the 4th century A.D two momentous events profoundly influenced the future course of the history of Europe in the middle Ages.

The mighty Roman Empire of the Caesars became so unwieldy that a division of the Empire became quite inevitable towards the close of the 4th century A.D. After the death of Theodosius I (379-395) in 395, the Roman Empire was divided between his son, Arcadius and Honorius. The former became the Emperor in the East and the latter in the West with Constantinople and Rome as the respective capital cities. The Roman Empire of the West was pulled down by the barbarians in 476 A.D. Romulus Augustulus (475-476) was the last Roman Emperor of the West.

Thus the ancient period in the history of the world came to an end in 476 A.D. The Empire of the East, called Byzantine, stood the test of time and lasted till 1453 A.D when it was pulled down by the Ottoman Turks. Constantine XI (1448 - 1453) was the last Byzantine Emperor. The barbarians who pulled down the mighty Roman Empire neglected the study of Greek and Latin, the classical languages. So the whole of Europe was immersed in ignorance and darkness. Hence the period was called the "Dark Ages". This age covered the period from 476 to 1000 A.D.

Feudalism

The Middle Ages proper lasted from 1000 to 1453 A.D. It was in the year 1453 A.D, that Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks. The Modern period begins after 1453 A.D. Two institutions controlled the life of the people in the Middle Ages, one the Church and the other feudalism. After the death of Charlemagne, the first Holy Roman Emperor, in 814 A.D. his Empire was split into three states - France, Germany and Italy. The greatest

confusion prevailed in his territories. The condition was quite ripe for the development of feudalism. Feudalism which had its heyday in the Middle Age was a form of society and government based on land ownership. According to this system, all land belonged to the King who divided the kingdom into several fiefs, and gave each fief to a baron or tenant-in-chief. Thus feudalism was political in its origin. The baron in his turn subdivided his land into several manors and gave each manor to a sub-tenant on his agreeing to do military service. The sub-tenant in his turn divided his land into smaller bits and gave them to serfs who were the actual tillers of the soil. At the time of granting the land, the lord promised protection to his vassals in times of danger. The vassals promised to help the King with soldiers in times of need.

Manorial system

The economic aspect of feudalism was the Manorial system. The estate of the lord was called the manor. The land in the manor was divided into demesne land or land held by the lord and land held in villeinage or land held by the tenant. In return for the land held by the villeins, they had to render certain services to their lord. Each villein had to cultivate his lord's land two or three days in the week. This was known as "week work". In busy times such as sowing and reaping, they had to do extra work called "boon work". The Middle Ages was an age of faith when people blindly believed anything that was taught by the Church. The Pope of Rome rose in power and influence with the march of time. In the struggle between the Popes and the Emperors on certain spiritual matters, the Church won a resounding victory.

Islam:

The rise of Islam in the 7th century A.D. created a new problem in European history. By the middle of the 8th century A.D., the Moslem Empire extended from Spain to the borders of India. The rise of the Muslims in power and influence brought them in headlong collision with the Christians. The inevitable outcome was the wars of the 'Cross against the Crecent' of the 11th and 12th centuries. It was the Seljuk Turks who bore the brunt of the attack in the Crusades. The Crusades failed to achieve their main aim, viz., the recovery of the Holy land from the Muslims. This failure in the East was offset by their success in the West. The Muslims were driven out of the Spanish Peninsula. The crusading spirit led to the formation of new kingdoms such as Spain/ and Portugal. It again led to the conversion of the Slav races in the shores of the Baltic to Christianity. The Crusades contributed much to the decline of feudalism. The Crusades prepared the way for the discovery of new trade routes,

promoted trade between the East and the West and strengthened Papacy. A spirit of enquiry developed which in turn paved the way for the Renaissance of the 16th century. In the 13th century, the Muslim world was threatened by a new menace from the Mongol hordes. The Mongols under their leader Chingiz Khan swept over China, Central Asia and large parts of Western Asia and Eastern Europe like an avalanche. Egypt and Northern Africa were the only two Muslim strongholds left unrevised by the Mongol menace. After the disappearance of the Mongol menace, the Muslims of Asia rallied under the banner of the Ottoman Turks. The decline of the Byzantine Empire due to the Crusades and Mongol incursions provided an excellent opportunity to the Ottoman Turks to extend their sway in the eastern Christian Empire. The death - knell of the Byzantine Empire was sounded in 1453 when the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, the centre of eastern Christian civilisation. It was during the reign of Suleiman I the Magnificent (1520-1566), that the Ottoman Turks made a remarkable progress extending their territories. He established his sway over a greater part of Hungary. In 1547 Charles V, the Holy Roman Emperor, recognised the conquests of Suleiman in Hungary.

Holy Roman Empire

The Roman Empire of the West which came to an end in 476 A.D. was however revived by Charles the Great or Charlemagne in 800 A.D. As the Holy Roman Empire which lasted till 1806 when it was abolished by Napoleon Bonaparte. The extent of the Empire varied from time to time. At the close of the middle Ages, it roughly corresponded to modern Germany and included Netherlands, Litzerland, Austria, and Lombardy in Italy. The Holy Roman Emperor was elected by seven princes called, Electors. They were the Archbishops of Mainz, Cologne and Trier, the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Duke of Saxony, the King of Bohemia and the Count Palatine of the Rhine. In 1648 the Prince of Bavaria, and in 1692 the Prince of Hanover became electors. During the middle Ages, the Christian Kings of Central and Western Europe accepted the supreme authority of the Holy Roman Emperor in temporal matters. It was only with the rise of nationalism that the authority of the Emperor was put to severe test. Maximilien I remained Emperor from 1493 to 1519. His grandson, Charles V (1519-1556), was the next Holy Roman Emperor.

Internal dissensions and civil war marred the history of France in the 14th and 15th centuries. To the internal danger was added the external threat from England. The Hundred Year's War which lasted from 1337 to 1453 ravaged the whole country. But the war proved to be a blessing in disguise. It unconsciously roused the national spirit in the minds of the people and France emerged as a united country. Having rid of the common danger, France

once again returned to the old order of internal feud between the King and the powerful nobles. The greater part of the reign of Louis XI (1461-1483) was spent in bringing under control one insurgent noble after another. Louis XI was succeeded by his son, Charles VIII (1483-1498). Charles VIII completed the work started by his father in subjugating the nobles. The Italian wars undertaken by him yielded no gains to France.

Spain presented a disunited picture before the time of Ferdinand and Isabella. Castile, Aragon and Granada were the three divisions in Spain. The marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon with Isabella of Castile in 1469 paved the way for the unification of the two kingdoms in Spain. It became a reality in 1479. Isabella ascended the throne of Castile in 1474 and Ferdinand that of Aragon in 1479. Granada was captured from the Moors in 1492. Isabella died in 1504 and Ferdinand in 1516. The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella formed a turning point in the history of Spain. Spain which stood dismembered on the eve of their marriage was united and further extended by the conquest of Granada. The conquests in North Africa and the discovery of the New World lent charm and dignity to the kingdom. They created a strong centralised monarchy similar to that created by Louis XI after the Hundred Year's War and the Tudors in England after the Wars of the Roses. During their reign, Spain emerged as first class European power.

The Hundred Year's War (1337-1443) with France and the civil war called the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485) greatly shook up the economic fabric of the country. Henry VII (1485-1509), the victor in the Wars of Roses, evolved order out of chaos. His reign marks the transition from medieval to modern England. He set up a strong monarchy by curtailing and sowed the seeds for a practical despotism based on the willing consent of the people.

In the 15th century, Italy was divided into the kingdom of Naples, the Papal States, Florence, Milan and Venice. Towards the close of the 15th century, the Papal chair was occupied by mediocres who cared more for temporal gains than for spiritual attainments. The kingdom of Naples came under the possession of Alfonso, the King of Aragon. After his death in 1458, his illegitimate son, Ferrante I (1458-94) became the King of Naples. Sicily and Sardinia were however ruled by John II (1458-1479), the King of Aragon. In 1504, Ferdinand II (1479-1516) asserted his claim over Naples, Sicily and Sardinia. The Medici, a family of bankers, ruled Florence. Under Lorenzo the Magnificent (1469-1492), the Florence of Medici resembled the age of Athens. His reign of his son, Piero (1492-94), the family fell into evil days. When Charles VIII of France invaded Italy, Piero submitted. The infuriated people drove him into exile. Milan which was originally a republic was transformed into despotism. The House of Visconti ruled over Milan for nearly a century and a half. In 1450,

the House of Sforza usurped power. Louis XII of France captured Milan in 1500. Charles V, the Holy Roman Emperor, captured Milan in 1521. Venice, the "Queen of the Mediterranean" was ruled by an oligarchy of merchants. She had a flourishing trade. The fall of Constantinople in 1453 was a blow to her trade in the Levant (Eastern Mediterranean). In order to ensure her trading interests in the Levant, she carried on a war against the Turks from 1464 to 1479. Venice drained her resources as a result of the war. In 1489, she captured Cyprus from its Christian King. But it was lost to the Turks in 1571. The discovery of new trade routes to the New World and the Far East paved the way for the decline of Venice. The people rallied under the banner of a nobleman by name Gustavus Vasa. He liberated Sweden from the yoke of Denmark and started a new line of rulers in 1523. In 1587 a Catholic branch of the Vasas established its hegemony in Poland. Norway, however, became an independent kingdom only in 1905. In 1386 a Lithuanian chief by name Jegello carved out an independent kingdom consisting of Lithuania and Poland. In 1401 Lithuania broke away from Poland. It was, however, united with Poland in 1569. Under the rule of the seven Jegellu Kings from 1386 to 1572. Poland became a strong power.

During the reign of John II (1481-95), Bartholomew Diaz reached the southernmost part of Africa and called it the "Cape of Storms", because his ships were driven away by a terrible storm. John II however renamed it the "Cape of Good Hope" as it gave a new hope to discover a route to the East. During the reign of Manuel I (1495-1521). Vasco-da-Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope and arrived at Calicut in India in 1498. Thus he discovered a new route to the Old world.

A word about Russia of the period under review will not be out of place. There was no state of Russia in the year 1500 though there were a group of people known as Russians. They lived in a principality which was called Muscovy because it was centred on the city of Moscow. The relatively small territory was geographically in Europe, but the people had no contact with Western Europe at all. It is true that there was no physical barrier separating them from their nearest neighbours, the Poles. But there was a barrier of tradition because the Russians belonged to the Greek Orthodox Christian Church while the rest of Europe was Roman Catholic. This meant that throughout the wars of the nobles and by making the countries, Russian priests attending Church councils had travelled not to the west, but always southward to Constantinople. Constantinople was for centuries an important Christian centre until its capture by the Turks in 1453. Few Europeans at the beginning of the sixteenth century knew anything about Russia.

By 1500 Europe was slowly emerging from the middle Ages. It is sufficient to say that Europe was in a way very closely knit. The people were all Christian and they all belonged to the Roman Church, which was organised under the supreme authority of the Pope or Bishop of Rome. Everyman, from the lowest peasants to the kings themselves, acknowledged the supremacy of the Pope. All Church services and prayers were in Latin and not only the Bible but practically every other book written was in Latin. Consequently, a small minority of the people spoke and read a common language. They could wander from one part of Europe to another and fed at home wherever they went.

The civilisation of Europe when compared with that of Asia was by far inferior, in the middle Ages. There was a time in the late middle Ages when Europe was almost on the verge of being engulfed by the people of the Asiatic culture. The Mongol upsurges posed as serious threat to Europe. But Asiatic culture with its rare features of efflorescence and radiance failed to stand the test of time. The dawn of the 15th century turned the tables in favour of Europe and she became a menace to other continents. The European and the non-European world which remained in ignorance of each other were brought together by trade and conquest. It was the assimilating nature of Europe that made her culture unique. It was no wonder that the non-European world soon got Europeanised. The emergence of nationalism in Europe at a far earlier date paved the way for her political supremacy. In commercial, proselytising and expansionist enterprises, Europe outdistanced Asia. With the march of time, the impact of Europe on the non-European world reached alarming proportions.

2. THE GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES

In 1453, the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, the important trade route to the East. Thus, the Turks began to control the European trade with the East. They imposed heavy duties on the goods. On the other hand, the Arab traders continued their trade through the Coasts of India and got huge profits in spice trade. Therefore, the Europeans were forced to find an alternative route to the East.

The Renaissance spirit and the consequent scientific discoveries were also responsible for geographical discoveries. The art of ship-building developed along with the invention of Mariner's Compass. The astronomical and other scientific discoveries raised the hope of the adventurers to explore new sea routes.

The travel accounts of Marco Polo and Nicolo Polo about China and India kindled great enthusiasm among the Europeans about the fabulous wealth of the Eastern countries. Other accounts of the voyages also encouraged explorations. A Merchants Handbook

described all known trade routes between Europe and the Far East. Similarly, the Secrets of the Faithful Crusader told about Asiatic cities. Other factors such as the spirit of adventure, desire for new lands and competition for exploration between European nations had also stimulated the explorers venturing into the seas.

Portugal

The first great wave of expeditions was launched by Portugal. Its ruler was Henry (1394-1460) generally known as 'the Navigator'. As a result of his efforts, the Madeira and Azores Islands were discovered. The main project of Henry the Navigator was the exploration of the West Coast of Africa. His sailors discovered the Cape Verde Islands. Although Henry died in 1460, his zeal provided stimulus to the Portuguese for further explorations. In 1487 Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern tip of Africa and called it 'the Cape of Storms' due to a terrible storm he experienced there. Later it was renamed as 'the Cape of Good Hope' because it provided hope that access to the Indian Ocean was possible. Vasco da Gama successfully used this route and reached India in 1498. Vasco da Gama's discovery of a new sea-route to India was a most significant event in the history of Europe and Asia.

Spain

Next to Portugal, Spain began to explore the sea route to the east. Christopher Columbus, a Genoese sailor, planned to discover a new sea route to the East by travelling westwards. After securing monetary assistance from King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain, he set sail on August 3, 1492 across the Atlantic. After a long and difficult voyage he reached an island of the Bahamas on Oct 12, 1492. He thought that he had reached the shores of India. Therefore, he called Columbus the natives of that island Indians. He made three more voyages and explored the islands in the Caribbean Sea and Central America. These islands are even today called as the West Indies.

Later in 1501, Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian navigator, with the support of the king of Spain explored the areas of South America. He came to the conclusion that what Columbus discovered was not India but a 'New World'. Therefore the new continent was named as America. However, Columbus is considered as the discoverer of America. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI issued a Bull in order to prevent any dispute between Spain and Portugal in exploring new sea routes and new lands. It is popularly called the Papal Bull (order of Pope). According to it an imaginary line was drawn dividing the globe into east and west. Spain was given the right to possess the lands on the west and Portugal on the east of the Pope's line.

Thus, Spain could not use sea route through the Cape of Good Hope to reach the East Indies. Therefore, Spain planned to reach the east by sailing westwards. On August 10, 1519, Ferdinand Magellan had sailed with five Spanish ships - namely, Trinidad, San Antonio, Concepcion, Victoria, and Santiago - from the port of Sevilla. The fleet of Magellan crossed an arduous 373-mile long passage on the southern end of South America. This strait is now named the Strait of Magellan. Then he entered an ocean which was calmer than the Atlantic. Therefore, he named it the Pacific Ocean. While crossing the Pacific, the sailors suffered for want of food and drinking-water. At last, on March 6, 1521, they reached the Philippines, where Magellan was killed by the natives. The survivors with the only remaining ship, the Victoria arrived at Sevilla through the Cape of Good Hope on September 9, 1522. It was the first voyage undertaken round the world.

Other Geographical Discoveries

In 1497, John Cabot was sent by Henry VII of England to explore the seas. He discovered the Newfoundland. In his next expedition, he reached North America and explored it. But he was not able to find any people there and returned to England disappointed. However, this voyage resulted in the claim of England to the mainland of North America. In 1534, Jacques Cartier from France went to the North America and explored the region. He found the Red Indian settlements and named that region as Canada.

Impact of the Geographical Discoveries

The geographical discoveries had a profound impact on the economic, political and social conditions in most parts of the world. The most important among them are: There was a tremendous improvement in the trade and industry in Europe. It began to reach beyond the Oceans. The expansion of trade provided a stimulus to the development of ship-building industry. Larger quantities of goods had to be carried in bigger ships. As the trade developed in large scale, joint-stock companies and banking enterprises emerged. European companies established their trade centres in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The trading companies slowly captured political power and established their rule in their respective regions. This led to Colonialism and Imperialism. Capitalism had grown in Europe along with the policy of Mercantilism. As a result, the colonies were exploited. The mad rush for new colonies led to mutual rivalry among the European powers and ultimately resulted in wars.

When it comes to important discoveries or inventions, it takes a lot of hard work and time of the person doing the same. But many times coincidences or the circumstances lead to awesome discoveries too. Here, we present to you 7 important discoveries which were a

result of co-incidences. Before 15th century, the Europeans knew that the earth was round and that if they sailed to the west they would eventually arrive in the East. But strange enough, they underestimated the size of the world. They could know something about the existence of Asia and Africa because these continents have a land connection with Europe. Although they were aware of the fact that Atlantic Ocean is a very large piece of water, they were completely ignorant of its length and breadth. And it was only during the fifteenth century that ocean sailing on a large scale became somewhat practicable. The 16th century was a most exciting period in the history of Europe. In a sense, this period acted as a stronghold for all the later developments that took place in Europe. Men, hitherto concerned with their domestic affairs, began thinking about the entire world. Their imaginations were actively at work and their curiosity found no bounds. As years rolled on, the horizons of their knowledge were expanding without any limit whatsoever. Perhaps the most exciting of all the developments of this tremendous period were the voyages of exploration that took European sailors round the world. The present day man has progressed in scientific development to such an extent that the distance of the world has been brought closer.

In the first place, the invention of the magnetic compass (Mariner's Compass) by the Chinese in the fifth century had become a boon to the European world where it was, in all probability, brought by the Arabs. In earlier times ships had been obliged to keep just adjacent to land, as the mariners solely depended on the sun and the stars to tell them direction.

Secondly, the Crusades stimulated the minds of the Europeans. The Europeans who went on pilgrimage to Jerusalem to fight the Turks were wonder struck at knowing the fact that there was a vast world behind them. This idea of a vast world simply kindled the fire of curiosity and anxiety of the young, energetic people. But to cross the ocean the fifteenth century required as much courage as is needed to venture into outer space today. The causes of their readiness are partly to be found in, as we have seen man's innate curiosity and partly to be found in another factor. That is Chenghiz Khan, the great Mongol warrior, conducted a brilliant military campaign in the thirteenth century which led to the establishment of a vast Mongol empire, stretching from East to West across Asia and penetrating right into Europe. Though the empire did not endure for long, as long as the Mongols were in power, it became possible for travellers to go freely from Europe right to the Far-East.

Thirdly, the account of Marco polo about his voyage made an enormous sensation among the explorers. The story of Marco polo's journey was eagerly passed from mouth to mouth and inspired not only curiosity but greed. He had stayed in China for many years and

described Japan and China, which he called Zipango and Cathay respectively, as immensely rich lands. Obviously, the man who could reach them would not only feast his eyes on great beauty, but would also have a wonderful opportunity to earn money. After the Mongo power broke up, the journey could no longer be made by land. But when the magnetic compass made it possible to sail from one continent to another, the stories of old Cathay were again remembered.

Fourthly, the Europeans were lured by the spice lands of southern Asia. They had known a great deal about these ever since the soldiers, who visited the Middle East on Crusade, had tasted the spice of the East and brought samples home with them. Food in the Feudal Ages was inclined to be insipid at the best of times, and was often, actually bad. The difficulty was that the farmers of those days had no knowledge of sowing root crops to provide winter fodder for cattle. Therefore; it was very difficult for them to keep the beasts alive during the cold months. Apart from a few saved for breeding purposes, all the farm animals were killed in the autumn and the carcasses salted. This method of preserving them proved inadequate and by the early spring most of the meat supply would become out of use. There was not much to eat as an alternative. But the slaughter of the cattle meant a severe winter shortage of milk and butter as well as of meat. The merchants of Genova and Venice who used to go across the Mediterranean to the Levant bought spice from Arab merchants. During the thirteenth century, the Shah of Persia broke the usual rule of forbidding foreigners to pass through Persia to India. Though this permission was not continued for long, it enabled the Europeans to discover that pepper could be bought cheaply at source. They also felt that the Arabs had sold the spices to them at an exorbitant rate. Hence, the motive for finding an alternative route from Europe to Asia.

Fifthly, the fall of Constantinople in the hands of the Turks compelled the Europeans to find out a new route to the East. The Christians lost Constantinople to the Turks in 1453. It was a vulnerable trading centre through which all the merchants of the East and West had to pass. But when the Turks took possession of Constantinople, they heavily taxed the European goods. Unable to pay the higher rate of tax, the Europeans explored the ways and means to explore a new route to the East.

Sixthly, under no circumstances the Europeans were prepared to cut off the eastern trade and so they were bent upon pursuing the trade at any cost.

Henry, the Navigator of all the countries which undertook the task of exploring the globe, Portugal was the pioneer. Under the distinguished leadership of a member of the royal

family, Prince Henry, this onerous task commenced. It is heartening to note that Prince Henry (1394-1460) earned for himself the title of 'Henry the Navigator'. Henry determined that the Portuguese should equip themselves to open up for the first time an all sea-route to Asia. Hitherto, spices and other goods bound for Europe had been taken by ship either up the Persian Gulf or the Red Sea. This route was somewhat risky because it was always necessary for part of the journey to be made overland by camel caravan across the desert to the Mediterranean Sea. Since the shape of the African continent was completely unknown to them, it became necessary for Henry to have a thorough study about the 'Dark Continent'.

Prince Henry, therefore, established a 'School of Navigation' in one of his castles by the sea. He persuaded certain Arab seamen to join him for disclosing many secrets of navigation which had been unknown to Europeans. He also bought up all the maps and charts and even he made a collection of mathematical and other instruments since he was very anxious that no other nation should share the fruit of his own hard labour in this task, the doings of the school were cloaked in great secrecy. After the 'Navigator' had prepared an elaborate plan, series of exploratory voyages were launched with a view to sailing Africa. The early part of the journey seemed by no means easy and the explorers found it extremely difficult to sail past the great Sahara desert which extends for nearly two thousand miles.

Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco da Gama:

The captains who persisted were better educated and trained and their patient attempts continued even after Prince Henry's death. At last their efforts won flying colours. In 1487 a captain called Bartholomew Diaz achieved the supreme feat of rounding the Cape of Good Hope. He first called it the Cape of Storms, but the ruling Portuguese King, King John, altered the name into the Cape of Good Hope. In 1498 another captain, Vasco da Gama, not only rounded the Cape, but crossed the Indian Ocean and landed in Calicut on the West coast of India, which was an important centre of the spice trade. Thus Portugal had fulfilled her main task of exploration and could begin the work of exploiting her new discoveries.

Christopher Columbus

Columbus was Genoese by nativity. He was very much reinterested in the sea and also in trade. So, he devoted much thought to planning a sea-route to the spice - lands of Asia. Columbus had great difficulties to overcome. Eventually, he persuaded the King of Spain who had granted him £ 15,000. Columbus was determined to have the voyage with the object of reaching the East India by sailing Azores wards. As the earth is round, Columbus correctly thought that it was possible to reach any part of it through any route. Then the

explorers set their foot-prints on the remotest corne of the 'Dark continent' through the Guinea Coast. As a second attempt the Portuguese explorers unearthed the rivers Senegal, Gambia and the islands of Cape Verde. In 1492, he started on his historic voyage with three small ships. After great trials and worries he sighted land on the 12th of October 1492. It was an island near the Caribbean Sea called Bahamas. But he never realised the magnitude of his discovery and named the inhabitants as Indian's. He thought that the Island was in the East Indies. The continent of America was later named after Amerigo Vespucci, a native of Florence. He visited the New World and wrote accounts of his voyages in 1531.

Ferdinand Magellan:

The first man to realise the truth, that in the western part of Europe there would be vast continent, was Ferdinand Magellan (1470-1521). He was a Portuguese by nationality. Magellan took an active part in his country's opening - up of Vasco da Gama's new route to India, but he was accused of theft. Later, he renounced his nationality and entered the employment of the King of Spain. In 1519 Magellan started from Spain. Reaching the southern coast of South America, he crossed the straits. The straits are known after him as the Straits of Magellan, which separates the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. Then through the Pacific Ocean, he reached the Philippines Islands, where he was killed by the natives. But his crew piloted back his ship to the Cape of Good Hope, through the Indian Ocean and returned back to Spain. Thus for the first time the world was circumnavigated.

John Cabot:

Other voyages of discovery were made by English and French sailors. In 1497, John Cabot, an Italian living in England, set sail and discovered New found land in North America. In 1498, he went again and reached the east coast of North America. In 1509, his son Sebastian Cabot reached Labrador in North America and explored its coast. In 1534, a French sailor named Jacques Cartier discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence in North America. Subsequent discoveries were made in the New World by John Davis, Martin Frobisher and other English seamen.

Results of the Geographical Discoveries:

Social effects

1) The discoveries promoted colonisation. The European colonisation of the New World' reached alarming proportions after the discoveries. The colonising activities solved for the time being the acute problems of poverty and overpopulation.

2) The discoveries paved the way for the rapid growth of trade and commerce. The expansion of commerce led to an increase in wealth, knowledge and comfort which in turn led the growth of an urban middle class. The future course of events in the political social and cultural activities was shaped to a great extent by this class.

3) An evil result of the discoveries was the beginning of Negro slavery. The European planters in America imported Negro slaves from Africa to work in their plantations.

Economic effects:

1) Trade and Commerce registered vast changes and improvement. The trade routes passed from the Mediterranean to the vast oceans.

2) As the merchants needed bigger and stronger ships for oceanic trade, the discoveries gave an impetus to the development of Economy

3) In the field of commerce, vast changes were noticed. Larger quantities of commodities such as timber, grain, and livestock were carried in bigger and stronger ships.

4) The guild system gave place to the capitalistic method of production.

5) As trade was carried on a large scale, it required huge stock. So joint-stock companies and Banking enterprises took the place of individual efforts and enterprises.

6) The continuous flow of precious metals from America into Europe due to favourable balance of trade created new monetary problems. The flow of gold ultimately resulted in the emergence of a new concept in Economics called "Mercantilism". The abundant supply of money reduced its value and so the governments of the period in question had to face acute monetary problems.

7) The immense riches amassed by the trading classes led to the rise of Capitalism.

Political Effects:

1) The age-long isolation between Europe and the rest of the world came to an abrupt end as a result of the geographical discoveries.

2) The discoveries resulted in the establishment of colonial powers. The mad race for territories among colonial powers resulted in mutual rivalries and jealousies which in turn paved the way for the global wars of the 19th and 20th centuries.

3) The middle-class which grew in wealth and influence, lent able support to the Kings in their struggle with the noble sword and the clergy.

Cultural effects

Apart from enriching the European colonisation, the discoveries quickened the pace of the expansion of European civilisation to distant lands such as America, Africa and Asia. The discovery of new places and the association with new people hastened the Renaissance movement.

The new discoveries and inventions freed the people from the narrow dogmas and superstitions. The culture of one place began reach the other places due to fast means of transportation. Thus the mingling of two cultures helped the rise of modern culture. Besides the merits of the geographical discoveries they had some demerits. The slave system flourished as a result of the social changes. However, the social life of people in general became happy and prosperous. Hayes remarks, "Socially, the most important result of the new discoveries was the advent of the middle class". As a result of the geographical discoveries political conflicts began in Europe. The geographical knowledge of the people of Europe grew and an international spirit developed. It inaugurated the Europeanization of the world. Thus, the geographical discoveries brought great and far-reaching changes in the outlook, thought and the standard of living of the people.

3. THE RENAISSANCE

The Renaissance marks the dawn of the Modern Age. The Renaissance means 'rebirth'. The term is applied to the movement of reawakening in Europe towards the close of the middle Ages and at the beginning of the Modern Age. Indeed, it was a 'rebirth' classical learning. In the Middle Ages, 'classical civilization' in the meant only Greek and Roman civilizations. The masterpieces of Greek and Latin were called 'classics'. In the early middle Ages, the study of classical literature and art were neglected. That is why this period has been called the Dark Ages. Moreover, learning in general had become the monopoly of the Schools and Universities. The Church did not encourage the enquiry. Thus Abelard, a French scholar, who in the University of Paris in the 12th century was persecuted by Church for his rationalist views. But from the 14th century, there was a great change in e outlook of men. Scholars began to learn the great works of Greek and Latin literature with great enthusiasm. This revealed to a treasure house of knowledge which entirely changed attitude of mind. Blind faith and blind acceptance of the middle Ages suffered a rude shock. In their place, there came up a critical quiring spirit. This new spirit of enquiry influenced not only learning

and education, but also art and architecture, science and invention, geography and exploration, religion and morality. In the widest sense, Renaissance embraces the changes in all fields brought about by the spirit of enquiry.

Renaissance had its beginning in Italy. So Italy has been called the home of Renaissance'. From Italy, the spirit of Renaissance crossed the Alps and the Mediterranean and passed on into Spain, France, Germany and then to England.

Causes of Renaissance:

The following factors contributed to the advent of Renaissance:

1. Fall of Constantinople:

During the medieval period Constantinople was the centre of Christianity and fine arts. In 1453 Ottoman Turks achieved victory over Constantinople and forced the Christian scholars to flee to European countries where they not only spread their education and literature among the people of Europe but also impressed the European scholars by their knowledge and learning. A.J. Grant has remarked, "The movement received a strong impetus in 1453 when owing to the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, Greek scholars were compelled to flee to Italy". Hayes also comments about the contact between the Christian scholars: "By coming into contact with the Greek scholars the Europeans gradually got interested in Greek and Roman literature. By patient labour they executed the culture of antiquity and added to their meagre medieval stock of knowledge".

2. Influence on Literature:

The scholars, who fled from Constantinople and settled in Italy, soon had contacts with the other scholars of the country. They studied their books and translated them into their own languages so that the general masses who were ignorant of Latin and Greek could understand them. Among the contemporary scholars the names of Petrarch, Dante, Chaucer, Martin Luther and Erasmus need special mention. They made a great contribution to the rise of intellectual renaissance. Owing to the inspiration of these great scholars the darkness and dogmatism disappeared and a spirit of enquiry developed among the people.

3. Influence of Religious Wars:

Medieval Age was popularly known for religious wars. Various warriors used to fight in the name of religion. As a result of religious wars, the Europeans came in contact with different races. It brought a change in the geographical knowledge and social living. Three

religious wars were fought between the Muslims and the Christians in order to establish control over Jerusalem, for which the Christians of various countries had to take part in the religious wars. Thus they came in contact with other countries. It increased their knowledge and widened their mental outlook. It is said that the use of paper, cotton and ammunition was the outcome of these religious wars. H.A.L. Fisher points out that the people of Europe were forced to think about religion because of the religious conflict between the Church and the State. A.J. Grant also writes, "A new heaven and a new earth were opening for those who had eyes to see".

4. Invention of Printing Press:

In the beginning of the Modern era Printing Press and paper were invented. It made the books cheap in Europe. After the invention of Printing Press, Bible and some other books of ancient Greek and Roman literature were translated into English, French and German languages, so the people could be able to through Bible and the works of Plato and Aristotle. It added to the knowledge of the people. During the Medieval period the education was confined only to the priests, hence the people used to accept whatever was uttered by the priests without any hitch. But in the Modern era with the expansion of education the ignorance disappeared and people began to accept only those commands of the Pope and the priests which they found perfectly in accordance with their own wisdom. Hayes, a prominent historian has pointed out about the development of human capability after the invention of printing press in these words, "The invention of the press multiplied the books and made culture accessible to every common man in the society. Ideas, hitherto the exclusive right of the nobility and the clergy now began to throw light into the dark and uncivilized lives of the many."

5. Discovery of New Countries:

The Turks had established their control over Constantinople in 1453 and started plundering the merchants who were trading with India. Hence, the route of Europe to India was closed for fear of the Turks. Hence the Europeans tried to find out a new route for India. In 1492 Columbus tried to find out this route. He made a perilous journey through dangerous Atlantic Ocean and reached America. Earlier, the people of Europe did not know about America, hence now it came to be known as the New World. On the other hand, the Portuguese sailor Vasco da Gama in 1498 taking a round of America reached Calicut. After this the people of Europe discovered Africa and Australia. They established their trade relations with these countries to and began to settle there. It added to their knowledge. A.J.

Grant also writes in this connection, "The discoveries of new lands not only inspired the explorers to increase their trade in the colonies but they resolved to spread their culture, literature and also their religion among the people in the colonies. This meant that they aimed at establishing a greater Europe outside the continent" as a principal feature of the Renaissance period and it led immensely the growth of new ideas, literature and culture in the continent". India, America and Africa developed a lot due to discovery of new sea routes. Contribution of Middle Class: The European trade with routes and various new states were established in Europe which helped the rise of middle class that consisted of merchants, small industrialists, government officials, lawyers, doctors and teachers. The people of this class had great interest in the study of science, philosophy, history, art and other subjects. This class contributed to the Renaissance.

6. Colonialism:

The Europeans made various journeys in order to find out the new routes for the expansion of their trade. They established trade relations with India, America and Africa and founded their colonies there. They used to purchase the raw material from these colonies at a very cheap rate and sold their manufactured articles in the same colonies at a high price. As a result of colonialism the European merchants came in contact with the people of foreign countries and their knowledge about the second world grew. It helped in the advent of Renaissance.

7. Imperialist Tendency:

The people of Europe not only needed the raw materials from their colonies but they also were in search of permanent markets for the disposal of their manufactured goods. Only colonial markets were not the permanent solution to this problem because the rulers of the colonies could create hindrance in the smooth running of business at any time. So the Europeans wanted to establish their full control over these colonies. Hence, they began to interfere in the domestic affairs of the native rulers. They resorted to the policy of 'Divide and Rule' and often helped the friendly country against its enemy economically and militarily in order to augment their power.

8. Downfall of Feudalism and Rise of Powerful Monarchies:

During the Medieval period the position of feudal lords was strong. They lived in their own fortresses and the rulers used to provide them with fiefs for their subsistence. In return thereof, they expected to help the king at the time of war. For this they used to maintain

troops. During the Medieval Age, the rulers did not have permanent armies. These feudal lords were uneducated and they passed most of their time in sexual pleasures, hunting and mutual. Their mutual conflicts had weakened them. Secondly, the king established their control over them due to the invention of gunpowder. Now the feudal lords had no courage to challenge of the king. In this way, with the decline of the power of the lords the rise of powerful monarchies took place in Europe.

Taking the advantages of the mutual conflicts and feuds of the existing native rulers they occupied some of the small states in different regions but with the help of their military power. With the passage of time, the numerous small states were converted into big kingdoms. Besides studying the culture of vanquished countries, the Europeans also preached culture and civilization in these countries. It enhanced and developed their outlook. A.J. Grant writes about it, "Europeanization of the world

During the Medieval era the institution of Church was very strong. The people of Europe used to follow the commands of the Pope. Even the kings had no power to oppose the commands of the Pope. At the commencement of the Modern era; the powerful monarchs began to oppose the verdicts of the Pope and started working to their own sweet will. It weakened the hold of the Church. It weakened the power of the Pope, the head of the Catholic Church. They gave shelter to many scholars which helped a lot in the development of the Renaissance.

9. Economic Prosperity:

The people of Europe became much richer as lots of money poured into Europe due to foreign trade. The availability of raw material and sale of manufactured goods in the colonies encouraged the traders to establish their industries in Europe. After being free from economic problems people began to pay attention to the study of science, literature and art. It helped a lot in the development of Renaissance. In this way all the factors referred to above helped in the development of Renaissance in Europe.

1. Renaissance of Literature:

The Renaissance scholars, inspired by the ancient Greek literature and philosophy, became interested in the study of things of human interest. Indeed, it was in contrast to the theological learning of the middle Ages. This movement is known as Humanism. The followers of this movement were called "Humanists" and their subjects of study were termed 'Humanities'. Humanism discredited the culture of the middle Ages and showed almost blind reverence to the study of the ancient classics. Indirectly, Humanism encouraged the growth of

vernacular literatures. Many persons who were not able to learn and write classical Latin expressed their thoughts in their own languages. Italian, French, English and German were some of these vernacular languages. The great pioneer in the Classical Revival was an Italian by name Petrarch, who lived in the 14th century. He was known in Western Europe as the 'scholar'. The first great poet of the Renaissance age was Dante, who wrote the "Divine Comedy". Boccaccio of Italy, a great Greek scholar, wrote the famous book "Decameron". Italy remained the home of classical tradition. Indeed, Italy was even considered the "School of Europe" in the 16th century. But other countries also produced great scholars namely, Montague, the father of modern literary form known as "essay", Sir Thomas Moore of England, who wrote the world famous English work "Utopia", the great dramatists Marlowe, Ben Johnson and Shakespeare, and the poets Milton in England, Cervantes in Spain, and Erasmus in Holland.

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400), the first great poet of English literature, presented the much appreciated 'Canterbury Tales' to the English Scholars. He visited France, Flanders and Italy where he met

Boccaccio and Petrarch, works as 'Troilus and Criseyde', 'Knights' Tale', 'The House of Fame' and 'The Legend of Good Women' were much influenced by Italian style. Christopher Marlowe (1564-93), the first renowned English dramatist, wrote 'Tamburlaine', 'Dr. Faustus' and the 'Jew of Malta'. Ben Johnson, the reputed contemporary English critic of Shakespeare wrote many comedies.

Shakespeare (1564-1616), the man who has 'shaken the sphere', has achieved an immortal name by his thirty-seven plays of which some are comedies, some are tragedies and others are historical. 'Midsummer Night's Dream', 'Twelfth Night', 'King Lear', 'The Tempest', 'King John' and 'Julius Caesar' are some of them. Edmund Spenser (1552-1599) wrote 'Fairie Queene' and Sir Philip Sidney, (1554-1586) 'Arcadia'. John Milton (1608-74), the famous blind English poet, was the author of 'The Paradise Lost' and 'The Paradise Regained'.

Cervantes, the Spanish writer, gained fame by writing 'Don Quixote'. By this book, he ridiculed the feudal society of his time. Rabelais, the French scholar, was the author of the book, 'Gargantuan'. It brings out stupidity, ignorance and vices of the middle ages. Erasmus, the Dutchman, was a religious scholar and served the Church for a while. His book, 'The Praise of Folly' ridiculed the upper class privileges, superstition and Church abuses. He published his own Greek edition of the New Testament with a Latin translation, indicating important errors found in the old Version of the Bible published in the 4th century A.D.

Art and Architecture

The Renaissance marked a rebirth of art. The Renaissance art was a revolt against the bondage of medieval rules and traditions. The spirit of Humanism was remarkably reflected in the realm of architecture, sculpture and painting. Some of the greatest men of genius in these arts were produced by the Renaissance. Raphael, Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci were distinguished painters, sculptors and architects in Italy. "Leonardo beautified Milan, Michelangelo glorified Rome". Leonardo was not only a painter but also a reputed sculptor, engineer, poet, philosopher, musician and paintings 'Mona Lisa' and 'The Last Supper' were pictures of his master mind.

Michelangelo executed some of the fine oil paintings on the ceilings of the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican. He enriched the court of Lorenzo de Medici. His paintings include David, Moses, the Slaves and 'The Last Judgement'. He was the architect of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome. Raphael painted a great many works. His most reputed paintings are 'St. Cecilia', 'Madonna and Child', and the 'Transfiguration'. Titian was also a great painter. In the field of sculpture, the names of Ghiberti, Donatello and Brunellesco are also memorable in Italy.

Science

Roger Bacon of the 13th century was the father of modern science. He was an Englishman by nationality (1215-1292). Bacon invented spectacles and a sort of telescope. His scientific knowledge led him to predict the future inventions of cars, steamships and aeroplanes. But he was imprisoned for his new ideas by the Church authorities. Later, in the 15th century, the spirit of the Renaissance had profound influence on science. Leonardo da Vinci was not only a great artist but was also a great scientist. There were many other brilliant scientists. Copernicus (1473-1543), a native of Poland, created a sensation by his theory that the earth moves round the sun and as a result of which day and night occurs. He wrote the book 'concerning of Revolution of the Heavenly bodies' which was published in 1543. This theory was supported by two other astronomers, Kepler, the German, and Galileo, the Italian Galileo was persecuted by the Church for his theories and was forced to withdraw them. He also conducted experiments in dynamics. Kepler founded the science of optics, and fathered a succession of theories about the universe. Before his death, he had discovered three great astronomical laws and had set the science of astronomy upon its modern path.

Another great scientist of the Renaissance age was Descartes, a Frenchman who asserted that science depends upon the observation of facts, and not upon the authority of

ancient books. Francis Bacon of England (1561-1626) wrote a famous book, called "Novum organum" in which he expounded the inductive method of science.

William Harvey (1578-1657), the English physician discovered the circulation of blood. He served in the St. Bartholomew's hospital as physician and was physician to James I and Charles I. He laid the foundation for modern medical science. Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727) was the British natural philosopher. He invented the theory of gravitation, the theory of light and colours and the laws of motion.

Inventions

The most important invention was that of printing. The essential feature of printing is the movable type that can be used again and again for making the letters and words by impression. The first man to print a book in Europe with movable types was Johan Gutenberg of Germany in the year 1454. There arose printers in Italy about twenty years later and Caxton set up his first English printing press in Westminster in 1477. By this time, paper came to be manufactured in fairly good quantities. The result was that many books were printed. With this, the monopoly of education slipped away from the hands of the Church. For the first time, books were brought out in vernacular languages. Gunpowder was another invention. There was also the invention of muskets or hand guns. Another great invention was the telescope. It was a great landmark in the progress of astronomy. The first man to invent a telescope was Roger Bacon. Later Galileo observed the heavenly bodies with it. Another startling invention was the Mariner's Compass which helped the sailors to find out the direction at sea. Though the Chinese had known the mariner's compass early in the 5th century, it was generally known in Europe only in the 13th century.

Religion, Philosophy and Politics

A number of early manuscripts of the New Testament had come to light. The Bible was translated into most European languages. The deep belief that man's success is dependent on God's help was scientist. His encouraged by the new appreciation of the greatness of ancient civilizations. The Italian philosopher, Machiavelli contributed his celebrated work, "The Prince" to the Renaissance. "If music be the food of love, play on" says Shakespeare in his play "Twelfth Night." To that extent, much importance was given to music during the renaissance period. Musicians produced melodious orchestral musical instruments such as piano and violin. This orchestral and instrumental music has been well developed by the 18th and 19th centuries musicians like Beethoven and Bach. Giovanni Palestrina and Leonardo da Vinci were the greatest musicians of Italy.

Impact of Renaissance:

- 1) The Renaissance fostered a spirit of enquiry and critical attitude. Unquestioning obedience to Church authority was put an end to.
- 2) It revealed the beauties of the treasures of ancient Greece and Rome which produced contempt for all that was medieval.
- 3) The Christian principles of self-sacrifice and self-denial were discredited. The view of man was diverted from the quest of the heavens to the possibilities of the earth.
- 4) The scepticism produced by the Renaissance weakened the faith in religion and paved the way for the Reformation.
- 5) The curriculum of studies in the Academies was enlarged by the additions of Grammar, Classics and Sport. History was separated from theology.
- 6) It led to the growth of the vernaculars in the countries of Europe.
- 7) The vernaculars were freed from the clutches of Latin. They were enriched greatly by Dante, Petrarch, and others in Italy, Chaucer and Shakespeare in England, Cervantes in Spain and Rabelais in France.
- 8) It led to great scientific discoveries and inventions. Copernicus, Kepler and Galileo proved that the Sun is the centre of the Universe. The printing press was invented.
- 9) In the field of art and architecture, it had profound effects. The old Gothic art was relegated to the background and models were drawn out from it. The celebrated artists of the age were Ghiberti, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael and Michelangelo of Italy.
- 10) The Renaissance spirit gave a rude-shock to the strongholds of feudalism and the feudal privileges and prerogatives slowly faded away giving rise to the sudden emergence of national monarchies in Europe, especially in England, France, Spain and Portugal.
- 11) Humanitarian Movements guaranteed individual liberty. Individuals became the part and parcel of the states. Thus out of this, the utilitarian philosophy emerged.
- 12) The newly emerged nation-states launched a programme of colonialism and imperialism. In course of time, they annexed and administered those conquered areas and flourished at the cost of foreign lands. Thus, the Europeans became Empire builders.

Estimate

The spread of Renaissance opened the flood gates of adventurism. Europeans undertook many voyages and discovered the unexplored lands and new sea-routes. Thus the Renaissance paved the way for the Reformation by undermining the authority of the Church. In short, the Renaissance revolutionized European society in all aspects.

4. EMERGENCE OF THE NATION STATES

Although France after the French Revolution (1787–99) is often cited as the first nation-state, some scholars consider the establishment of the English Commonwealth in 1649 as the earliest instance of nation-state creation. Since the late 18th century the nation-state has gradually become the dominant vehicle of rule over geographic territories, replacing polities that were governed through other principles of legitimacy. The latter included dynastic monarchies (e.g., the Habsburg and Ethiopian empires), theocratic states (e.g., the Dalai Lama's rule over Tibet and the rule of the prince-bishops of Montenegro), colonial empires (justified by colonizing powers as a means of spreading a "true" religion or of bringing progress to "backward" peoples), and communist revolutionary governments that purported to act in the name of a transnational working class (see proletariat; social class: Characteristics of the principal classes).

Emergence of the Nation States is a significant feature of the Modern era. The entire medieval administration was based on feudalism. The feudal lords not only enjoyed the powers of the kings but also considered they fully independent. The feudal system was neither solid nor stable. It even failed to bring the people of one race; caste and religion into one fold. Gradually people raised voice against feudalism and feeling of nationalism flourished Europe in the 15th and 16th century. The rise of the Nation altogether ended the chaos and confusion of the feudal period and also helped in the economic development of the countries. The nation states organized the people of one culture into a compact whole and enhanced their devotion to their nation. Undoubtedly, after the decline of the Roman Empire and papal authority, the power of the people began to enhance. Gradually democratic movements began in the Nation States. The power of the feudal lords declined and the revolts of the peasants and serfs emerged. But these movements could not succeed in their mission as they were not well organized. There was no feeling of patriotism or nationalism among the feudal lords. They were only busy in having their own axe to grind but with the rise of general masses the feeling of nationalism flourished and it helped in the rise of powerful monarchies.

Characteristics of the Absolute Monarchies

1. The king is supreme in the autocracy. He runs the administration with the help of army and other officers. He is supposed to be responsible to any law. There is no man or institution that could oppose him.
2. The human rights are openly violated by the autocratic rulers. People are often sentenced behind the bars without any trial Human rights are often opposed by the kings and their assistants in the work of administration.
3. The autocratic rulers did not dismiss the medieval but they performed the work of administration with the help of new institutions.
4. The autocratic rulers only appointed the patriots on the post of lords but in Russia and Prussia the people belonging to the lower class were made lords so that they might always remain with the throne the post of feudal lord was sold for money and in these titles were also sold.
5. The enlightened rulers of the 17th century considered themselves the first servant of their people but they never cared for the people. It is referred that "the enlightened ruler Statesed his subjects as the 'first servant of the state' in accordance de principles of reason (Nothing by the people, everything people).

Cases of the Rise of Absolute Monarchies:

The following reasons contributed to the rise of absolute Monarchies in Europe:

1. The crusades of the middle Ages weakened the feudal lords enhanced the power and prestige of the rulers.
2. The rise of commerce and trade strengthened the social and economic position of the middle class which helped a lot in the establishment of the powerful monarchies for the safety of their trade and commerce.
3. The opposition of the church became quite feeble against the powerful monarchies. Now the church began to support the monarchies against the anarchies of the feudal lords.
4. The rise of nationalism also contributed to the emergence of the powerful monarchies. Reformation awoke the feeling of nationalism among the people. With the demolition of the monasteries the income of the Nation States enhanced and the significance of the religion diminished. Besides it the new geographical discoveries also contributed to the rise of national feelings.

5. The theory of divine right origin of the state also helped in strengthening the hands of the rulers. The divine rights of the kings all the more cemented their position. The Roman laws also strengthened the position of the kings as they authorised the rulers to take resort to absolutism.

6. J.E. Swain writes, "The most effective support of absolutism, however, came from advocates who based it upon rationalism, not upon religion. Machiavelli in Italy, Bodin in France and Hobbes in England were three champions of the rational support of absolutism".

Rise of Nation States

The monarchies of this period were national monarchies, because the monarchs received the support of the nation. This period witnessed the faint beginnings of a sense of nationality. Gradually, the people of Western Europe were growing into different nations. The visible centre of such national unity happened to be the monarch. So, the people of countries like England, France, Spain and Portugal expressed their patriotism by their devotion and loyalty to their monarchs. Let us briefly trace the evolution of national monarchies in these countries. In England, national monarchy developed from early times. It began with the Norman Conquest of 1066 the first Norman king of England, William the Conqueror, was an able and autocratic monarch. There began a process of national consolidation under his authority. This went on till the end of the 15th century, when the Wars of the Roses. (A civil strife that led to many battles continuously from 1455-85, between the Yorkists and the Lancastrians in England) plunged the country in anarchy. The Wars of the Roses reduced the fortunes of monarchy to the lowest ebb.

But the position of monarchy was revived by the Tudor line of kings who ruled over England from 1485 to 1603. The Wars of the Roses crippled the power of the feudal nobles and paved the way for the absolute monarchy of the Tudors. Under the Tudor monarchs, the Church was completely nationalised. The commercial classes were raised to power. In fact, the spirit of nationalism reached heights of glory in the exploits of the great seamen and in the works of the literary men in the Age of Elizabeth I who was the last of the Tudors. It was at the end of the 12th century that France became a nation under a strong monarch. The founder of this national monarchy was Philip Augustus who came to the throne in 1180 when he became King, the King of England possessed more lands in France than Philip did himself. But before he died in 1233 the whole of France came under the French monarchy. For the first time in the history of France, the King was more powerful than any of his feudal subjects. The next three centuries of French history are marked by a steady progress in

national consolidation under the growing power of the crown. Louis IX, otherwise known as St. Louis, played a prominent part in this. He established royal justice above all local jurisdictions of the nobles. Philip IV (1285-1316) brought great prestige to French monarchy by a successful quarrel with the Pope. The result was that the Pope was forced to shift his residence from Rome to France.

After his time, the Hundred Year's War broke out between England and France. In the early stages of this war, France suffered defeats and French monarchy was considerably weakened. But fortunately for the French a young country maid called Joan of Arc appeared on the scene and led the French armies to victory. By this, French monarchy once again came to its own. In the 15th century, a cunning king, Louis IX crushed all the forces against monarchy and centralised the government under the authority of the crown. Thus, before the end of the fifteenth century, the national consolidation of the country under absolute monarchy was completed.

In the middle Ages, Spain was ruled by the Muslims. But the Christians fought against the Muslims and slowly displaced them after that there were three kingdoms in the Spanish Peninsula. They were Aragon, Castile and Portugal. The kingdom of Portugal was at first a vassal state of Castile. But in 1140, its ruler declared him independent and took the title of King. Thus, Portugal became an independent national monarchy. The kingdoms of Castile and Aragon were frequently at war with each other. But a marriage alliance brought about the union of these two States. In 1492, Ferdinand, king of Aragon married Isabella, queen of Castile. In the same year, the southern Muslim Kingdom of Granada was conquered. Thus, the whole of Spain was brought under the absolute rule of a single monarch, and Spain became a nation. Soon Spain rose to be one of the most powerful countries of Europe.

The Reformation

The Reformation was a religious movement which took place in Europe in the sixteenth century. It began as an attempt to reform the Roman Catholic Church and finally resulted in the establishment of the Protestant churches. The Reformation created a split in the Christian Church. People who remained loyal to the Church came to be known as Catholics, and those who opposed the Catholic Church established separate churches for themselves.

These people came to be known as Protestants. The Reformation took place in several countries such as England, France, Germany, Switzerland and Czechoslovakia.

The Reformation is called so because it was aimed at reforming the Catholic Church

Causes of Reformation

The Catholic Church had become very powerful in the mediaeval ages. The Pope was the supreme head of the Church and exercised his powers autocratically.

Some corrupt practices of the Church:

- In the Middle Ages, the Church had vast property. Besides, land resources, people also had to pay religious taxes called 'tithes' to the Church. In addition, the Church collected another sum called 'Peter's Pence' from the people.
- As the Pope needed money to build St Peter's Church, he issued certificates called 'Indulgences'. Anyone who committed sin had to buy these indulgences to become free from the sins committed by them.
- The positions in the Church were given to the highest bidder. These practices annoyed not only the common people but also the rulers of the state.
- As the Church had become a wealthy institution, the church officials began to live a luxurious life and started neglecting their duties. Further, the priests promised salvation to the people in exchange for fees. These practices were severely criticised by the people. Erasmus wrote the book 'In Praise of Folly' and prepared the ground for the Reformation.
- As the Popes became powerful, they began to interfere in the political affairs of the state. The kings wanted to tax the Church which owned vast wealth. This was resisted by the Papacy. King Henry VIII of England obtained the lands of the Church and passed an act for the dissolution of monasteries.
- Martin Luther was a German priest who opposed the sale of indulgences by the Church. In 1517, Luther wrote ninety-five theses criticising the practices of the Church and nailed them on the doors of the Church at Wittenberg in Germany.
- Martin Luther was presented before a Grand Diet held at Worms known as the Diet of Worms. The diet ordered Luther to be outlawed. However, the latter had the support of the German rulers, and so, no action was taken against him. This movement came to be known as the German Protestant Movement. This led to the beginning of the Reformation Movement in Europe. This event is considered the immediate cause of the Reformation Movement.

Impact of the Reformation

The Reformation deeply impacted European society in the following ways:

Rise of Powerful States

- The Reformation led to the rise of powerful nation-states. Nation states refer to countries with well-defined natural boundaries with people following common culture, history and ethnic principles.
- It gave rise to the feeling of nationalism mainly in Germany and England. The kings of the European states declared themselves not only as the head of the state but also as the head of the government.
- In England, King Henry limited the powers of the Church and passed orders in the Parliament to nullify the authority of the Pope over the Church. This made him the supreme head of the Church of England.
- England, France, Spain, Portugal and Holland were some first nation states which had become powerful. The Reformation thus reduced the power of the Church and made rulers the supreme powers in their countries.

Schism within the Church

- The Reformation led to strong disagreements and divisions among the members of the Church. The uniformity in doctrines, dogmas and rituals also came to an end. The Church itself was divided into Catholic and Protestant.
- In Germany, the Protestant movement became successful. The German rulers supported the movement to weaken the authority of the Pope and the Catholic Church.
- The Reformation in England started more of a scuffle between the Catholic Church and the rulers. King Henry VIII broke away from the Catholic Church, and he made himself the supreme head of the Church of England.
- In Switzerland, Ulrich Zwingli spread Lutheranism. He condemned idol worship, rituals and unnecessary ceremonies.
- John Calvin was a French scholar who popularised the Protestant movement in Switzerland after the death of Zwingli. He declared the Bible as the sole authority for attaining salvation. Calvinism emerged as a reform movement.

- In the Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, the Protestant Lutheran Church became the official Church.

Counter-Reformation

- During the Reformation, the Church was split into the Catholic Church and the Protestant Church. A large number of Catholic Christians introduced many reforms within the Catholic Church. This came to be known as the Counter-Reformation.
- As a result of the Counter-Reformation, many religious orders were founded. Some of these were the Society of Jesus founded by St Ignatius of Loyola.
- St Francis Xavier, a follower of St Ignatius of Loyola, travelled to China and Japan for the propagation of Christianity.

Mercantilism

Mercantilism is an economic theory which aims at maintaining a favourable balance of trade by discouraging imports and encouraging exports. The rulers of the states aimed to ensure the prosperity and security of the state.

This term was first used by Adam Smith in his treatise ‘The Wealth of Nations’ in which the European states imposed restrictions on both internal and external trade.

Features of Mercantilism

Some features of mercantilism were

- According to the theory of mercantilism, the strength and the richness of the country depend on two things—the possession of gold and silver mines and the favourable balance of trade (when export exceeds imports).
- Wealth is considered the ultimate source of power.
- Mercantilists were in favour of charging interest on the money for registering profits. However, they advocated the charging of low-interest rates.

- Mercantilists consider land and labour as the only factors of production. They advocated self-sufficiency in food grains.
- They emphasised having a large population for increasing production and for participation in the wars. They further supported equal rights for immigrants.
- The mercantilists advocated maintaining a favourable balance of trade by restricting the import of foreign goods.

Charles 1500–1558

V

King of Spain and Holy Roman Emperor

Charles V became the most powerful monarch of his day, ruling over an empire that included what is now Spain, Germany, the Netherlands, parts of Italy and central Europe, and large areas in the Americas. He spent much of his reign trying to reform the Roman Catholic Church and fighting the two greatest threats to its power: Islam and Protestantism.

Rise to Power. Charles's father was Archduke Philip I of Austria, son of Holy Roman Emperor* Maximilian I. His mother, Joanna of Castile, was the daughter of Spanish monarchs Ferdinand and Isabella. From his illustrious family, Charles inherited a large number of titles and lands—a legacy that would bring him both power and frustration during his reign.

Charles had little contact with his parents. His father died when Charles was six, and his mother suffered from mental illness. The young prince grew up at the court in Brussels, then part of Burgundy, under the guidance of his aunt, Margaret of Austria. One of his tutors later became Pope Adrian VI.

Charles inherited the Netherlands and other territories in Burgundy upon his father's death in 1506. When his grandfather Ferdinand of Aragon died ten years later, Charles also acquired the throne of Spain and the Spanish lands in Italy. In 1519 Maximilian I died, and Charles saw the chance to add Holy Roman Emperor to his titles. Despite opposition from the kings of France and England, Charles won election as emperor unanimously—due in part to large bribes to the electors. These combined titles placed Charles in control of an enormous European empire.

Charles saw himself as the leader of the Christian world. He hoped to drive Muslim invaders from Europe and crush the Protestant challenge to Catholicism. However, his Spanish subjects wanted him to focus on their problems rather than spending time and money crusading far from home. In 1520 the towns of Castile revolted, leading Charles to put down

the uprising by force. This rebellion was only the first of many social and military conflicts the young ruler would face.

Struggles for Control. Charles's rise to power occurred at the same time that Martin Luther was leading the Protestant Reformation* in Europe. Although strongly opposed to Luther, Charles supported reforms within the Catholic Church. But the papacy* resisted the emperor's calls for reform and feared his political power. Pope Clement VII struck back at Charles by signing an alliance with France's king Francis I, who hoped to acquire Spanish territories in Italy. Charles responded by supporting an English invasion of France and a rebellion by the French nobleman Charles de Bourbon.

Both the invasion and the rebellion failed, but Charles's forces captured the French king at the Battle of Pavia in 1525. Charles forced Francis to give up French claims to Naples and Milan as well as its holdings in Burgundy. Once released, however, Francis refused to honor the terms of the surrender and the war resumed. Charles's troops sacked* Rome in 1527, taking Pope Clement VII prisoner. Since Charles was not there, it is not clear how responsible he was for the brutal destruction of the city. Charles and the pope finally signed a truce in 1530.

Charles had also hoped to use his military might against German princes who had become Protestants. However, the forces of the Ottoman Turks* were putting pressure on Austria, and Charles needed the Protestant princes to help him fight the Turks. After defeating Turkish attempts to seize Vienna in 1532, Charles attacked and captured the Ottoman port of Tunis in North Africa. However, he and his Christian allies were unable to take the city of Algiers or to stop Turkish pirates operating in the Mediterranean. To make matters worse, the French were helping the Ottoman cause. In 1544 Charles finally convinced France to make peace and end its support to the Turks. A truce with the Ottomans came soon afterward.

The break in fighting provided an opportunity for a council to reform church practices. The Council of Trent in 1545 addressed many of the abuses that had caused Protestants to reject the Catholic Church. Meanwhile, Charles took this chance to attack the Schmalkaldic League, an alliance of Protestant princes in Germany. He defeated the league in 1547 and compelled them to accept the Interim of Augsburg, a religious compromise between Catholic and Protestant practices.

Unfortunately for Charles, his victory was short lived. The Turks, the French, and the Protestant princes all went to war against the emperor again. In 1552 he had to flee from the city of Innsbruck to avoid being captured by the new French king Henry II. The French also

seized several cities of the Holy Roman Empire in Germany. Charles tried to put his son Philip II on the English throne by marrying him to England's queen Mary I. The English accepted the marriage, but they refused to crown Philip as king.

Frustrated by setbacks on all sides, Charles decided to abdicate*. He gave the Netherlands and Spain to his son Philip and yielded the title of Holy Roman Emperor to his brother Frederick. He assembled a group of close friends and courtiers and retired to a villa* in Spain, where he died in 1558. During his life Charles had successfully kept the Ottoman Turks out of Western Europe and protected Spain's interests in Italy. However, he was unable to pass his empire intact to his son or to stop the spread of Protestantism in Europe.

Artistic Patronage.

Charles was a great patron* of the arts, especially music. His chapel singers accompanied him on all his travels and stayed with him in his retirement. Charles also formed a chapel choir for his wife, Isabella of Portugal, and gave his son Philip a suite of musicians and composers for his twelfth birthday. The excellence of Charles's singers upheld the reputation of Flemish* music throughout the 1500s. His court also employed such famous composers as Josquin des Prez. Artists also benefited from Charles's patronage. He was a great admirer of the Venetian painter Titian, to whom he awarded a knighthood. Some of Titian's greatest works were produced for Charles, including his famous portrait of the emperor, *Charles V at the Battle of Mühlberg*. Charles also supported sculptors and brought a poet and a painter along on his campaign against Tunis.

Interestingly, Charles may have had the greatest impact on the course of Renaissance art with his troops' sack of Rome in 1527. At the time, Rome was the centre of artistic activity and patronage in Italy. After the attack, the focus of patronage moved to Venice and other northern Italian cities, ruler of the Holy Roman Empire, a political body in central Europe composed of several states that existed until 1806

Protestant Reformation

Religious movement that began in the 1500s as a protest against certain practices of the Roman Catholic Church and eventually led to the establishment of a variety of Protestant churches.

Philip II of Spain

- The son of Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire and his wife, Infanta Isabella of Portugal, Philip II of Spain was born in 1527. Known in Spain as “Philip the Prudent,” his empire included territories on every continent then known to Europeans, including his namesake the Philippine Islands. During his reign, Spain reached the height of its influence and power, and remained firmly Roman Catholic. Philip saw himself as a champion of Catholicism, both against the Muslim Ottoman Empire and the Protestants. He was the king of Spain from 1556 to 1598.
- Philip was married four times and had children with three of his wives. All the marriages had important political implications, as they connected Philip, and thus Spain, with powerful European courts. Philip’s first wife was his first cousin Maria Manuela, Princess of Portugal. She was a daughter of Philip’s maternal uncle, John III of Portugal, and paternal aunt, Catherine of Austria. Philip’s second wife was his first cousin once removed Queen Mary I of England. By this marriage, Philip became *jure uxoris* king of England and Ireland, although the couple was apart more than together as they ruled their respective countries. The marriage produced no children and Mary died in 1558, ending Philip’s reign in England and Ireland. Philip’s third wife was Elisabeth of Valois, the eldest daughter of Henry II of France and Catherine de’ Medici. Philip’s fourth and final wife was his niece Anna of Austria.

Domestic Affairs

- 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. He also grappled with the problem of the large Morisco population in Spain, who were 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 other provinces.
- Despite its immense dominions, Spain was a country with a sparse population that yielded a limited income to the crown (in contrast to France, for example, which was much more heavily populated). 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 faced bankruptcy several times.

- During Philip's reign there were five separate state bankruptcies.
- Whereas his father had been forced to an itinerant rule as a medieval king, Philip ruled at a critical turning point toward modernity in European history. He mainly directed state affairs, even when not at court. Indeed, when his health began failing he worked from his quarters in the Palace-Monastery-Pantheon of El Escorial he had built. El Escorial was another expression of Philip's commitment to protect Catholics against the rising influence of Protestantism across Europe. He engaged the Spanish architect Juan Bautista de Toledo to be his collaborator. Together they designed El Escorial as a monument to Spain's role as a centre of the Christian world.
- Turismo Madrid Consorcio Turístico, Madrid, Spain. A distant view of the Royal Seat of San Lorenzo de El Escorial. In 1984, UNESCO declared The Royal Seat of San Lorenzo of El Escorial a World Heritage Site. It is a popular tourist attraction more than 500,000 visitors come to El Escorial every year.

Foreign Affairs

- Philip's foreign policies were determined by a combination of Catholic fervour and dynastic objectives. He considered himself the chief defender of Catholic Europe, both against the Ottoman Turks and against the forces of the Protestant Reformation. He never relented from his fight against what he saw as heresy, defending the Catholic faith and limiting freedom of worship within his territories. These territories included his patrimony in the Netherlands, where Protestantism had taken deep root. Following the Revolt of the Netherlands in 1568, Philip waged a campaign against Dutch secession. The plans to consolidate control of the Netherlands led to unrest, which gradually led to the Calvinist leadership of the revolt and the Eighty Years' War. This conflict consumed much Spanish expenditure during the later 16th century.
- Philip's commitment to restoring Catholicism in the Protestant regions of Europe resulted also in the Anglo-Spanish War (1585–1604). This was an intermittent conflict between the kingdoms of Spain and England that was never formally declared. The war was punctuated by widely separated battles. In 1588, the English defeated Philip's Spanish Armada, thwarting his planned invasion of the country to reinstate Catholicism. But the war continued for the next sixteen years, in a complex series of struggles that included France, Ireland, and the main battle zone, the Low Countries.

- Two further Spanish armadas were sent in 1596 and 1597, but were frustrated in their objectives mainly because of adverse weather and poor planning. The war would not end until all the leading protagonists, including Philip, had died.
- Philip financed the Catholic League during the French Wars of Religion (primarily fought between French Catholics and French Protestants, known as Huguenots). He directly intervened in the final phases of the wars (1589–1598). His interventions in the fighting sending the Duke of Parma to end Henry IV's siege of Paris in 1590 and the siege of Rouen in 1592 contributed to saving the French Catholic Leagues' cause against a Protestant monarchy. In 1593, Henry agreed to convert to Catholicism. Weary of war, most French Catholics switched to his side against the hardline core of the Catholic League, who were portrayed by Henry's propagandists as puppets of a foreign monarch, Philip. By the end of 1594 certain league members were still working against Henry across the country, but all relied on the support of Spain. In 1595, therefore, Henry officially declared war on Spain, to show Catholics that Philip was using religion as a cover for an attack on the French state and Protestants that he had not become a puppet of Spain through his conversion, while hoping to take the war to Spain and make territorial gain.
- The war was only drawn to an official close with the Peace of Vervins in May 1598; Spanish forces and subsidies were withdrawn. Meanwhile, Henry issued the Edict of Nantes, which offered a high degree of religious toleration for French Protestants. The military interventions in France thus ended in an ironic fashion for Philip: they had failed to oust Henry from the throne or suppress Protestantism in France and yet they had played a decisive part in helping the French Catholic cause gain the conversion of Henry, ensuring that Catholicism would remain France's official and majority faith matters of paramount importance for the devoutly Catholic Spanish king.
- Earlier, after several setbacks in his reign and especially that of his father, Philip had achieved a decisive victory against the Turks at the Lepanto in 1571, with the allied fleet of the Holy League, which he had put under the command of his illegitimate brother, John of Austria. He also successfully secured his succession to the throne of Portugal.

Legacy

- Because Philip II was the most powerful European monarch in an era of war and religious conflict, evaluating both his reign and the man himself has become a controversial historical subject. Even in countries that remained Catholic, primarily France and the Italian states, fear and envy of Spanish success and domination created a wide

receptiveness for the worst possible descriptions of Philip II. Although some efforts have been made to separate legend from reality, that task has been proven extremely difficult, since many prejudices are rooted in the cultural heritage of European countries. Spanish-speaking historians tend to assess his political and military achievements, sometimes deliberately avoiding issues such as the king's lukewarm attitude (or even support) toward Catholic fanaticism. English-speaking historians tend to show Philip II as a fanatical, despotic, criminal, imperialist monster, minimizing his military victories.

Anglo -Dutch war: Causes, and Result

Introduction:

There are four naval war was fought between Dutch Republic and England in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. This war is commonly known as Anglo – Dutch war. Out of the four, first three wars were sparked due to the economic competition which occurred due to the dominance of the English naval. Whereas the final war happened because of the involvement of the Dutch in the American Revolution.

Four wars fought between the two countries over the trade. These wars were known as Anglo-Dutch war in the English and Netherlands-English in Netherland. That battle was fought among the naval forces. Of the four wars, three happened in the 17th century and the last war happened in the 18th century. Every time the war broke out, they slandered each other. And they believed that God had on its side. The main reason for their fight was to show the naval power and trade disputes. In this context an Englishman wrote a book " The English and Dutch affairs" in 1664. Here he said that God's vengeful hand was responsible for the death of the people at Amsterdam in a week due to disease.

The First Anglo-Dutch War (1652-1654)

Causes:-

It happened after the passing of the Navigation Act of 1651 by England to prevent the Dutch at the sea trade. In May 1652, the Netherlands declared war against England under the leadership of Maarten Tromp. At first the Dutch, led by Tromp, won the war, but the following year Britain won the war overwhelmingly. The Commonwealth started preparing for war, but since neither nation was prepared, the conflict was postponed by an unfortunate collision between Sea Robert Blake's fleet and the fleet of a Dutch lieutenant-admiral in the English Channel near Dover on the 29th, May 1652. Cromwell reinstated an old right that the English had long defended by ordering all foreign fleets in the North Sea or the Channel to lower their flags in salute. Trump was fully aware of the

importance of providing this sign of courtesy, but it was not done right away due to misunderstandings and resentment among the sailors, and Blake opened fire and starting a brief account of the Battle of Dover. Trump's convoy arrived safely despite losing two ships.

Result of First Anglo-Dutch War

The first Anglo-Dutch war ended on April 15, 1654 under the treaty of Westminster.

The Treaty did not favour the Dutch.

In this treaty, there was a secret condition that William III the young Prince and William II of Netherland would never be a head of the state itself.

The Second Anglo-Dutch War (1665-1667)

Causes:-

After the animosity had begun the previous year and the English had occupied New Amsterdam, the trade rivalry of the two countries turned into war in 1665.

On June 13, 1665, the battle of Lowestoft, the first battle took place. The English won the battle.

Next year, in 1666, France joined the battle on the Dutch side.

The Treaty of Breda, which was signed on July 31, 1667, brought about peace between England and the Netherlands.

The treaty allowed the English to keep control of New Netherland while giving the Dutch back Tobago, St. Eustatius, and their trading outposts in West Africa, as well as Pulau Run and the valuable sugar plantations of Suriname.

The Treaty of Westminster later ratified this resolution. England's agreement to treat Einer Germany as a part of the Netherlands' commercial hinterland changed navigation in the Dutch's favour, allowing Dutch ships to transport German goods in English ports.

During this time Dutch navy sank four English ships and pulled the HMS Royal Charles, the English pride to the Netherlands.

Result of the Second Anglo-Dutch War

That war ended with the treaty of Breads and the advantages of the treaty went to the Netherlands.

The restrictions governing navigation in England were eased.

The Republic, on the other hand, had to accept that New Amsterdam would stay in English hands for the time being.

Third Anglo-Dutch war (1672-1674)

Causes:-

The French and English monarchs negotiated the Secret Treaty of Dover in 1670, using Henrietta of England, sister of Charles and sister-in-law of Louis, as mediator.

Few English statesmen were aware of its provisions.

The terms included an Anglo-French military alliance against the Republic, the creation of a Dutch rump state for his nephew William, and a British brigade for the French army.

The treaty was signed in December 1670, but the confidentiality clauses were omitted until 1677; Louis agreed to pay Charles £230,000 a year for the brigade, £1 million for the navy and £200,000 for his public conversion to Catholicism, which was left to him.

Aware Louis was negotiating with De Witt about partitioning the Spanish Netherlands, Charles demanded Walcheren, Cadzand and Sluis, Henrietta of England, sister of Charles and sister-in-law of Louis, served as a mediator as the French and English kings negotiated the Secret Treaty of Dover in 1670.

The provisions were not well known to many English statesmen.

The third Anglo-Dutch war fought between English and Dutch allies with French.

The Dutch had been called 1672 as the year of Disaster.

During this time, England formed a coalition including Cologne, Munster and French.

Along with the creation of a Dutch rump state for his nephew William and a British brigade for the French army, an Anglo-French military alliance against the Republic was also included in the agreement. The treaty was signed in December 1670, but the confidentiality provisions weren't included until 1677.

Louis agreed to pay Charles £230,000 annually for the brigade, £1 million annually for the navy, and £200,000 annually for his public conversion to Catholicism, which was left to him. Charles demanded Walcheren, Cadzand, and Sluis knowing Louis was negotiating with De Witt to divide the Spanish Netherlands.

The Netherlands was assaulted in both land and sea.

Result of the Third Anglo-Dutch War

The third Anglo-Dutch war ended with the treaty of second Westminster.

England got one million English pounds as war compensation from the Dutch.

However the Anglo-French alliance had been broken down successfully by William III and New Amsterdam was permanently given to the English which was occupied by the Dutch in 1673.

The fourth Anglo-Dutch war (1780-1784)

Causes:-

After the glorious revolution and Ascension of William III to the English throne, the trade supremacy had moved to the England.

Dutch supported the revolution in the American British colonies.

The Dutch commerce talked with the American to fight against the British.

On December 1780, England declared war against the Dutch.

Though the English had never built a combat navy.

So after the end of the fourth Anglo-Dutch war in 1784, the Dutch were at the pick of the reputation and the strength.

Result of the Fourth Anglo-Dutch War

In particular from an economic standpoint, the war was disastrous for the Netherlands. Furthermore, it served as further evidence of the 18th century Dutch Empire's powerlessness. The Stadtholder's poor management was attributed, if not worse, for the subpar outcomes in the immediate aftermath of the war by his rivals, who were unified in the Patriot Party. His power was significantly diminished for a time when these were able to reverse a number of the 1747 revolution's reforms. In 1784, the fourth Anglo-Dutch war ended with the treaty of Paris. England got the permission to trade in the East Indies and Dutch relinquished Nagapattinam on India's east coast. The Prussian and British intervened to put an end to this patriotic rebellion in 1787. The rebels were expelled, but in 1795 they returned with the aid of a French revolutionary army and

replaced the previous Dutch Republic with the Batavian Republic. Low Countries played a crucial role in British strategic planning.

Conclusion

Majority of the war fought with the naval counterpart. The first Anglo-Dutch war was won by the British. The Second and Third Anglo-Dutch war were won by the Dutch. But the Fourth Anglo-Dutch war was won by the British. Some historians say that during the Napoleonic era the wars between Britain and the Kingdom of Holland and the Batavian Republic, as the Fifth and Sixth Anglo-Dutch wars.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XI (1461 - 1483)

Louis XI, (born July 3, 1423, Bourges, Fr. died Aug. 30, 1483, Plessis-les-Tours), king of France (1461–83) of the House of Valois who continued the work of his father, Charles VII, in strengthening and unifying France after the Hundred Years' War. He reemployed suzerainty over Boulonnais, Picardy, and Burgundy, took possession of France-Comté and Artois (1482), annexed Anjou (1471), and inherited Maine and Provence (1481).

Louis was the son of Charles VII of France by his consort Mary of Anjou. When Louis was born, the English were ruling a large part of France, and he spent most of his childhood at the Loches in Touraine. Ugly and fat, Louis grew up in austere seclusion to become secretive, ruthless, and superstitious; yet, he was also devout, intelligent, and well informed, a cunning diplomat and a bold warrior who was able to command loyalty. Known as the "universal spider" because of his incessant machinations and intrigue, he could still claim to personify the French national consciousness; as he was later to say to his rebellious vassals, "I am France." Louis was married to Margaret, daughter of James I of Scotland, in 1436—an unhappy union formed solely for political reasons. In 1439 the King sent him to superintend the defence of Languedoc against the English and then to act as royal lieutenant in Poitou. Louis, however, was impatient to reign and was induced by malcontent princes to put himself at their head in 1440 during the revolt known as the Praguerie, named after a contemporary disturbance in Bohemia. Charles VII pardoned his rebellion and installed him as ruler of the Dauphine.

Louis took part in his father's campaigns of 1440–43 against the English, and in 1443 he forced the English to raise their siege of Dieppe. When the Anglo-French truce of 1444 left numbers of mercenary troops unemployed, he led a large body of them to attack Basel, in ostensible support of the German king Frederick V (later Holy Roman emperor as Frederick

III) in his quarrel with the Swiss confederacy. Failing to take Basel, Louis attacked the Habsburg possessions in Alsace since Frederick would not grant him the promised winter quarters.

Louis, as King was entirely a man of different stamp from Louis, the Dauphin. The nobles also, in course of time noticed the true colour of Louis XI. It was no wonder that disputes broke out between the King and the powerful nobles. The great nobles who girded up their loins against the King were either close or distant relatives of the King. But blood relationship failed to foster bonds of loyalty and obedience to the throne. Louis XI had to struggle against the heavy odds posed by his formidable foes. He overcame one obstacle after another by his master strokes of diplomacy and trickery. Louis XI deprived the Duke of Bourbon Governor of Guienne, of his province on grounds of misgovernment. Not satisfied with the extent of feudal privileges, the Duke of Brittany quarrelled with the King and was contemplating an alliance with Burgundy. As Louis XI very well knew that a prospective alliance of the two would spell disaster to him at a time when the Count of Charolais (son of Philip of Burgundy) was the Governor of Normandy, he himself assumed control of Normandy. The deposition of Charles, the Count of Charolais, did not wound the feelings of his father because they were not in good terms. Further, Philip I restored to the King some towns on the Somme. In 1464 the Count of Charolais was reconciled to his father and he assumed control of the Duchy in view his father's old age.

As soon as Charolais assumed power, he formed an alliance of all the discontented nobles in 1465. Count Charolais, the Duke of Brittany, and the Duke of Berri (brother of Louis XI) were the members of the so-called League of the Public Good. Though the alliance was forged, there was no unity among its members. Mutual jealousies among the nobles defeated the very purpose of the alliance. The battle of Montheri proved to be an indecisive one. Louis XI made capital out of the disunion of the nobles and prevented Charolais from capturing Paris. According to the terms of the treaty of Conflans, some of the Somme towns were restored to Burgundy. The Duke of Berri was made the Governor of Normandy. The Duke of Brittany was also placated by conceding to the demands with regard to the extent of his feudal privileges. Soon after the treaty, the Dukes of Brittany and Berri quarrelled. Taking advantage of the quarrel. Louis XI patched up a peace with Brittany and recovered Normandy.

Consequent on the death of Philip in 1467, Charles the Rash became the new Duke of Burgundy. He succeeded in isolating the Dukes of Berri and Brittany from the Duke of Burgundy. He, now, stretched his gaze on the Duke of Burgundy. He incited the citizens of

Liege to revolt against the Duke. He then agreed to give up the cause of Liege if the Duke could break his alliance with the other two Dukes. As Charles flatly refused the offer. Louis entered into a fresh agreement with the two Dukes and informed Charles about their desertion. Nurturing under the false hope that the Duke would come to terms because of the breach of trust of the two Dukes, Louis proceeded to Peronne with the view of getting an interview with the Dukes. While Louis was the guest of the Duke, the citizens of Liege once again flared up at the instigation of the agents of Louis. The infuriated Duke, to demonstrate his might, took the King to Liege and put down the revolt with an iron hand. He then dictated terms to the King. He demanded that the Duke of Berri should be made the Governor of Champagne. His inner motive in this demand was not to placate Berri but to keep him dependent on him and use Champagne which lay between the vast Burgundian possessions as a connecting link. But the King who was not that type of a man to be duped, asked for an alternative in the event of Berri rejecting the offer. Finding that he himself was trapped, the Duke suggested that Berri should be placated in some other way.

The King after regaining his freedom appeased his brother by making him the Governor of Guienne which lay far away for the realisation of the political designs of the Duke of Burgundy. Very soon, the King and the Duke were at loggerheads. Louis XI captured the two Somme towns of Amiens and St. Quentin. But the towns were restored to the Duke on condition that he should sever his connection with the Dukes of Brittany and Guienne. Louis XI knew very well that the promise of the Duke was only as slender as a spider's web. His brother, Charles of Guienne, died in 1472 and thus a thorn was removed from the path. The province of Guienne reverted to the King. As the attempt of Charles the Rash to recover Amiens and St. Quentia proved fruitless the disappointed Duke attacked French territory and laid siege to Beauvais. As the siege was a failure, he patched up a truce with Louis XI. Having failed in his attempt to make inroads into French territory, Charles the Rash turned his attention to the establishment of a kingdom. He strengthened his position at the expense of the Empire by annexing Gelderland, Alsace and Lorraine. The acquisition of Lorraine greatly enhanced his position, because it connected Burgundy with Netherlands. Fortune which so far befriended the Duke deserted him. Lorraine rose against him. The rebels were given active support by Switzerland. The Duke was defeated and killed in a battle in 1477.

Charles the Rash had no male issue to succeed him. His only daughter, Mary, married Maximilien, the future Holy Roman Emperor in 1477. Louis XI annexed the Somme towns and the Duchy of Burgundy, applying the law of escheat. Though Louis XI crushed the

power of Burgundy, the Hapsburgs of Austria appeared on the scene as a new rival. In 1482, the treaty of Arras was signed between Louis XI and Maximilian by which Louis retained his new acquisitions. Margaret, the infant daughter of Maximilian was betrothed to the Dauphin. Franche Comte (County of Burgundy) and Artois were to go to France as her dowry.

Louis XI was succeeded by his son, Charles VIII (1483-1498). During his minority, his sister Anne of Beaujeu acted as regent. The Duke of Brittany who died in 1488 was succeeded by his daughter, Anne. The regent seized this opportunity. By applying the principle of escheat and by force, Brittany was annexed to France. The Duchess of Anne was forced to marry Charles VIII. As Charles VIII married Anne, Maximilian I, the Emperor nullified the betrothal of his daughter, Margaret, to Charles VIII and by the Treaty of Senlis got back Artois and Franche Comte. The Italian conquests of Charles VIII did not yield any concrete in to France. Charles VIII was succeeded his cousin, Louis XII (1500-1515). Francis I was succeeded by his son, Henry II (1547 - 1559). (1498-1515). Louis XII was succeeded by his cousin, Francis I (1515). Henry II was succeeded by his three incompetent sons. They were Francis II (1559-1560), Charles IX (1560-1574) and Henry III (1574-1589).

Louis XI's reign for a period of more than two decades was one of long struggle against the powerful aristocracy. He crushed the power of the Duke of Burgundy. Towards the close of his reign, the provinces of Anjou and Maine and the duchies of Bar and Provence came back to the King. With the exception of Brittany and the lands of the House of Bourbon, all the other provinces were united under the rule of the French monarchy.

5. THIRTY YEARS WAR (1618-1648)

There could be no real and permanent religious settlement in Germany after the peace of Augsburg in 1555. As an indirect result of formation, Germany was divided into two main rival groups, and the spirit of decentralization and religious intolerance was lengthening rapidly. It had not only marred the development of German culture and civilization but also led the German trade and mercer towards decline. Agriculture was also deteriorating. The recites of the landlords were increasing and the condition of the peasants was going from bad to worse. This chaos and discontentment was further worsened by the religious war of 1618 which is popularly known as the Thirty Years in the history of Europe. It was chiefly a German Civil War. Its Gure was partly religious and partly political. In the due course of e it spread in entire Europe. This war caused great loss of life and poverty. Although Austria, Denmark, Sweden, France, Spain, ether lands took part in this war,

Bohemia and Germany had to bear the brunt of economic loss. Undoubtedly, the outbreak of the war was based on various causes but in the long run it had only two objectives:

a) Which dynasty would be supreme and sovereign - Spain and Hapsburg dynasty or France and Bourbon dynasty?

b) Which religion would be accepted by the people - Roman Catholic or Protestant or both?

Causes of Thirty Year's War:

The Thirty Year's War was the most significant event of the 17th century (1618-1648) and its causes can easily be placed under three headings:

1. Religious Causes:

The Protestants forced the Roman Catholics to review their own religion. It was fought between the Catholics and the Protestants and their religious differences were the root of this bloody war. No doubt and to find out faults therein, owing to which their religion was lagging gradually the political motives were also introduced in it, which served behind. Hence they tried to remove those faults and carried out various as the central force of the war. Schevill also writes that 'later the reforms. Thus, Counter Reformation proved helpful for the Roman political causes became the important causes and continued to be the Catholics and compelled the Protestants to safeguard their religion. Mutual Differences between the Catholics and the according to the terms of the treaty of Augsburg the Protestants were Protestants: In the beginning Roman Catholic religion was prevailed to return the properties of the Roman Catholic Church, which in Europe. Gradually the influence of the Roman Catholic religion had appropriated after January 1552. The provision created lessened and Protestants established their control over amplexion between the two religions. The Catholics wanted to take their properties of the Catholics. It angered the Catholics. They operate back but the Protestants were not in a mood to hand over the endeavoured to reform their religion and re-establish its lost glory came to the Roman Catholics. Hence the war became inevitable checking the spread of Protestant religion.

Political causes:

Undoubtedly, the religious differences later on created mutual bitterness and war broke out between the two sides. The root cause of the Thirty Years' War but all the politicians of Europe wanted to take political advantage of this situation, hence they rivals. Discontentment towards the Treaty of Augsburg got entangled in this war. Hapsburg dynasty or the Holy Roman Empire According to the terms of the treaty of Augsburg some religion was

always anxious to take advantage of this situation. concessions were granted to the followers of Lutheranism actually, they wanted to establish their complete supremacy over Protestantism but this treaty did not please any one; rather it annoyed the Calvinists all the more. Hence the difference of opinion continues between the two religions which led to the outbreak of the Thirty Year war in place of the nominal regime. On the other hand, the rulers of Germany wanted to safeguard their traditional rights.

Immediate Cause

The Bohemian Revolt:

The immediate reason of the outbreak of this war was the revolt of Bohemia against Austria. The empire of Austria was quite extensive during the beginning of seventeenth century and Bohemia was under its domination. A large portion of modern Czechoslovakia was also included in Bohemia. Czechs lived in Bohemia and they were the followers of Calvinism or Protestantism. During the reign of Protestant Emperor Rudolf of Donauworth, Germany joined the fold of Roman Catholic religion, hence the Protestants of Germany established a Protestant League under the leadership of Emperor Frederick. As a counter move to the league of the Protestants, the Catholics of Germany also founded Catholic League under the patronage of Maximilian, the ruler of Bavaria. Thus, before the outbreak of Thirty Years' War in 1618. Germany was divided into two rival groups and their mutual relations were quite tense.

The army of Wallenstein passed under the control of the Emperor to issue the Edict of Restitution in 1629 by which Church property which had fallen into lay hands since 1552 were to be restored to the Church. The army of Gustavus degenerated into a mercenary horde. Maximilian of Bavaria not only grew jealous of after his death. Its strength was increased by the addition of troops by the rising power of Wallenstein but also grew suspicious of his number of Protestant princes. The Imperial forces defeated the conviction, because he stood for religious toleration. Owing to the evil Protestant forces at the battle of machinations of Maximilian and Cardinal Richelieu, the Emperor was Swedish Phase of the war came to an end by the treaty of Prague in induced to dismiss Wallenstein.

According to the terms of the treaty, the Church lands the League, Ferdinand II dismissed Wallenstein. The dismissal of which were actually in Protestant hands since 1627 were allowed to Wallenstein was the greatest blow to the Imperial cause. Though Peace was concluded, the struggle between the Edict of Restitution provoked resentment among both Lutherans and Calvinists. The Church property, hitherto in the Catholics and Protestants

continued. At a time when Protestantism of secular Protestants passed into the hands of the Catholic was at the cross roads, it received unexpected help from the Roman Catholic Cardinal Richelieu, the Prime Minister of France. The wily Richelieu shed crocodile tears for the helpless Protestants. He entered the last phase of the war with selfish motives. He wanted to secure for France natural frontiers. He felt that a united Germany was a danger to the safety and security of France, but a disunited Germany a source of strength to France. He also wanted to reduce the power of the Spanish Hapsburgs. With these ends in view, Richelieu declared war against Spain an ally of the Emperor, in 1637, and against the Emperor in 1638. He took the forces of the Protestant League into the spay of France. He got able assistance from the Sweds, the Dutch and the Protestant princes of Germany. In the beginning, the French suffered many defeats. Ferdinand II died in 1637. He was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III. Richelieu kindled the Portuguese to revolt against Spain. The Portuguese succeeded in recovering their independence in 1640. Richelieu died in 1641. But his policy was continued by Cardinal Mazarin. The French generals, Conde and Turenne, defeated the Spaniards in many battles. Conde defeated a Spanish army at the famous battle of Rocroy in 1643. The combined forces of the Swedis and the French ravaged Bavaria. In 1648 Conde scored another brilliant victory at Lens. The Thirty Year's War came to an end by the treaty of Westphalia signed in 1648.

Treaty of Westphalia:

The treaty of Westphalia 1648 had a great significance in the history of Europe. It ended the Thirty Years' War that created havoc throughout Europe. The religious policy of Germany had taken a very dangerous form and it affected the entire Europe. This treaty solved this tedious problem. It gave birth to a new political partition between Europe and Germany. France and Sweden were greatly benefited by this treaty as they got various states as compensation for their losses the following were the significant provisions of this treaty:

Provisions of the Treaty of Westphalia:

1. Ferdinand continued his authority over Austria, Hungary and Bohemia but his rule over Germany was cut short.
2. The external nature of the Holy Roman Empire continued but the member countries were given sovereign rights. All countries were authorised to wage wars or conclude treaties of their own accord, provided the war was not against the emperor. Political relations with any country. Hence Germany was made a group 3. Every German ruler was given right to maintain cultural and of small states.

4. Palatinate was divided into two parts. Charles Louis, the son German Council of the suspended King Frederick was made the eighth Elector of the
5. The ruler of Bavaria was authorised to maintain his authority over the rest of Palatinate.
6. The state of Brandenburg was extended which later on became the base of the unification of Germany in the form of Prussia. Thus, a loose confederation of German states was formed.

Germany, influence of the Roman Catholic religion would continue 7. According to this treaty, it was decided that in south and west while Protestantism flourished in Northern Germany. It was also decided that the Catholics and Protestants would continue to retain their authority on the property of churches which they had occupied before 1 January 1624. Moreover, the Catholics were granted all the concessions which were being enjoyed by the supporters of Martin Luther. Besides this, the Treaty of Augsburg was revised and Calvinists were also recognised and granted freedom like followers of other religions. Number of the Catholic and Protestant Judges would remain equal in 8. It was also decided by the treaty of Westphalia that the religious courts.

9. France expressed its claims over Metz, Toul and Verdun which were recognized but Strasburg a town of Germany remained independent.

10. Sweden was authorised to establish her control over the as an effective step to check the ambitions of Austria in Central Baltic Sea. Sweden also got western Pomerania, Verdun and Bremen.

11. Northern Netherlands and Switzerland, the two new sovereign states were also granted recognition and the sovereignty of Spain came to an end over these two kingdoms.

12. According to the terms of this treaty France and Sweden were authorised to send their representatives to the German Diet. Thus, both of these countries got an opportunity to intervene and to enhance their influence in the German affairs. Grant writes about this treaty, "While the peace of Westphalia makes the close of an epoch for Germany, it opens a phase of phenomenal rise of Sweden".

Significance of the Treaty of Westphalia:

The treaty of Westphalia had a significant place in the history of Europe. It divided Europe into two ages. Fisher writes about it, "The Treaty of Westphalia is the most significant event of the history of Europe. It is a dividing line between the two epochs. It is

the symbol of the end of religious movement and the beginning of political revolution". The following significant points deserve attention of the readers:

1. The Treaty of Westphalia is considered very significant in the history of Europe because it solved the religious problem. The religious tension which grew in Europe and gave birth to the Thirty Year's War ended with the conclusion of the treaty of Westphalia.

2. Although the Thirty Years' War began on account of religious causes, later on, its nature began to be political one. In the fourth phase its nature became completely political because by this time France had taken part in it and this war had taken place between Hapsburg dynasty of Austria and Spain and Bourbon dynasty of France for establishment of supremacy. Thus, the significance of France was established in Europe.

3. The treaty of Westphalia created feeling of tolerance among the people of Europe. It marked an end of the religious wars. After this treaty Europe had to face only economic and political problems. 4. The principle of balance of power was re-established in Europe by the treaty of Westphalia. This treaty made such change in the political system and territory of Spain, Austria, France, Sweden, Brandenburg (Germany) as none of them could establish its supremacy in Europe.

5. This treaty indicated the decline of Hapsburg dynasty of Spain and the rise of Bourbon dynasty of France. After the treaty of Westphalia the significance of the Holy Roman Empire was reduced because after this the German princes began to be independent. France also started increasing her power as her rival Spain had become too powerful to impose any restrictions on her. France was now also given a right to send her representative in the German Diet and to influence the issue of Germany.

6. Sweden had also enhanced her importance in Europe by reducing the significance of the Hapsburg dynasty. She also got an opportunity to send her representatives in German Diet and to influence its working system by her interference.

7. In some of the wars Germany and Bohemia had to face great loss of life and property. Thirty Years War was fought with great ruthlessness and bloodshed. A.J. Grant has written about it, "Serious historians estimate that the population of the whole land decreased by at least two-thirds. The population of Bohemia had fallen to less than a quarter; that of Berlin from 24,000 to 6,000. Commerce, education, literature, art had nearly disappeared. The people seemed brutalised in mind and manners. No high ideals were left in religion or high aim in statesmanship".

8. The significance of Brandenburg began to increase and within a short span of time it turned to be a powerful state by the name of Prussia. The unification of Germany could be possible under the banners Prussia. Prince Bismarck was the Chancellor of Prussia during this period and he was the most shrewd politician of his times, hence the age from 1870 to 1890 came to be known as the Age of Bismarck'.

9. Holland became an independent country after prolonged wars and sacrifices. After this treaty Holland strengthened its Navy to a great degree and its result began to be visible on the politics of Europe.

10. Besides solving the internal problems the treaty of Westphalia gave birth to modern political system. The historians believe that the map of Europe which was prepared by this treaty continued in Europe by the time the Great French revolution was ushered in 1789.

Thus, this treaty laid the foundation of religious toleration, world peace and international political system which saved the humanity from the sufferings and unnecessary destruction and did a yeoman service to the innocent people. The treaty of Westphalia really added a new chapter to the history of Europe for the good of the people. The Thirty Years' War was essentially a struggle for supremacy between the Catholics and Protestants in Germany. Protestantism was threatened with extinction by the militant attitude adopted by the Catholics. The bloody war ended by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648. In spite of the fact that unity in Christendom was not restored, Catholicism was not beaten. It existed side by side with Protestantism. The war dealt a severe blow to the Imperial power of the Emperor. The already shadowy imperial power became a mere phantom". The Empire dwindled to insignificance. It became a mere collection of states, each under a ruler with full sovereign powers. Germany was divided into 343 sovereign states made up of 158 secular states, 123 ecclesiastical states and 62 Imperial cities. When the star of the Hapsburgs fell on evil days, the Holy Roman Emperors concentrated their attention on their hereditary possession, viz., Austria, Hungary, Bohemia and many German Duchies and diverted their attention towards Italy and the Balkan Peninsula.

7. LOUIS XIV (1643-1715)

Louis XIV became the king of France when he was five years old. Anne of Austria acted as regent. During the first eighteen years of the reign, Cardinal Mazarin was the chief minister of France. He also worked as the guardian of Louis XIV throughout his life time and held the reign of the empire very effectively. At the time of the death of Mazarin in 1661 Louis XIV had attained the age of 23 and took over the reins of government into his own

hands. He reigned for no less than seventy two years. The period 1661-1715 is known as the Age of Louis XIV because tremendous progress and development took place in the political, economic and social life of France. Art and literature also flourished during his period and all this progress influenced the other countries of Europe tremendously. The general air of magnificence that surrounded him was so impressive that he was called the 'Sun King', Lord Acton has remarked, 'Louis XIV was by far the ablest man who was born in modern times on the steps of the throne'.

Louis XIV was a man of extraordinary ability with a handsome appearance. He was a great administrator and diplomat. He was not a great general. He was the most remarkable example of Grand Monarch in Europe in the 18th century. In the words of Grant, 'it is not as soldier, nor exactly as statesman, that he occupies his great place in the history of Europe, he is the great example of modern monarchy in its highest and most splendid form'.

His Domestic Policy

Louis XIV was a shining model of divine right monarchy. He himself felt that he was sent by God to rule France and so people could not criticise him. But he was an enlightened despot. He loved pomp and pleasure. He possessed such rich profusion great kingly qualities. He was dignified, reserved, calm and courteous. But he was also aspirate, arrogant and selfish. When Mazarin died in 1661, Louis XIV took over the reins of government into his own hands. He declared 'in future I shall be my own Prime Minister'. Once he is said to have stated that 'I am a state and I shall be the king'. He wanted to make himself strong and powerful at home. He centralised the authority in his hands. All powers legislative, executive and judicial were concentrated in his hands. All liberals and democratic institutions were put down. The nobles were reduced to obedience.

The main aim of Louis XIV was to establish a centralised government. He made heads of different departments to be his subordinates only. All the policies were framed by the king. The ministers were required simply to execute his orders. He did not summon the meeting of the Estates General and it was reduced to a state of complete insignificance. He put restrictions on the rights of the provincial administrative officers and the Municipal Boards. Scheville writes about him 'He want to reign supreme as the absolute head of the government. He himself was to be the sole director of state policy'. Following the above principles Louis XIV established a powerful and absolute monarchy in France.

Reforms of Colbert:

When Louis XIV held the reins of the empire, France had reached the zenith of her progress and development. No country of Europe could dare face her alone. Actually, at that time France was capable of setting different issues herself very successfully but the problem was that the economic position of France was very weak. Although the Finance Minister Fouquet collected some wealth during the previous war, his resources were not extensive. However, his position in the country was so powerful and consolidated that it was not possible to remove him from the post. Ultimately, the Emperor hatched an intrigue and dismissed him from the post of Finance Minister. A suit was also filed against Fouquet and on its basis he was sentenced to life imprisonment. Louis XIV had a special characteristic that he could pick the efficient officials from the crowd. Thatcher has also praised his quality saying, "He was very clever in the art of making friends". Mazarin trained him in the field of administration and furthered him in the beginning of Louis XIV's political career, Prime Minister Ability and capability. In 1661 when Mazarin died and Louis XIV took the reins of the empire in his hands, he put Fouquet behind the bars and appointed Colbert on the post of Finance Minister. He was an expert and capable Finance Minister and a great reformer. A.J. Grant has written about him, "In Colbert, Louis XIV found a very able administrator and great Finance Minister".

A prominent author has remarked, "The first thing that Louis XIV did after his accession to the throne of France was that he paid his attention towards the internal reforms. France had for the first time come out of misrule and revolution. Therefore, these reforms were very essential. John Colbert was the main person who helped Louis in giving a real shape to those reforms". Pointing out to the ability of Colbert, A.J. Grant writes, "His name was very significant during this period and there was no man more patriotic and able than Colbert in France. Colbert was the contemporary of Mazarin who had recommended his name to be his successor to the Emperor",

Early Career of Colbert:

Jean Baptiste Colbert was born in Reims in a middle - class family. Even being son of a merchant, he got government service with the grace of Mazarin but he made great progress due to his own ability, devotion, labour and honesty. After the death of Mazarin, he worked on different posts, such as Superintendent of Public Works Department, Chief Accountant in Finance Department, Minister of Navy, Foreign Trade and Agriculture Department. He made significant reforms in these departments from 1661-1683 but he was specially known for his reforms in the Finance Department. He had the complete knowledge of this department and it would not be a folly to call him a great economist. He was possessed of great patriotism,

devotion and dutifulness towards his country. He wanted to remove all the corruption, exploitation and inefficiency rampant in the Finance Department so that France could be a very rich and prosperous country. He knew it well that France would not be able to become a great country, in case, she was unable to amass a lot of wealth. Richelieu and Mazarin had strengthened the autocracy but they did not pay much attention to the reforms in the Finance Department. At that time France was involved in Thirty Year's War and Civil War, hence the royal treasury was being emptied rapidly. The realisation of taxes was the responsibility of the contractors during that time; they used to cheat the government for their own benefit. They collected too much amount from the peasants but deposited only the fixed amount in the royal treasury and embezzled the rest. After the dismissal of Fouquet when Colbert took over charge as Minister of Finance, he made the following significant reforms in the Finance Department. Colbert, the Finance Minister of Louis XIV, was not only a farsighted reformer but also an administrator of the first water, who injected new life and vigour into France by his reforms.

Economic Reforms:

First of all, Jean Colbert paid his attention to the economic reforms in France. At that time the taxation system of France was very defective and corruption was prevalent in its collection. It was only with great difficulty that half of the revenue could reach the royal treasury as the collectors of the revenue embezzled a great part of it. Theoretically, Colbert introduced no change in the system of collection nor did he impose any other new tax but he kept a close eye on the tax collectors so that they might not line their pockets. Colbert punished all those collectors of revenue who were found guilty of misusing the government money. Thus, on the one hand, he relieved the peasants from the realization of too much money from them and on the other, strengthened the economic condition of the country checking the corruption of the tax collectors. Reforms in the revenue system: Colbert also introduced some reforms in the revenue department. He abolished a number of insignificant posts and thus curtailed the undue expenditure from the royal treasury. He stressed the payment of legal taxes. He reduced the burden of direct taxes and imposed a number of indirect taxes. He also imposed taxes on those people who were so far exempted from the payment of taxes. Scheville writes, "He began by eliminating the prevailing graft and establishing a system of strict accounting. By these simple measures he succeeded, without the aid of new taxes, in freeing the government of its burden of debt and in actually accumulating a surplus. The minister might even have proceeded to reduce taxation, if after a few years of a welcome peace; the country had not been plunged again into war".

Robert Lodge also comment about it, "The partisans were again in full activity; of the taxes levied less than half found their way to the treasury; the annual expenditure exceeded the revenue by 22 million francs. The measures taken to remedy these abuses were in the highest degree arbitrary but effective".

Without caring for his promise made with the people, Colbert reduced the rate of interest by 5% By reducing expenditure and increasing income-tax Colbert turned the national loss into saving. He enhanced tax on all those articles which were mostly used by the wealthy people and earned the sympathy of the general masses by imposing no tax on the articles which were used by the ordinary people. Actually, his revenue policy was based on the principle that the richer the man the greater the taxes. Scheville writes, "By lowering the direct taxes and increasing the customs and other direct taxes he forced the privileged classes to contribute more to the public revenue". He further comments, "Much more than a capable minister of finance, Colbert was also an economic thinker and planner. With a science of political economy not yet in existence, Colbert took an important step towards its creation when he decided that the question of revenues was inseparably tied up with the whole problems of production".

Trade and Commercial Enhancement:

Colbert being a great economic thinker and planner thought it worthwhile that it was necessary to increase the production for the increase of national wealth. So far, France was not counted among the commercial countries. He had to depend on the neighbouring countries for her needs. After making reforms in the revenue system, Colbert paid his attention to the trade and commerce. He invited foreign experts and lured them to settle in his country. Besides, he established various trades and industries with their cooperation and help. He imposed heavy tax on the goods imported into France so that the articles manufactured in France could be sold easily in the market.

Jean Colbert very well organized the Navy of France and created a powerful fleet and he stood himself in competition against the author of Cambridge Modern History writes: "By the naval power of England and Holland. It was Colbert who infused a lowering the direct taxes and increasing the customs and other direct new vigour into the French Navy. He also established three shipyards taxes he forced the privileged classes to contribute more to the public at Calais, Brest and Herve. His companies established trade relations revenue". Colbert paid his attention to the development of national with India, Africa and America. He inspired young enthusiastic wealth by encouraging the production of the country. His policy is persons

to go and settle in the colonies like Indies, Africa etc. Colbert called the policy of protection in which the domestic trade was also wanted that the Navy of France should be powerful enough to safeguarded against the foreign competition. A prominent historian faces Holland and England's naval power. W. Stubbs throwing light on has written about it, "By increasing the Tariff Duty on foreign the significance of its trade and colonial aspect has remarked, "Colbert goods he discouraged people from using such things. With a vigorous colonial minister and displayed great zeal for naval help of the foreign technicians and experts he started new factories development and overseas expansion" and mills in France. He also got constructed new roads, etc. for the free and quick flow of the goods. Thus, he sacrificed the interests of producers. They were told that instead of depending on themselves, they should depend on the country.

Trading Companies:

Jean Colbert gave great encouragement to the trading countries. So far all the sea trade was in the control of England and Holland. These countries had their trade relations with the other countries through the medium of their trading companies. Colbert thought over it and decided that such companies should be established in France for the development of trade. Soon he executed his thought into action and some companies were established to have trade relations through Baltic Sea, Mediterranean Sea, Indian Sea and America and attained remarkable success.

Administrative Reforms:

Besides the economic reforms, Jean Colbert paid his attention to the administrative reforms. First of all, he formed an efficient police department. In order to enhance its efficiency and capability, Colbert trained the policemen in a new style. Corruption was rampant in the judicial department. He did not try this best for the codification of law because so far it was clears nor had harmony. He introduced reforms in the judicial field in order to remove the corruption. He also helped a lot in making the Emperor absolute. For this he limited the rights of the Estates General and the Parliament of Paris but he never oppressed the people for it. Actually he was the saviour of the interests of the people. He performed many deeds for the welfare of the people. During his administrative reforms he succeeded in establishing law and order. Colbert's codification of law helped the judges and others for providing justice to all. He carried out reforms in different departments of the administration and organised them afresh.

6. Other Reforms:

Besides being a capable and efficient 4. Colonial Policy: Besides the above mentioned reforms he Finance Minister, Colbert also had a special aptitude for art and also introduced certain changes in the colonial policy of the country literature. He paid his best attention towards the development of art, and thereby consolidated it. Scheville writes, "Moreover, aware of the literature and science. Scholars like Pascal, Mliere and Descartes wrote various significant books. Academies were also established forms the progress and advancement of learning in the country. Estimate of Reforms:

As a result of the reforms of Colbert the royal coffers of Frances were again filled up and Louis XIV continued to spend money like a spend thrift for his utopian schemes. A prominent historian has written that there were two chief characteristics of his reign. First, he fought wars throughout his life and secondly, he founded a splendid court and he could attain success in both of his schemes because of cooperation and reforms of Colbert. In spite of all this, his reforms could not be permanent because they did not encourage free trade nor friendly alliance with the countries. Scheville writes, "Colbert's rigid control shifted enterprise and French traders were taught to rely upon support instead of upon their own energies".

In fact, Colbert maintained the atmosphere of prosperity, law and order and solidarity in the country. A.J. Grant mentions, "His measures contributed to the general development of France, brought prosperity to the people and gave plenty to the king". Besides the various merits there were certain demerits in the policy of Jean Colbert. His economic reforms, no doubt, gave a new shape to trade and commerce of France. His policy made France happy and prosperous but there were certain evils also, hence the people of France felt it to be unbearable. The policy of protection proved fatal for France. Too much centralization and too much supervision also created doubt in the minds of the officials.

Religious Policy of Louis XIV:

In the beginning of his career Louis XIV had no faith in any religion; therefore he wanted to be absolute in the religious matters as well. He removed all the religious obstacles and made himself absolute and powerful. He did this just to weaken the power of the Church for which he had to wage a war against the Pope as he compelled the Church to obey his orders. Hayes writes about his religious policy. "He wanted to control the Church and to establish religious unity. When the Pope opposed his motives he did not hesitate in picking up a quarrel with the Pope".

a. Gallican Liberty ordinance:

Besides his political sovereignty, Louis XIV wanted to establish his supremacy in the religious sphere also, so he issued 'Gallican Liberties' ordinance in 1682. According to this ordinance it was announced that the power of Pope was limited only to the religious field and he had no right to issue any order against the King or the public. In no way were the powers of the King subordinate to the Pope nor was the Pope authorised to remove any ruler from the throne. The Pope was also not permitted to issue commands to the people for disobeying the commands of the Emperor. The order of the Pope would be final in the matters of religion, provided it was approved by the council of the French Church. The Pope opposed this ordinance but he was powerless against Louis XIV. This tug of war between the Pope and the Emperor came to an end in 1693 when the new Pope assumed the Papacy after Pope Innocent IX. He concluded a pact with Louis XIV and the Emperor took back the ordinance. It was the victory of Pope outwardly but in fact by this pact Louis XIV succeeded in establishing control over the Gallican Church (National Church). Colbert only effected reforms in trade and commerce and did not care for the development of agriculture. It made the condition of peasants all the more deplorable while the middle class which

b. Suppression of the Protestants:

Louis XIV was a staunch Catholic ruler. Although the Protestants had not opposed him at all, dealt in trade amassed a lot of wealth. Thus, the policy of Colbert Louis suppressed them due to his own religious fanaticism. His gave rise to unnecessary groupism and disparity in the society Colbert collected a lot of wealth but it was lavishly spent on wars by repressive policy towards the Protestants not only shook the roots of Louis XIV and brought France on the verge of bankruptcy. Therefore the Empire but also harmed the power of the Emperor very much. In the beginning of his reign Louis XIV did not interfere in the system of worship of the Protestants but later on he was very much influenced by Madam de Maintenon who was the Governess of his illegitimate offspring and became his wife after the death of Queen Maria Theresa. He considered them to be atheists and their activities anti-absolute government; hence he decided to crush them. First of all, he put some restrictions on the Protestants; later on, he started confiscating their property and that of the Protestant churches. He closed their schools and churches just to crush their religious independence. He also enacted an Act that no Protestant was to be appointed in Government service.

Actually, in the age of religious fanaticism Louis XIV committed a blunder by turning Protestants out of France. As a result, France had to face severe consequences in the long run. H.A.L. Fisher has also written about it, "Richelieu had made France great by uniting the Protestant States of Europe against the Hapsburgs. Louis, on the other hand, by attacking the

Dutch Protestants and by revoking the Edict of Nantes, made the Protestant powers his enemies and so they now united with his enemies in a coalition to hold France in check". Throwing light on the consequences of the stern religious policy of Louis XIV, Hayes has also indicated, "It was the abandonment of Richelieu's policy of religious toleration that proved disastrous to Louis XIV".

Foreign Policy

Louis XIV wanted to make France a supreme nation in Europe He wanted to secure natural frontiers for France - Pyrenees in the south, the Alps in the south-east and the Rhine in the north and the east this involved him in four wars with their disastrous consequences.

a. The War of Devolution: (1667-1668)

The first target of attack of Louis XIV was Spanish Netherlands (Belgium). Philip IV, the King of Spain, died in 1665 According to a local custom prevalent in Brabant, one of the provinces of Spanish Netherlands, daughters by the first wife had a better claim than sons by the second. Maria Theresa, the wife of Louis XIV, was the daughter of Philip IV by his first wife. Charles II, who succeeded Philip IV, was his son by his second wife. When Philip IV died, Louis XIV laid claim to the whole of Spanish Netherlands. The law of Devolution was a local custom and it was not applicable to monarchs In spite of the fact that Maria Theresa had renounced all her claims to the throne of Spain, Louis found excuse in the fact the promised amount of dowry did not cross the Pyrenees. On this flimsy pretext, he forced a war upon Spanish Netherlands in 1667. French army soon overran Spanish Netherlands and their every attempt was crowned with success. Within a very short time, the whole of Spanish Netherlands lay prostrate before Louis XIV. Fearing that the balance of power would be upset in Europe, England, Holland and Sweden formed a Triple Alliance in 1668, to resist the naked aggression of France. Realising the formidable nature of the alliance, Louis XIV brought the war to a close by the treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle in 1668. According to the terms of the treaty, Louis XIV handed over all his conquests except a number of border fortresses and a part of the province of Flanders.

Louis XIV bore a grudge against Holland, because she dashed his hopes to the grounds in the war with Belgium. Louis could never excuse her, because according to him she was the chief promoter of the Triple Alliance. Further, Holland was a rival to France in commercial enterprises. Louis wanted to ruin the commercial prosperity of Holland Moreover; Louis XIV disliked the republican set up of Holland which was quite inconsistent with his strong belief in royal absolutism. Further, Holland was a Calvinistic country, and

France, a Catholic. Above all, Holland gave asylum to the crisis and enemies of Louis XIV. Before actual fighting took place, he broke up the Triple Alliance. By the Secret Treaty of Dover with Charles II in 1670, England withdrew from the Triple Alliance. By a separate treaty, Louis XIV also won over Sweden to his side.

Louis XIV did not get himself involved in any major war for a period of ten years after the treaty of Nijmegen. But during this period, he annexed Strasburg, Casale in North Italy and Luxemburg. The Emperor got alarmed at the advance of Louis at his expense. He formed the League of Augsburg in 1686 with Sweden, Spain, some German States, Holland and Savoy. He got the support of the League from the Pope. Charles, the Elector of Palatinate, died in 1685. Louis' brother, Philip, the Duke of Orleans was the husband of the late elector's sister. Louis XIV laid claim to the Palatinate on her behalf. When the claim was turned down, Louis declared war against Palatinate and ravaged the entire country. In 1689 William of Orange became William III of England. James II had already fled from the country. In 1689 William III joined the grand alliance. In spite of this grand coalition, a French naval fleet defeated the combined English and Dutch fleets off Beachy Head in 1690. But in 1692, the British defeated the French off La Hogue. In Ireland, William III defeated James II at the battle of the Boyne in 1690. The war dragged on for 9 years and Louis was in financial difficulties. The war came to an end by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697. Louis XIV surrendered all his conquests except Strasburg.

He recognised William III as King of England and promised not to support the Stuarts. Savoy became independent. The Duke of Savoy recovered Pinerolo, Casale and Nice. Charles II, the King of Spain, fell seriously ill in 1698. He had no issues. He had two sisters, Maria Theresa, and Margaret Theresa. Maria Theresa had married Louis XIV, and Margaret Theresa, Emperor Leopold I. If Charles II were to die, Spain and its vast possessions would be claimed either by Louis XIV or Leopold I. Fearing that the balance either by Louis XIV or Leopold I. Fearing that the balance of power would be upset if the throne of Spain were claimed by either of the two parties, William III of England arranged for the First Partition.

Treaty in 1698.

According to the treaty, it was agreed that Joseph Ferdinand (grandson of Leopold I), the electoral Prince of Bavaria was to become the King of Spain after Charles II's death and France and Austria would receive some Spanish territories. But Joseph Ferdinand died in 1699.

So a Second Partition Treaty was arranged in 1700 by which it was agreed that the Arch Duke Charles, the second son of Leopold I, was to be the next King of Spain. But Charles II drew up a will naming Philip of Anjou, the grandson of Louis XIV, as his successor. Charles I died in 1700. Louis XIV discarded the Second Partition Treaty and accepted the will. Philip of Anjou became Philip V of Spain. The Spanish ambassador in an exultant mood declared, "The Pyrenees no longer exist". The nations of Europe got alarmed at the prospect of Spain and France coming under one rule. To confirm their fears, Louis XIV declared that Philip V has right to the French throne also. He did not stop with this. He entered into action. He occupied some barrier fortresses in Netherlands and threatened Holland. He recognised the son of James II as James III of England. The aggressive activities of Louis XIV coupled with the fear that the balance of power would be upset in Europe, forced England to form a Grand Alliance with the Emperor, Holland and Brandenburg in 1701. Savoy and Portugal joined the alliance later.

The Allies supported the candidature of Arch Duke Charles. France was supported by Spain and Bavaria. The Spanish Succession War lasted from 1702 to 1713. The allies had able generals such as the Duke of Marlborough (English) and Eugene (Savoy). The war was fought in four theatres - Europe, Atlantic, America and the Mediterranean. In America the war was known as "Queen Anne's War". The allies won the battle of Blenheim in 1704 by which the French were driven out of the Empire. Gibraltar was captured in 1704 and it acted as a base in the Mediterranean for England. The Duke of Marlborough won the battles of Ramilles (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709), and drove out the French from Netherlands. Both in land and sea, the French suffered major reverses. Emperor Leopold I died in 1710. His son and successor Josephin also died in 1711. So Arch Duke Charles, the younger son of Leopold I, became Emperor Charles VI. The allies now found it menacing to push the candidacy of the Emperor to the throne of Spain. Louis XIV had already been brought to his knees. As all nations were anxious to make peace, the war came to an end by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

Terms of the Treaty of Utrecht:

- 1) Philip V was recognised as King of Spain and the New World, but his claim to the French throne was set aside.
- 2) Austria got Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Sardinia and Naples.
- 3) Louis XIV recognised Protestant succession in England.

- 4) England got Newfoundland, Novascotia and Hudson Bay from France, and Minorca and Gibraltar from Spain.
- 5) England also got from Spain the right of slave trade with Spanish colonies.
- 6) Savoy became independent. Sicily was given to Savoy. (In 1720 she exchanged Sicily for Sardinia)
- 7) The Elector of Brandenburg was recognised as the King of Prussia.

Significance of the treaty

The treaty of Utrecht put an end to Louis ambitious foreign policy. Territorially it was not a loss for France except some of the fortresses on the border of Netherlands. But she was thoroughly exhausted by the war. She lost all chance of dominating Europe in the 18th century. The treaty put an end to the long drawn out war between the Bourbons of France and the Hapsburgs of Spain. The Hapsburg line in Spain came to an end with the accession of Philip V, the grandson of Louis XIV. Spain surrendered Netherlands, and her possessions in Italy to Austria. Prussia and Savoy came to the limelight as two new powers in Europe. England was the chief gainer. The possession of Gibraltar and Minorca formed a basis for her future supremacy in the Mediterranean. Her possessions in North America provided a base for the capture of French Canada. She emerged out of the war as the leading colonial, commercial and maritime power.

The ascendancy of Louis XIV for more than seven decades made France the Mistress of European Civilisation. "Louis brought France to the height of her glory; he did it by methods which prepared her ruin". In his desire to make France supreme in Europe, Louis neglected colonial and commercial interests. Public debts mounted up due to needless wars and the upkeep of a showy court. The last part of his reign was full of difficulties. All his plans came to nothing. His army was destroyed and his navy was reduced to a few broken vessels. He lost many of his colonies in North America Guizot says, "The Government of Louis XIV was a great fact, a powerful and brilliant fact, but it was built upon sand". Louis XIV realised his terrible error too late. "Do not imitate my fondness for building and for war, but work to lessen the misery of my people" were the last words uttered by Louis XIV to his successor. He died in 1715. In spite of the failures of Louis XIV, his ways served as a model for the other despots of Europe. French customs and manners were greatly admired and freely copied. "Europe admired the plumage, but forgot the dying bird". In the words of Wake man "On the page of history he shines out in clear predominance over all contemporary

sovereigns, and of him it may be said, with more truth than of most Kings or statesmen, that during a reign extending over more than half a century, the motive and inspiration of his every thought and plan was the glory and welfare of his country".

To sum up Louis XIV we may quote A.J. Grant who writes "Louis' death marks an epoch in European history. France had led European civilization for nearly a century, and nearly all states looked up to her as an example, not only in the arts of peace and war but also in the methods of government. The financial exhaustion caused by the last war and the miserable government under which she was soon to fall degraded her from that high position and left the European area free for other combatants".

8. PETER, THE GREAT (1689-1725)

At the beginning of modern age, Russia was ruled by Ivan, the terrible (1523-1584) of the Ruric dynasty. He was the first Russian King to assume formally the title of Tsar. In 1613 the rule of Romanov dynasty started which lasted till 1917. Peter was the greatest Tsar of this dynasty. Peter was born on May 30th in 1672. He ascended the throne of Russia in 1682. He was a small child of ten years at the time of his accession. He ruled up to 1696 along with his elder brother Ivan under the regency of their half sister Sophia. Ivan died in 1696. Peter took charge of the administration of the country and began to rule independently. He ruled efficiently up to 1725 and made Russia a powerful and glorious country in Europe.

Russia at the time of Peter's accession

Chaos and confusion prevailed in every sphere when Peter ascended the throne. Russia was a backward and almost a primitive country. Russia was shut out from contact with the west. Russia had to face innumerable difficulties in her foreign trade and Sweden and Turkey had established their control over Baltic Sea and Black sea respectively. Its north sea was generally ice bound for more than nine month in a year. At that time Russia had no port, hence her sea trade was completely hampered. The only connection the Russian had with Europe was their religion, Christianity. Their long contact with the conquering Mongols made the Russians more Asiatic than European in customs and habits. Russia was not affected by liberal movements of Europe, the Renaissance and the Reformation. Russia 'slumbering in oriental seclusion' had no share in the intellectual, cultural and spiritual experiences of the west.

The Russian government was modelled on oriental despotism. Tsar of Russia was a curious mixture of the Byzantine Emperor and the Mongolian Khan. The absolute monarchy

had two obstacles the Patriarch in religious matters and the Streltsi, the Tsars body guard in political matters. They considered themselves even more powerful than their master and after conspired against the Tsar. Peter was a man of conflicting characteristics. As Grant points out 'Peter combined in himself the worst qualities of Attila, the Hun and the best traits of Louis XIV. By some he has been represented as a greatest monster of cruelty and a murderer, by others as a demon of the sensuality, by still others a great nation hero. To his men he was the best friend and to his foes he was the worst enemy. So a writer commented that he was 'a barbarian of genius'.

One of his claims to greatness was his determination to carry out all the changes that he introduced for the welfare of Russia. He spared neither himself nor his people. He tried to learn everything himself. He was noted for his integrity of character. He kept his promise under all circumstances. He towered above every man in his realm, mentally as well as physically. He was a marvel of wisdom and acuteness, observation and strength.

The government of Russia was under the control of the powerful and selfish nobles. In spite of her vastness, Russia was an isolated country. She was shut out from contacts with the west. Her entrance to Black sea and Baltic Sea was blocked. Therefore Peter aimed at establishing absolute despotism of the Tsar, Europeanising Russia in order to secure for her a place in the great family of nations, and also at extending her frontiers in the south and west. The followings are his aims.

a) He wanted to establish a benevolent despotism following

The very nature of the country made agriculture more important than industry or trade. Russia had derived her alphabet, her model of Louis XVI of France. art and architecture and her religion from the old Eastern Roman

b) He aimed at creating a powerful standing army after the fashion of other European countries.

c) He was resolved to make Russian people adopt the European way of life.

d) He was determined to gain outlets to the sea in the north and in the south in order to improve her commercial prospects.

e) He determined to rid himself of the restraints put upon him by Boyars, Patriarch and Streltzi.

Peter was desirous of achieving all these objectives. According to Thatcher, Peter, the great, set himself to achieve the objects with the ceaseless energy and that in all a degree of success, which is really astonishing'.

Home Policy and Administrative Measures of Peter

Visit to foreign nations: After taking over the reins of the empire in 1696, Peter badly defeated the Turks and occupied the port of Azov. In the ensuing year he sent a mission to Europe to secure their help against the Turks and he went there too but he failed to get the help of the Europeans against the Turks, as the European countries were badly involved in the War of Spanish Succession. However, he gained new experiences in Holland and Prussia. He learnt astronomy and ship-making in Holland and got the training in army organization in Prussia. He also called various engineers, sailors, artisans and skilled labourers from foreign countries to Russia to make it a modern country of Europe and Asia. Scheville writes about his European tour, "In Holland he hired out for a time as a common ship carpenter, ships having been a passion with him since his boyhood. In addition, he attended surgical lectures, visited paper mills, flour mills, printing presses, in short was untiring in his efforts to assimilate, if not the underlying principles, at least the more obvious features of Western civilization".

Suppression of the Revolt of the Strelitzi:

Taking the advantage of the absence of Czar from Russia, the Strelitzi bodyguards of Peter raised a standard of revolt against him. They wanted to enthrone Alexis, the minor son of Peter under the regency of Sophia and made the foreigners leave Russia. As soon as Peter learnt of this revolt, he at once returned to Russia. Although the revolt was crushed and the law and order was restored before he had reached Moscow, he beheaded a large number of Strelitzi bodyguards and shed a lot of blood of the rebels. Scheville writes, "Over a thousand of the luckless guards were executed with unimaginable tortures. In his savage fury Peter, splashed with blood, presided in person at the butchery". After this revolt he disbanded the guards and organized a new army on the Prussian style. Scheville also mentions, "The Strelitzi was completely disbanded. In their place the Czar created an army on the European pattern which before the close of his reign had become an efficient instrument of war".

Abolition of the Assembly of Boyars:

During the reign of Peter, feudalism was at its zenith in Russia and the Assembly of Boyars had a great influence during his time. The members of this assembly were very

conservative and reactionaries. They were completely against the westernization of Russia whereas Peter was a staunch supporter of westernization and he wanted to make Russia into a modern country by all means. When he felt that his dream would not be fulfilled so long as the assembly of Boyars existed, he abolished it and organized an advisory committee in its place. In this committee he appointed only those persons who were either true patriots or his most faithful and obedient followers. All the members of this committee were responsible to him only and they remained on their posts during the Emperor's pleasure, hence they always acted as the 'yes men' of the Emperor. Through these patriots he not only strengthened his own position in Russia but also accelerated the modernization of the country.

Nationalization of Church:

The Russian Church was quite conservative and did not like the activities of Peter for turning Russia into a modern country; hence Peter decided to establish his control over it. Fortunately in 1700, Patriarch, the Head of the Greek Church breathed his last but Peter did not appoint his successor and wanted that instead of being his opponent, the Church should become his supporter. He also removed the Head of the Moscow Church as he was against Peter. Peter organized a Holy Synod and himself became its

Administrative Reforms:

He introduced an administrative system based upon the Western countries. He established powerful absolute monarchy in Russia. He appointed special officers to look after every department. He laid foundation of a centralized and well organized administration. He also introduced various reforms in the military of Russia and trained it on Western style. He also endeavoured to eradicate corruption from the administration.

He removed Dumas and appointed a Senate. All the members of the Senate were nominated by the Tzar himself. These nominated members were required to look after the affairs of state on his behalf and executed his orders in too. Giving up favouritism and nepotism, he began to make appointments on the basis of ability and capability. He divided the country into many provinces and all the provincial governors were his most faithful followers. Thus, efficiency and economic development invested every sphere of Russia and he did his best to give Russia a new and modern outlook.

Army: Peter realised the necessity of a standing army on European model. The former Tsars had to depend upon the feudal army which had no traditions of loyalty and obedience attached to the throne. While he was on tours, his body guards disobeyed his orders. He

hastily returned to Moscow and severely punished them. He replaced the feudal army by a new standing army 2, 00,000 strong. Europeanization of Russia: Russia has been rightly described as the "last-born child of European civilisation". When Peter came to the throne, Russia was backward and uncivilised. It was sunk in oriental barbarism. There was widespread illiteracy. Except for a few monastic schools, there were no educational institutions. Drunkenness was a common vice prevalent among both men and women. Justice was openly bought and sold. The cancer of corruption ate into the very vitals of the country. People trusted in blind beliefs. In dress, manners and customs, the people were more like Asiatic than European. The men wore long beards and the women lived in seclusion. Moscow, in short, gave the appearance of an oriental city. Peter wanted to make Russia a civilised country.

"The vast native powers of the Russian people needed for their release and control a shock from the intellectual batteries of the West" Peter clearly realised that the introduction of western education was the only panacea for the social ills of the country. He set up elementary and technical schools where children were given education on western fashion. New subjects were taught so as to keep them in line with the children of advanced countries. He put an end to the practice of Russian nobles wearing long beards. He imposed a tax proportionate to the length of the beard! Peter encouraged his subjects to wear European dress and compelled his courtiers to imitate the fashions of the French Court. He fought against the seclusion of women. Russian, noblemen were taught the use of tobacco. In short, he wanted that his subjects should look every inch and European. With the help of experts from England, Holland and Germany, he constructed bridges, roads, ships, schools, and hospitals. Leather and cloth industries were started. He adopted the Christian calendar with the year beginning from January 1st during his tours, he had seen the Dutch ship building yard at Amsterdam and the English ship-building yard at Deptford, when he became aware, he started building a navy for Russia. He is regarded as the "Father of the Russian Navy". He realised the importance of a capital on the Baltic. As a result of a war with Sweden, Peter acquired some territories on the Baltic and there he founded St. Petersburg which served as the new capital. Want of funds prevented him from undertaking many works of public utility. He introduced the first Russian newspaper, started the first Russian hospital and set up the first Russian museum.

Peter achieved all his ends at the teeth of the opposition of the people. He did not even spare his own kith and kin that stood against his cosmopolitan views. He divorced his wife, despatched his sister to the convent and beat his own son to death. When Peter died in

1725,"he had changed a patriarchal oriental despotism into one of modern type and established the bureaucratic system of modern Russia. For good or for ill, the reforms of Peter the Great had left an indelible impress on her history and character of his country

Foreign Policy

War with the Turks:

Peter wanted to secure suitable ports on the Black Sea and the Baltic Sea. "Windows to the West", he called such ports. He wanted to open the gates of Russia to European trade. But Russia had no harbours except Archangel in the north which was covered with ice for the greater part of the year. In the south, the Black Sea was controlled by Turkey. In 1696, Peter succeeded in capturing Azov - the key to the Black Sea - from the Turks; He made Azov the headquarters of the Russian fleet. But in 1711, Azov again fell into the hands of the Turks. b. War with Charles XII of Sweden: Peter then turned his attention to Sweden in the North. Charles XII, the King of Sweden, had made the Baltic Sea a Swedish lake. The rise of Sweden to a position of pre-eminence roused the jealousy of Peter. Russia along with Denmark and Poland entered into an alliance in 1699 with aggressive designs against Sweden. The inevitable outcome was the Great Northern War (1699-1721). Charles XII, "the Hurricane of the North" hurled a massive attack on Denmark and brought her King to his knees. He concluded peace with him and withdrew from the war. The next target of attack of Charles XII was Russia. He defeated a Russian army at Narva in 1700 and marched into Poland. Augustus II, the King of Poland, submitted before the hurricane. When Charles was engaged in Poland, Peter occupied a greater part of Sweden. Charles hastily returned from Poland and invaded Russia with the view of taking her capital, Moscow. But it was a fatal decision. The long march, the severe winter, shortage of food and spread of disease decimated the Swedish forces. Charles XII was forced to abandon his direct march to Moscow.

He turned south and besieged Poltava in 1709. But he was beaten back and the escaped to Turkey. Charles returned to Sweden in 1713 and died in 1718. The war with Sweden came to an end by the Treaty of Nystad in 1721. By the treaty, Russia received Carelia, Ingria, Estonia, Livonia and a part of Finland. Peter built his famous city of St. Petersburg on the Baltic coast. He made it the chief commercial part and the capital of Russia. A year later, a war with Persia gave a foot-hold on the Caspian Sea.

Peter was the ablest and the most successful ruler of his time. He may rightly be called the 'father of modern Russia'. The great epoch in the history of Russia began with his

reign. His great ideal was the absolute state and he served it with devotion, sacrificing everything for it. He enforced the supremacy of state over society and of will over custom. The machine created by him was so strong and all resisting forces were so completely destroyed that his machine worked well even in the hands of empresses for nearly seventy years after his death. If there had been no Peter, Russia would have been a backward medieval state. According to Lord Acton, "It was the empire of Peter the Great that destroyed the empire of Napoleon". Peter not only removed all forces in Church and state which restricted the absolute authority of the Tsar, but also ruthlessly suppressed all conservative opposition to change. Everything was altered except the institution of serfdom. The military system was reorganised so as to enable Russia to compete successfully with the more advanced countries of the west. Under Peter, Russia extended her frontier to the Baltic region which facilitated her relations with the west both in commerce and in culture. According to Lord Acton, "In a single reign and by the action of one man, Russia passed from lethargy and obscurity to a dominant position among the nations".

"Russia has two faces; one is turned towards Asia, with one it looks out on Europe. Its western face has never lost the features given it by the greatest of the Romanov family, Peter the Great". Peter occupies a unique place in the history not only of Russia but of the world. He raised Russia to the rank of an important power in Europe by his internal reforms and an effective foreign policy. By forcing the European way of life on his people, he made Russia a civilized country. He gave Russia a strong government and an extensive territory. Above all, he gave her a way of life which raised the Russians from their primitive seclusion to the state of modern civilization. Peter the Great is indeed the 'Father of modern Russia'.

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8. CATHERINE II (1762-1796)

Peter the Great was succeeded by his wife Catherine I. His grandson came next and he in turn was succeeded by Elizabeth, Peter's niece. After her death in 1761, Peter III, who was insane, became Tsar of Russia. Catherine, a German princess, was married to Peter III for dynastic consideration. Within a few months of his accession, Peter was imprisoned and murdered with the consent of Catherine. She became the sole ruler in 1762. Catherine II ruled Russia from 1762 to 1796 for nearly thirty five years. Though she was a German by birth, she identified herself with Russia. She conformed to the Orthodox Church and she learned the Russian language. She surrounded herself with Russian scholars and established a reputation for her quick wit and lofty patriotism.

Her aims

Catherine continued the work of Peter the Great and aimed at perfecting autocracy in Russia. She wanted to make Russia great in European politics and to gain control of the Black Sea.

Her Internal Policy

She encouraged the upper classes in Russia to use French, the language of polite society. She made the Russians accept French, as the first language of the land. She sent Russian Princes to England to observe the latest experiments in agriculture. Thus, she

followed the policy of Europeanising Russia with great determination. It is rightly remarked that Peter drove Russia into Europe, but Catherine pushed Europe into Russia.

Catherine was a despot and she wanted her contemporaries to consider her as an enlightened despot, like Frederick II of Prussia and Joseph II of Austria. She had no pity for the peasants. She did nothing to relieve the poverty or lessen the ignorance of the masses. When the peasants rose in rebellion between 1773 and 1775, they were ruthlessly his leaders were severely punished. She followed the policy of Peter in Church affairs also. In addition, she secularized Church property. Thereby, the clergy were made completely dependent upon the crown. This enabled her to strengthen autocracy in Russia. The French Revolution broke out in 1789. Cries of liberty, equality and fraternity were heard in Russia also. Catherine used strong measures to put down the young Russians who wanted to help the peasants. Thus, she prevented the revolutionary ideas from spreading in Russia.

Her foreign policy:

The foreign policy of Catherine was the continuation of the policy of Peter. When she became the Tsarina of Russia, she found Catherine strengthened her position by centralising the Poland and Turkey on the stage of decline. She took advantage of their administrative system. She recognized the local Governments and weakness and tried to benefit by it. Peter failed in his Turkish policy other divisions of Russia organized by Peter. She appointed governors but Catherine succeeded and deputy - governors to rule over them and kept them all under her Partition of Poland control. Thus, she perfected autocracy in Russia. Poland had been a large and important national state since the sixteenth century. She played a conspicuous military role during the seventeenth century. Poland contested with Sweden for the Baltic ports. She interfered in the affairs of Russia, helped Austria to defend Vienna against the Turks and extended her own frontiers by the efforts of their national hero, Sobieski

CATHERINE II (1762-1796)

The nobles who rose against Stanislaus were supported by Russia. The ruler of Austria, Maria Theresa died and Joseph II who succeeded her could not take part in the affairs of Poland. So Prussia and Russia made a secret treaty in 1793 and decided to partition Poland again. The Second Partition of Poland was affected in 1793. According it:

1. Russia got some parts in eastern Poland.

2. Prussia gained Danzig and some places in the west. The rest of Poland was ruled by Stanislaus under the supervision of Russia. Austria got infuriated but could not take any action because of the French Revolution. Third Partition: (1795) When Russia disbanded the Polish army, the Poles rose in rebellion against her under their national hero, Kosciusko. He wanted to liberate Poland from foreign rule. Russia and Prussia joined together and put down this liberation movement. As a result of this, the remaining parts of Poland were divided among Austria, Prussia and Russia in 1795. King Stanislaus resigned his crown and went away to St. Petersburg. The Third Partition of Poland was affected in 1795. According to it

1. Austria got the upper valley of the Vistula.

2. Prussia received the lower valley including the city of Warsaw.

3. Russia was given the rest of Poland. Ukraine and the whole of Lithuania passed into the hands of Catherine. Thus, Russia received the major share. Poland disappeared from the map of Europe for the time being.

Results:

- a. The weakness of Poland led to her partition. The people of Poland suffered untold misery. Instead of helping Poland to establish a stable government, the neighbouring powers-Prussia and Russia - opposed all reforms and deliberately fostered anarchy in Poland. When the Poles rose in rebellion to liberate their country from foreign yoke, Russia and Prussia crushed these national revolts which indirectly helped the French Revolution.

- b. Prussia gained some territories, but she lost the protection offered by the buffer-state of Poland against Russia.

- c. Austria was not strengthened by the acquisition of territories outside her natural frontiers. The increase of non-German population and the addition of the turbulent Slav people proved to be a source of trouble for her.

- d. Catherine was not wise in accepting the partition. Russia could have easily gained the whole of Poland.

- f. When Prussia and Austria were engaged in the French Revolution, Catherine tried to conquer parts of Poland. Prussia had to come back to Poland. Yet, Catherine was able to consolidate her position in Poland.

Catherine wanted to extend her power over the Black Sea region. When she was engaged in fighting against Poland, she could not pay any attention to Turkey. After the

partition of Poland, Catherine wanted to wage war on Turkey. When she announced that she wanted to free the Christian countries from the Turkish rule, she gave a religious colour to her war, which was enthusiastically accepted by the Russians. Austria was alarmed at the Russian advance on the Danube and decided to help the Turks. Frederick of Prussia intervened and by his clever diplomacy averted a European war by persuading Austria and Russia to come to terms on the Turkish question and to take their compensation in Poland. Finally, the Turks were forced to accept the Treaty of Kutchuk-Kainardji in 1774. The terms of this treaty were:

Prussia and Austria committed a mistake in inviting Russia to the partition of Poland. They really wanted to keep Russia out of ships in Turkish waters. By inviting her, they raised up a powerful rival against themselves.

The immediate cause for the war was Russia's attempt to crush the revolt of the Catholics of southern Poland. Catherine violated the frontiers of the Turkish Empire in Bessarabia, when she tried to bring back to Poland the leaders of the rebellion. The Sultan of Turkey, Mustapha III was enraged at this and declared war against Russia in 1768. Catherine captured Azov in 1769. The Turks were driven out of Moldavia and Wallachia and Bucharest was seized.

1. Russia retained Azov and thereby won a permanent footing in the Black Sea region. Her influence over the Mediterranean increased.
2. She gained Moldavia and Wallachia also.
3. Russia obtained the right of free navigation for her merchant
4. The Christians of Constantinople were to be under the protection of Russia.

War broke out again in 1784 between Russia and Turkey and Crimea was captured. Catherine agreed to share the Turkish possessions in Europe with Joseph II of Austria. So Austria and Russia took part in the war in the beginning. Since Austria feared that Prussia might attack her, she withdrew from the war. So Catherine had to carry successful. According to the Treaty of Jassy, Russia kept the places on the war singlehanded. The war ended in 1792 and Russia emerged captured by her including Crimea and secured Ochatov. The river Dniester was fixed as the boundary between the two countries. Catherine and Sweden: After the death of Charles XII Sweden was troubled by internal dissensions brought about by the self-seeking nobles. There was no strong government at the centre. Taking advantage of this weakness of Sweden, Catherine planned to partition Sweden also. Fortunately for Sweden, a

strong king arose in the person of Gustavas III. He put down the rebellious nobles with a strong hand and made Sweden a powerful country again.

Catherine II was an enlightened autocrat. She boldly carried out many reforms to make Russia a well governed state in Europe. She found joy in hard work. She was always willing to listen to the advice of those around her. She was ready to appreciate the good in others. But she loved power and dared anything to realise it. Catherine contributed much to the material prosperity of Russia and to her territorial expansion. She was mainly instrumental in bringing about the destruction of Poland and her act in this connection was nothing short of day light robbery. Her next achievement was the conquest of the Crimea from the Turks. Her attitude towards Turkey gave birth to the great Eastern Question which continues even to this day to be one of the most knotty problems of international politics. If Peter the Great was the founder of the greatness of Russia, Catherine made that greatness felt among all nations of Europe. Her alliance was courted both by Prussia and Austria and on occasions even her mediation was sought.

Thus, when Joseph II of Austria sought to annex Bavaria, Frederick the Great opposed him and appealed to Catherine for help. The dispute was settled by the Peace of Teschen largely through Russian intervention. Thus, under Catherine, Russia for the first time established her claim to act as arbiter in the politics of Western Europe. She followed a strong and a brilliant foreign policy. She understood the weakness of Turkey and Poland and turned the distress to the advantage of her country. By war and conquest she made Russia a great power in Europe. Peter the Great made Russia a 'European Power, Where as Catherine the Great made Russia a 'Great Power'.

9. FREDERICK THE GREAT (1740-1780)

The Hohenzollerns, a family of German nobles from Brandenburg (Berlin area) acquired Prussia, a land inhabited by Slaves and Germans. The early Hohenzollern rulers established autocratic Government. They also created a well-trained army and expanded their territory by war. The Hohenzollern dynasty which ruled Prussia produced many a prince with noteworthy regularity for three hundred years. From 1485 to 1786, son succeeded father without a single break. But they did not contribute much to Prussia's rise to a position among the first-rate powers. In other words, till the time of Frederick William. Prussia did not play any important role in the European politics. The rise of Prussia began with his reign. Frederick William, the Great Elector was an energetic ruler. He laid the foundation of the greatness of Prussia. He played an important role in the Thirty Year's War and obtained

valuable additions of territory when the Peace of Westphalia was concluded in 1648. He secured Western Pomerania. These advantages enhanced the prestige of Prussia. He next sought to release the Duchy of Prussia from its subjection to the Polish sovereignty. He took advantage of the war which broke out in 1655 between Sweden and Poland. By clever diplomacy, he secured from the king of Poland, a treaty by which East Prussia became independent. This was his greatest political triumph. He helped the Dutch against Louis XIV. Sweden as an ally of Louis XIV invaded Brandenburg. But the Elector defeated the Swedes at Fehrbellin and drove them out of Pomerania. But at the Peace of Nimwegen, Frederick William was not allowed to retain Pomerania.

Domestic Policy of the Great Elector

He devoted all his energies to establishing homogeneity and solidarity in his scattered dominions. He centralised his scattered states viz., Brandenburg, Prussia and Cleaves into a single whole by amalgamating her separate constitutions, armies and governments. He then made his authority absolute over every department of the State by suppressing all representative institutions. He also reorganised his army on a very efficient basis. He took active steps to promote the commercial prosperity of Prussia. He built canals and tried to foster industries by a protective tariff. He gave shelter to the Huguenots of France and this measure largely contributed to the growth of Berlin. Brandenburg became a highly centralised military state in which the power of the Crown was absolute. William has rightly been called the 'founder of the greatness of Prussia'. His foreign policy made Prussia a strong power in Europe and his domestic policy made the country prosperous. The Great Elector was succeeded by his son Frederick I.

Frederick I did not have the energy of his father. He loved pomp and pleasure. The only notable event of his reign was his acquisition of the title of king for the Elector of Brandenburg. He joined the Grand Alliance in the Spanish Succession War and fought on the side of Emperor Leopold. When the war ended with the Treaty of Utrecht, his ambition was realised and he was made the first king in Prussia. The Emperor crowned him as the "King in Prussia". Thus, the Elector Frederick III was known as King Frederick I. He got the title of "King in Prussia" and not the "King of Prussia" as the whole of that country did not belong to the Elector of Brandenburg. Poland still held the western half of Prussia. The next king was Frederick William.

Frederick William I had business - like qualities and a keen sense of what was to the advantage of his country; but he lacked statesmanship and political ambition. He improved

Prussia in his own way. In his internal administration he observed strict economy abolished some of the unimportant offices and with the savings, he created a big army. He centralised the various departments. He set up a "General Directory" which controlled the finances and administration. The strong and efficient administration earned for him the tribute "the greatest internal king" of Prussia. He created a powerful standing army and well-filled treasury. He had a craze for tall grandeurs. He gave all temptations for tall men to come and join his army.

His foreign policy was not vigorous, because he had no confidence in his own diplomatic ability. He was successful in the only war that he fought viz. the war against Sweden after the defeat of Charles XII at Pultava. His success in the war gained him the Baltic port of Settin. He finally secured Western Pomerania by the Treaty of Nystadt. He joined England and France in the League of Hanover against Emperor Charles VI and Philip of Spain. Later, he sided with the Emperor and supported his Pragmatic Sanction. The Emperor had promised to support Frederick's claim to the duchies of Julich and Berg. The Emperor made use of his services but evaded his own promise. Frederick died in 1740. He was succeeded by his illustrious son Frederick II.

The father of Frederick the Great wanted that his son should be a replica of himself, whereas the crown Prince's nature was diametrically opposite to his. Art and literature, and the things of the intellect were extremely attractive to the young prince while in the eyes of the father they were contemptible frivolities. The boy was attracted to French culture; the father regarded everything French as an abomination. The boy hated routine. To the father, the whole of life was routine. These differences of nature and tastes enraged the father so much that he once seemed bent upon killing his son. When his anger subsided, he put the Prince under an iron-discipline. He made him an apprentice in civil and military administration. For several years, the Prince submitted to the dry task of acquainting himself with the details of administration. Frederick came out of this ordeal self-contained, cynical, craty but sobered and submissive to the fierce paternal will.

Frederick II is generally called Frederick the Great. He came to the throne at the age of twenty eight. He was a lover of music and art. He was not only a great soldier but also a statesman. Under him, the Prussian Kingdom made marvellous progress. The hard military training he received from his father made him an autocrat later. He patronised poets and lovers of French literature. He accommodated Voltaire, one of the forerunners of the French Revolution, in his court. Internal Policy:

According to Frederick, "the Prince is to the nation he governs what the head is to the man; it is his duty to see, think and act for the whole community, that he may procure with every advantage of which it is capable". He had the ideal that the 'Monarch is not the absolute master but only the first servant of state'. According to Thomas Carlyle he was the "last of the Kings". He was a Philosopher -King.

Agriculture was considerably improved by draining marshes and internal traffic was promoted by the construction of new canals and roads. Various new industries were established and encouraged by subsidies. Taxes were heavy but he lightened the financial burdens on the people. He was not extravagant in expenditure. By his financial planning, he was not able to increase his military strength to enable him to launch upon a brilliant foreign policy. The Prussian army became the pride of Europe.

He improved the administration. He remodelled the legal code and published the laws of the land for the sake of the public and the guidance of the courts. He abolished torture as a punishment and granted freedom of the Press. He allowed religious toleration. He welcomed Catholics to his country. He declared that if Turks would come to populate the land he himself would build their mosques. He was a free thinker. He reactivated the Berlin Academy of Sciences. He spread education to the lower class people by introducing schools. He liked to play his flute while scheming how to defeat the purpose of Maria Theresa of Austria. He liked to comment on official reports and petitions. He took a diligent view in Table Talks with congenial companions dilating on poetry and drama. He was more interested in French literature than German literature. He entertained at his court. Voltaire, the prince of the eighteenth century philosophers.

Foreign Policy:

The foreign policy of Frederick was a great success. His policy was one of aggression and expansion. He had to fight two wars against the Austrian Empress, Maria Theresa. The first one is known as the Austrian Succession War and the second one is known as the Seven Years' War.

Austrian war of Succession: (1740-1748)

Let us take the War of the Austrian Succession now. When the Hohenzollerns from their capital of Berlin had been reigning in Prussia, another family, by name the Habsburgs had been building up the Austrian Empire. When Maria Theresa, the contemporary rival of Frederick the Great, succeeded her father in 1740, the Austrian dominions included Austria,

Moravia, Hungary, Bohemia, Silesia, Styria, Tyrol, the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) and Milan Also Frederick assured her father Charles, that after his life, Maria Theresa would be enthroned. Austria, Frederick conquered the Austrian province of Silesia. But, to As soon as Maria Theresa succeeded to the imperial throne of the entire distress of the two states, the war soon became a colonial and commercial war. France and Spain supported the cause of Prussia, where as England and Holland joined the hands of Austria. It is strange to see that the theatres of war were America, India and the high seas. However, the war came to an end by the Treaty of Aix-lachapelle in 1748. According to the terms of the Treaty, Frederick retained the possession of Silesia. England and France mutually restored all conquests made during the War. Later, it proved to be only temporary in nature.

Diplomatic Revolution: (1748-1756)

Now, we shall take the Diplomatic Revolution and the Seven Year's War. It has been shown that the Treaty of Aix-la-chapelle restored peace for the moment and so it could not establish amity. Maria Theresa was inclined to blame Great Britain for her misfortunes, despite the fact that Great Britain had fought the previous battle on her behalf. Indeed, her hatred of Frederick found no bounds at all. The alliance of France and Prussia was fast cracking. The period 1748-56 was occupied by the powers in preparing for the next year. For some years after 1748 there was little indication of the imminence of a Diplomatic Revolution. The Empress was deeply engaged in a series of internal reforms in the Austrian dominions. The power of the Austrian nobility was reduced. The government was centralised. The course of Justice was made more efficient for their purpose. The army was enlarged. Improved conditions were established for the comfort of the men. The foreign policy of Maria Theresa during this period was directed towards obtaining alliances. Most of her ministers advise a continuance of the existing diplomatic system? The Diplomatic Revolution (1748-1756) was a change in the diplomatic relations of European powers. This was brought about by the great Austrian minister Kaunitz, the greatest diplomat of his age. Austria and France formed an alliance which lasted till the French Revolution. Austria broke off her connection with her old ally, viz. England and the later was forced to form an alliance with Prussia. Thus a new balance of forces was formed and this was called the "Diplomatic Revolution" of 1756 Maria Theresa was bent upon recovering Silesia from Frederick. She thought that English alliance was useless to Austria in a war with Prussia. Since France was afraid of the growing power of Prussia and since she was poised against England for commercial and colonial supremacy, Austria made friends with France, England formed an alliance with Prussia.

Seven years War: 1756-1763

After the preliminaries were settled, the Seven Years' War began. Frederick defeated in 1757 a French army at Rossbach and Austrian army at Leuthen. But in 1761 Berlin was occupied by Austrian and Russian forces. During the later stages of the war Frederick was on the defensive. His finances were depleted. At this critical juncture for Frederick occurred the death of his bitter enemy, Tsarina Elizabeth in 1762. It proved to be a blessing, because her nephew Peter III who became the new Tsar was an admirer of Frederick. He concluded an alliance with Frederick. The alliance gave Prussia the much-needed help towards the closing stages of the war. Peter III was deposed and murdered in 1762. Catherine II, the new Tsarina, withdrew from the Prussian alliance. The war came to an end by the treaty of Paris in 1763. Prussia emerged out of the Seven Year's war in flying colours. She retained Silesia. It disclosed to the European nations that it was Prussia and not Austria which was the leader in Germany. Two treaties of peace were negotiated. One was the Treaty of Paris (1763) concluded between France and England and the other was the Treaty of Hubertsburg (1763) agreed between Austria and Prussia

Various territorial arrangements between France and England were embodied in the Treaty of Paris. In India, all French possessions except, Pondicherry and two other factories were ceded to Great Britain. Great Britain acquired also the French possessions east of the Mississippi, together with Senegal in West Africa. Thus, France was left with a few islands in North America, a foothold on the African Coast and a few trading ports in India. Thus, in the words of C. Hayes, "For many years to come France was reduced to a third-rate power" By the Treaty of Hubertsburg, Maria Theresa offered Silesia to The Seven Year's War ended the struggle between England and France for colonial supremacy. As a result of this, England became the strongest power in the world.

Partition of Poland: (1772)

In order to further strengthen and consolidate Prussia, Prussia made a secret treaty with Catherine of Russia for the partition of Poland. Austria also joined in this. The troubles in Poland led to the unhappy partition of the country among the three great powers. In this partition, Frederick took West Prussia, the most valuable part, as his share. Thus Brandenburg was linked with East Prussian kingdom. In foreign policy, his watch-word was "Expediency". "Take what you can, you are never wrong unless you are obliged to give back" he declared. His last achievement was his check-mating Austria. After Maria Theresa, Joseph II wanted to exchange Bavaria for Austrian Netherlands. Frederick opposed this move and

wanted strict adherence to the Treaty of Westphalia. Frederick formed in 1785 the League of Princes in Germany. Its object was to uphold the independence of the German princes. But it was mainly designed to check the aggression of Austria.

Frederick was the most prominent figure in Europe during the second half of the eighteenth century. He was a brilliant general. During the Seven years' War, he held his own almost single handed against a coalition of nearly half of the European powers. In politics he was an opportunist. The seizure of Silesia and the partition of Poland were acts of barefaced robbery. Frederick's government was an unlimited though enlightened despotism. He ruled his country with a single eye to the benefit of his people. He made Prussia a first class power. As a result of his reign, Prussia and Austria became rivals in Europe. Hence he fully deserved the title of "the Great". "Frederick the Great perfected the policies of the Great Elector and of Frederick William I and raised Prussia to the rank of partner with Austria in German leadership and to an eminent position in the international affairs of Europe". He was a true enlightened despot which would be clear from the following remark made by him. "The people do not exist for the sake of the rulers, but the rulers for the sake of the people".

10. MARIA THERESA OF AUSTRIA (1740-1780)

Maria Theresa was an enlightened depot of the 18th century. Her father Charles VI was both the Holy Roman Emperor and the sole possessor of the vast Hapsburg dominions. After his death in 1740, Maria Theresa inherited only the Hapsburg possessions because the Empire could not pass on to any woman. Maria Theresa thus became the Queen of Bohemia and Hungary, and the Arch Duches of Austria. Her husband was Francis Stephen of Lorraine. Francis was appointed co-regent.

Foreign Policy

Austrian Succession War: (1740-1748)

Charles VI became the Holy Roman Emperor in 1711. He had no sons. So he wanted to secure in the name of his daughter Maria Theresa, the hereditary Hapsburg possessions. He also desired to have his son-in-law, Francis Stephen, as Holy Roman Emperor. But as it was a matter for the Electors to decide, he was helpless in the affair. Immediately after the birth of Maria Theresa, he made all the leading countries in Europe to sign the 'Pragmatic Sanction' by which they all agreed to make Maria Theresa the sole possessor of Hapsburg territories after his death. Charles VI died in 1740. Immediately after his death, Bavaria, Sardinia, Saxony, Spain and France, advanced claims to portions of Hapsburg possessions. This led to

the war of the Austrian Succession. Frederick II fired by his own ambition invaded and occupied Silesia. The Pragmatic Sanction was blown to the winds.

Matters developed and drifted to a general European war in which England and Hungary supported Maria Theresa and France and Bavaria supported Prussia. Maria Theresa was defeated in Silesia. Bavarian and French forces poured into Bohemia. The Elector of Bavaria, Charles VI, became the Holy Roman Emperor in 1742, hemmed on all sides by enemies, Maria Theresa concluded the treaty of Breslau in 1742 by which she surrendered Silesia to Frederick. Thus the first phase of the Silesian or Austrian Succession War came to an end. The war however continued. Emperor Charles VI suffered reverse in the war. The French forces were defeated at Dettingen. As Frederick feared that Silesia would be recovered by Maria Theresa, he started the Second Silesian War in 1744. He defeated the Austrian forces at Hohenfriedburg in 1745. The war dragged on for three more years and it came to an end by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. It restored the status quo, but Prussia retained Silesia.

Seven Year's War: (1756-1763)

Maria Theresa was waiting for an opportunity to recover Silesia. The international situation also got strained because of the acute commercial and colonial rivalry between England and France. War was imminent. Frederick therefore trimmed the organisation of the army. In Europe, alliances were completely altered. France which had opposed Austria in the Austrian Succession War, now, entered into an alliance with her. Prussia and England, who had been enemies during the Austrian Succession War, now became friends. Maria Theresa won over Tsarina Elizabeth of Russia to her side. After the preliminaries were settled, the Seven Years War began. Frederick defeated in 1757 a French army at Rossbach and an Austrian army at Leuthen. But in 1761 Berlin was occupied by Austrian and Russian forces.

During the later stages of the war, Frederick was on the defensive. His finances were depleted. At this critical juncture for Frederick, occurred the death of his bitter enemy Tsarina Elizabeth in 1762. It proved to be a blessing, because her nephew Peter III who became the new Tsar was an admirer of Frederick. He concluded an alliance with Frederick. The alliance gave Prussia the much needed help towards the closing stages of the war. Peter III was deposed and murdered in 1762. Catherine I, the new Tsarina, withdrew from the Prussian alliance. The war came to an end by the treaty of Paris in 1763. Prussia emerged out of the Seven Years' War in flying colours. She retained Silesia. It disclosed to the European nations that it was Prussia and not Austria which was the leader in Germany. 3. Partition of Poland:

Augustus III, the King of Poland, died in 1763. Catherine II of Russia managed to elect her favourite Stanislaus II as King of Poland with the help of Frederick the Great of Prussia. Subsequently, Russia made a naked aggression on Poland. The Sultan of Turkey incited by France took up arms against Russia. Maria Theresa got annoyed at the success of Russia and made preparations for war. In order to avoid a general European war, Frederick the Great joined with Russia and Austria and arranged for the first Partition of Poland in 1772. This was daylight robbery. By the First Partition of Poland, Austria got Red Russia (Galicia).

Domestic Policy:

Maria Theresa gave form and shape to historic Austria. An empty treasury greeted her when she came to the throne. She thoroughly reorganised the financial administration. The taxes were increased. She taxed the clergy and curbed their privileges. New industries were started and they were carefully nursed by subsidies and protection. In order to promote industries, technical education was given to the people. She increased the strength of the army. She created a strong centralised state. A council of State at Vienna supervised the entire administration. She made the German language, the official language for military officers. She took steps to introduce the German language for civil administration too. She thoroughly remodelled the Austrian Universities and set up elementary and secondary schools. She promoted trade by removing many vexatious internal duties. By conviction, Maria Theresa was a staunch Catholic.

Maria Theresa was a striking personality in the history of Europe. She came to power at a time when Austria was on the verge of dismemberment. She displayed great valour in defending her ancestral territories against the naked aggression of Frederick the Great. The loss of Silesia was neutralised by the acquisition of new territories at the expense of Poland. As a typical enlightened despot, she possessed to a remarkable degree great ability and insight. She remained true to her faith and lived as a chaste woman in an age of religious hypocrisy and loose morals.

11. JOSEPH II (1765-1790)

Joseph II was the eldest son of Maria Theresa the Empress of Austria. He was elected Emperor in the place of his father, Francis of Lorraine in 1765. While his mother lived, he was co-regent of the Austrian dominions. On the death of his mother Maria Theresa in 1780, Joseph succeeded to the dominions of the Hapsburg house of Austria. He was quite efficient in controlling the affairs of the state during the life time of his mother. Joseph II was the great supporter of Enlightened Despotism. He was a man of ideas far ahead of his times, a

visionary and an unpractical man. He admired Frederick of Prussia and wanted follow his example in administration. He also maintained cordial relationship with Catherine of Russia. Of all the despots of the eighteenth century, he was the most enlightened. Joseph was an idealist. His good intentions can be summed in his own words; 'I have made philosophy the legislator of my empire; her logical principles shall transform Austria'. Inspired by these philosophical ideals Joseph set out to Reform Austria, but his reforms for his people's welfare ended in a gloom.

Reforms

- a. Following the example of Frederick of Prussia, he wanted to consolidate the Austrian empire and turn it into a modern state.
- b. Joseph tried to fuse the different nationalities into one centralised state.
- c. He wanted to establish uniform system of justice and to grant intellectual freedom and religious toleration. At the same time he wanted to put an end to special privileges and to bring about social and political equality.
- d. He tried to free the church from the authority of pope and to bring it under the control of the state.
- e. Above all he wanted to do everything possible for the good and welfare of the people. So he introduced several reforms in his empire.

Scheville writes about the reforms of Jeseph II; The reforms of Jeseph II were devised not only to unify and centralize the many Hapsburg dominions but also to destroy the privileges of the clergy and nobility. An usually informed and Kindly man Jeseph showed in his measures much more good will than tact and foresight. His far-reaching reforms instead of converting Austria into an ideal land remained as a dream land.

Political Reforms

His empire was quite extensive but disorganized. He divided his empire into thirteen departments and appointed one military officer in each department for its administration. He established two judicial courts in each province in order to provide justice to all the people without any difficulty. Out of these two courts of justice one was meant for the nobles and the other for the common masses. Besides an administrative officer, an assembly was formed in every province for giving its advice to the provincial officer, if he so needed. The members of this committee were nominated by the Emperor himself and they were entirely responsible to

the Emperor only. The provinces were further divided into circles and circles into town and villages. Joseph made every possible effort in order to establish political unity and harmony among the people of different races and creeds living in his vast empire. Moreover, he appointed some efficient and capable officers for running the administration of the empire smoothly. Scheville writes about it, "His object was to unify his dominion under his absolute but benevolent rule".

Religious Reforms

Joseph II resorted to liberal religious policy. So far all the churches of Austria were under the control of Pope. Joseph made them free from the control of the Pope. He issued an ordinance that no order of the Pope could be applicable in Austria without the approval of the Emperor and all the property of the Church would be considered to be the property of the Empire. Henceforth, all the appointments in the churches began to be made by the Emperor. The Church had great income through religious taxes. Joseph reduced the burden of these taxes and cancelled some of the taxes and thus relieved the people of the burden of unnecessary taxes. The number of the monasteries was also reduced in Austria and the priests were now educated in the government educational institutions. The priests were forced to act according to the rules of the Empire and all the people of Austria were given religious freedom.

Educational Reforms

Joseph II paid sincere attention to the rise and development of education. So far, the responsibility of education lay with the churches but now he made it the responsibility of the state to make arrangements for the education of the people. All the schools which were so far under the control of the Church were converted into Government schools. Besides this, Joseph made education free and compulsory up to a certain age. Thus, it is evident that Joseph made every possible effort for the development of education in Austria.

Social Reforms

So far the nobles had their control over the people living in their territory and the latter had no right to have matrimonial alliance without the prior approval of the nobles of their area. Moreover, they were not permitted to sell or purchase lands without the permission of the nobles. Joseph cancelled all these inhuman practices. The nobles used to take forced labour from the peasants. Their privileges were also abolished. During his reign there was a class of serfs in Austria who used to be tortured and tormented by the nobles. They had to

work on the fields of the nobles for six days in a week, hence they could not provide anything to eat to their own families and they starved. Joseph abolished serfdom and forced the nobles to pay salaries to the serfs.

All these deeds of public welfare made Joseph quite popular in Austria. R. Lodge remarks in this context, "Perhaps none of the innumerable reforms of these years are more illustrative of the spirit in which their author worked than to attempt to abolish serfdom in the Austrian dominions. A first edict, limiting the rights of the lord to inflict punishments, was followed by others which gave the peasant personal freedom, allowed him to marry as he pleased and compelled the lord to give him serf property in the receipt of fair rent".

Military Reforms

Although Joseph II was an Enlightened Despot, he knew it well that the power of the arms was essential for the good of the people and the empire. The Hapsburg Empire was quite extensive, hence it was essential to maintain a powerful army for its safety and maintenance of law and order. He, therefore, organized a vast army on the Prussian pattern and strengthened his position in Europe. Hayes writes about his reforms, "To sum up, the main principles of his reforms were to unify his multifarious possessions under a common system of law and government and to subordinate all provincial or class interests to the welfare of the state". Causes of Failure of his Reforms: No doubt, Joseph II had introduced the reforms keeping in view the welfare of the people in mind. Although Joseph II was an Enlightened Despot and the motive of his reforms was the welfare of the people, however, he could not achieve success in his reforms due to the following reasons. Austria was a vast empire and it had no harmony. Hungary and Netherlands were the most significant kingdoms of Austria. Hungary had her separate Parliament and a number of local self-government institutions. The people of Hungary: were greatly devoted to these institutions as they were in vogue since long in Hungary. People of different races lived in Hungary who had sharp disharmony among themselves. The same condition also prevailed in Netherlands. Although they were kept satisfied by providing them various concessions, yet when Joseph II endeavoured to suppress their local self-government institutions, they did not like it and raised a standard of revolt against him. It was necessary that the officials of Joseph II might have made expensive propaganda about his reforms and their utility before their implementation but they did not show some such worth as could have made the reforms as success, rather some selfish elements spread various rumours about these reforms. Consequently, the ignorant people could be easily motivated to revolt.

Autocracy of Emperor Joseph was an absolute monarchy. He was not at all prepared to tolerate the opposition of his reforms at any cost. That way he stood firm in getting his wishes fulfilled by the people of his country. As a result thereof the number of his opponents went on rising with the passage of time and he remained perturbed throughout his life. The Pope and the priests were strictly opposed to his religious policy as the property of the Church was confiscated and the educational institutions of the Church were taken over by the government. Hence the Pope had become the greatest opponent of Joseph II because according to an edict passed by the Emperor, the orders of the Pope were not to be implemented without the final approval of the Emperor. Thus, the Pope had become just a puppet in the hands of the Emperor. The number of the peasants was quite large in the Empire of Austria. The Emperor had introduced compulsory military service for them. As a result, they were immensely annoyed with him.

Emperor Joseph II of Austria had curtailed the privileges of the lords and nobles. They were also required to pay taxes like the common masses and were no more permitted to take forced labour from the peasants. It marred their influence on the people of the area under their control; hence they felt offended and instigated the various revolts which took place in Hungary, Tyrol and Netherlands from time to time.

During this period most of the people of Austria were illiterate and unfortunately the lords had great influence over the society as they were quite powerful. All these progressive reforms seemed to be untimely to the uneducated and orthodox people of Austria. So all these reforms put Joseph II in great troubles. The Austrian Emperor felt greatly distressed due to the failure of his reforms, hence he desired that the following words might be engraved on his grave after his death, "Here lies an Emperor of Austria who, with the best intentions tried to perform numerous deeds for the good of his subjects but never succeeded in anything". William Stubbs also remarked about his failure, "Emperor Joseph II was singularly industrious, enlightened and able ruler. His ideas were far in advance of his age and so his beneficial reforms were not appreciated by his people".

Foreign Policy of Joseph II

a. The first and foremost aim of his foreign policy was to establish his control over Bavaria in place of Netherlands. At that time England was involved in the American War of Independence. Joseph II considering it proper had established his control over some of the islands of Holland and also asked for equal rights with the Dutch in the eastern group of islands. But after getting the English and French help the Dutch threatened Joseph for war.

As a result of it Joseph being terrified concluded a treaty with England and called back his fleet from the eastern group of islands.

b. After being disappointed from this side he directed his attention towards Bavaria but Frederick the Great organized a confederation of the German rulers and opposed Joseph II. On this occasion Russia and France also refused to assist him; thus as a result of the treaty of Fontainebleau, he could get only a meagre part of Bavaria.

c. In 1786 Joseph II provided the support to Russia against Turkey and his armies successfully reached up to Belgrade. But unfortunately at the same time a revolt broke out against him in his own country, so he had to call back his army from Turkey and his foreign plans could not be implemented. In such disappointing circumstances Joseph II breathed his last in 1790. Historians are of the opinion that he was quite sad and distressed at the time of his death. Once he himself remarked that he was always tortured with his notion that in spite of working so hard and facing a large number of problems, he could not make his people happy. Famous historian A.J. Grant has remarked in this context, "The foreign designs of Joseph succeeded to better and the failure of his ambitions hastened his death". Scheville comments about his foreign policy, "His close alliance with Russia against Turkey marks the beginning of the Eastern Question in European politics".

Throughout his life Joseph II made efforts in vain to do good deeds for the welfare of his people. His attitude was quite extensive and liberal but his practical knowledge was cypher. He was a well-wisher of the people but unfortunately his Empire was a zoo of people belonging to different creeds and cultures. Joseph wanted to make Austria an ideal State which was an impractical and impossible vision. He tried to establish a powerful centralized government in his Empire without paying heed to the political and cultural differences, hence he could not succeed. In spite of the fact that he effected various reforms and looked after the welfare of the people, people continued to rebel against him. He failed to achieve any significant victory in his foreign policy. Prussia always remained against him and she put hurdles in the way of his success. Constant failures in the field of home and foreign policy, disturbed his mental equilibrium and turned him from an enlightened despot into a stern absolute king. W. Stubbs writes about his failures, "A singularly industrious, enlightened and able ruler, his ideas were far in advance of his age and so his beneficial reforms were not appreciated by the people".

12. The French Revolution (1789–1799)

The French Revolution (1789–1799) was a period of ideological, political and social upheaval in the political history of France and Europe as a whole, during which the French polity, previously an absolute monarchy with feudal privileges for the aristocracy and Catholic clergy, underwent radical change to forms based on Enlightenment principles of republicanism, citizenship, and rights. These changes were accompanied by violent turmoil, including executions and repression during the Reign of Terror, and warfare involving every other major European power.

The Revolution was originally a popular uprising against the absolute power of the king and against the privileges and wealth of the elite, and was perpetrated in the name of liberty, equality and fraternity. In reality it led to the loss of liberty, dictatorship and nationalism. The revolution was based on a hatred of tradition and desire to use the power of the state to create a new order. People were given new identities as citizens of the state. To crush the resistance to revolution and the new order about 18,000 - 40,000 people were executed. The revolution was unable to establish a durable system of governance, and in the following century, France would be governed variously as a republic, a dictatorship, a constitutional monarchy, and two different empires and under a dozen different constitutions. Subsequent events caused by the revolution include the Napoleonic wars, the restoration of the monarchy, and two additional revolutions as modern France took shape. The longer term European consequences include the counter-enlightenment and Romantic Movement in Germany which arose in reaction to the imposition of French rationalist culture. This was accompanied by the reunification of Germany as a defensive measure against a future Napoleon. French revolutionary ideas also inspired and influenced Marxist revolutionary movements such as the Bolsheviks in Russia who followed the pattern established in France of large scale executions of the enemies of the people by impersonal government organs.

In France, not everyone sympathized with or supported the Revolution and no single, dominant or shared vision of governance developed. There were too many monarchists to have a republic and too many republicans to have a monarch. What the Revolution did emphasize was the concepts of being a citizen with rights and of that nation as belonging to its citizens, who are not merely subjects of a ruler who more or less “owns” the state. The French revolution put nationalism on the political map.

Causes

Historians disagree about the political and socioeconomic nature of the Revolution. Less than one interpretation, the old aristocratic order of the Ancient Regime succumbed to

an alliance of the rising bourgeoisie, aggrieved peasants, and urban wage-earners. Another interpretation asserts that the Revolution resulted when various aristocratic and bourgeois reform movements spun out of control. According to this model, these movements coincided with popular movements of the new wage-earning classes and the provincial peasantry, but any alliance between classes was contingent and incidental. However, supporters of both models identify many of the same features of the Ancient Regime as being among the causes of the Revolution.

Socio- Economic Causes

Social and economic factors were: The social and psychological burdens of the many wars of the eighteenth century, which in the era before the dawn of nationalism were exclusively the province of the monarchy. The social burdens caused by war included the huge war debt, made worse by the monarchy's military failures and ineptitude, and the lack of social services for war veterans.

A poor economic situation and an unmanageable national debt both caused and exacerbated by the burden of a grossly inequitable system of taxation. The Roman Catholic Church, the largest landowner in the country, which levied a harsh tax on crops known as the dime. While the dime lessened the severity of the monarchy's tax increases, it nonetheless served to worsen the plight of the poorest that faced a daily struggle with malnutrition. The continued conspicuous consumption of the noble class, especially the court of Louis XVI and Marie-Antoinette at Versailles, despite the financial burden on the populace. High unemployment and high bread prices, causing more money to be spent on food and less in other areas of the economy; Widespread famine and malnutrition, which increased the likelihood of disease and death, and intentional starvation in the most destitute segments of the population during the months immediately before the Revolution. The famine extended even to other parts of Europe, and was not helped by a poor transportation infrastructure for bulk foods. In addition to economic factors, there were social and political factors, many of them involving resentments and aspirations given focus by the rise of Enlightenment ideals.

Political Causes

Resentment by the ambitious professional and mercantile classes towards noble privileges and dominance in public life (with a clear picture of the lives of their peers in the Netherlands, present-day Germany, and Great Britain etc.); Resentment of manorialism (seigneurialism) by peasants, wage-earners, and, to a lesser extent, the bourgeoisie; Resentment of clerical privilege (anti-clericalism) and aspirations for freedom of religion;

Continued hatred for (perceived) "Papist" controlled and influenced institutions of all kinds, by the large Protestant minorities; Aspirations for liberty and (especially as the Revolution progressed) republicanism; Hatred toward the King for firing Jacques Necker and Anne Robert Jacques Turgot, Baron de Laune (among other financial advisers) who represented and fought for the people. Finally, perhaps above all, was the almost total failure of Louis XVI and his advisers to deal effectively with any of the problems listed above.

French political philosophy

The causes listed above did not determine the course and outcome of the revolution. What affected the decisions that were made the assumptions and ideals of the participants. The revolution and the course that it took were affected by the ideas of the French Enlightenment. Pre-revolutionary France was a complicated and very illogical place without common laws or institutions of government. In theory the king was the source of all law and administrative authority reigning by the grace of God. In practice he was hemmed in by a multiplicity of customs and interests which made it almost impossible to change anything. For years intellectuals had been discussing how to change and regenerate French society but they did not have the power to make much difference as all power was in the hands of the nobility. They had little practical experience of government. This tended to make their discussions even more abstract and idealistic. Unlike England, in France there was no national or even regular local parliaments where ideas and policies could be debated and reforming laws passed and implemented.

Descartes

The pre-eminent French philosopher was Descartes. He extolled reason as the criterion of truth and rationality as the standard by which everything was to be judged. Descartes was a brilliant mathematician whose inspiration came from Euclidean geometry which enabled complex structures to be built up from simple axioms. The nature of geometry is that there is only one right answer to a problem. All other answers are false. This is why Descartes thought that reason was independent and not a social construction. He and his successors believed that the social order, like geometrical order, was the product of design and could thus be redesigned by intelligent people. In this way human society could be made anew. This is why Abbé Sieyès exhorted the French Revolutionary Assembly to "act like men just emerging from the state of nature and coming together for the purpose of signing a social contract." The idea driving this movement was that it is possible and right to overthrow an existing order, by force if necessary, on the grounds of abstract principles rather than

existing laws. Tradition and custom had no authority. This was quite different from the English and American rebellions which sought to make government respect the law, especially the old ones. Descartes was not attracted by the messiness of Athenian democracy but instead took Sparta as his model.

He said her greatness "was due not to the pre-eminence of each of its laws in particular... but to the circumstance that, originated by a single individual, they all tended to a single end." The goal was not to create a society based on laws which secured people's freedom to pursue their own legitimate purposes. Instead it was to create a society where everyone followed the purposes determined by the ruler. Sparta was also the ideal of Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Robespierre, and Saint Just. This widely accepted assumption made establishing and accepting dictatorial rule very likely.

Rousseau

Rousseau was the most influential political philosopher in France. He believed that human beings were born sinless but were corrupted by society. This was in contrast to the traditional Christian view that people are born selfish and need to be socialized into good behaviour by the family and other social institutions. Rousseau thought that all that is required for people to realize their full human potential was to change the social conditions. The agent to achieve this perfection is government. To begin this process, everyone in the society has to subscribe to a new social contract. In order to be free, every individual has to surrender his rights to a collective body and obey the general will. The state is vested with total power, which is legitimate because it has the consent of the majority. The general will, by definition, is always right and reflects the real interests of every member of society. So anyone who disagrees with the general will is mistaken and acting contrary to his own best interests. It is the ruler's responsibility to correct him and force him to act for his own benefit, to force him to be free. What is supremely important is the whole, of which an individual is merely an expendable a part.

Since the French monarchy had already centralized all power in itself, as epitomized by the statement of Louis XIV, all that needed to happen was to seize that power and use it for the benefit of society, to make people free. Again this was quite different to the Anglo-American attempt to secure freedom by limiting the power of the state and decentralizing power as much as possible. The irony is that despite the fact that the most intelligent people were involved in the French revolution at every stage, there actually was neither plan nor anyone capable of making one. Instead once the initial steps had been taken, the internal logic

of the train of events that had been set in motion unfolded. An astute observer of human nature and affairs like Edmund Burke was able to predict what would follow with uncanny accuracy. Another important element in French political culture was its anti-clericalism. France was a Catholic country and the church was immensely powerful. It had a monopoly of public worship and Protestants had no civil rights. It controlled the educational system, poor relief, hospital provision, and had extensive powers of censorship. The pulpit was used by the secular authorities for announcements and keeping the king's subjects docile and obedient. There developed a strong anti-clerical reaction to the intolerance and obscurantism of the church.

Voltaire

Voltaire (1694 – 1778) travelled to England during the height of the deist movement and brought back to France many new ideas from the free thinkers he met. Although many Englishmen adopted certain deist ideas that were compatible with a free Christianity, in France they were accepted as reinforcing the anti-clericalism of the age. The Jesuits who carried the intellectual weight of the Church had been suppressed by Louis XV, and so the radical deist ideas encountered little opposition. Voltaire disseminated these ideas to become the leading satirist of the Catholic Church mocking it continually. His views were widely accepted among intellectuals. Traditional Christian values and virtues were rejected in favour of the supremacy of human reason.

The Revolution's economic ideas were dominated by the Physiocrats, who preached the virtues of laissez-faire economic freedom. To achieve this they advocated a powerful interventionist role for government to sweep away the many obstacles to a natural economic order. These ideas, along with materialism and atheism, were disseminated by the Encyclopaedia edited by Denis Diderot (1713 – 1784) and Jean le Rond d'Alembert (1717 – 1783) and affected the general tenor of society. This influenced the course of the revolution and its actions against the church. In keeping with this philosophy, in its most radical and destructive phase the revolutionaries tried to make a complete break with the past and create an entirely rational society purged entirely of Christianity. 1792 was declared to be "Year I" and a new calendar with a ten-day week was introduced. A "Religion of Reason" based on deism was established and people were given a new identity as citizens of the State. Loyalty to the State was the citizens' highest duty and aspiration. In this way the revolution aimed to change people's beliefs, identity, and values.

In its Jacobin phase, the revolution is best understood as an effort to establish citizenship as the dominant identity of every Frenchman-against the alternative identities of religion, estate, family and region. Citizenship was to replace religious faith and familial loyalty as the central motive of virtuous conduct. Indeed, citizenship, virtue, and public spirit were closely connected ideas, suggesting a rigorous commitment to political activity on behalf of the community-patria, not yet nation. In Jacobin ideology, citizenship was a universal office; everyone was to serve the community”

Estates-General of 1789

The immediate trigger for the Revolution was Louis XVI's attempts to solve the government's worsening financial situation. In February 1787, his finance minister, Lomenie de Brienne, convened an Assembly of Notables, a group of nobles, clergy, bourgeoisie, and bureaucrats selected in order to bypass the parliaments. Calonne asked this group to approve a new land tax that would, for the first time, include a tax on the property of nobles and clergy. The assembly did not approve the tax, instead demanding that Louis XVI call the Estates-General. On August 8, 1788, the King agreed to convene the Estates-General in May of 1789. By this time, Jacques Necker was in his second turn as finance minister.

As part of the preparations for the Estates-General, cahiers de doléances (books of grievances) were drawn up across France, listing the complaints of each of the orders. This process helped to generate an expectation of reform of some kind. There was growing concern, however, that the government would attempt to gerrymander an assembly to its liking. In order to avoid this, the Parliament of Paris proclaimed that the Estates-General would have to meet according to the forms observed at its last meeting. Although it would appear that the magistrates were not specifically aware of the "forms of 1614" when they made this decision, this provoked uproar.

The 1614 Estates had consisted of equal numbers of representatives of each estate, and voting had been by order, with the First Estate (the clergy), the Second Estate (the nobility), and the Third Estate (middle class and peasants) each receiving one vote. Almost immediately the "Committee of Thirty," a body of liberal Parisians, began to agitate against voting by order, arguing for a doubling of the Third Estate and voting by headcount (as had already been done in various provincial assemblies, such as Grenoble). Necker agreed that the size of the Third Estate should be doubled, but the question of voting by headcount was left for the meeting of the Estates themselves. Fuelled by these disputes, resentment between the elitists and the liberals began to grow. Pamphlets and works by liberal nobles and clergy,

including the Comte d' Antraigues and the Abbe Sieyes, argued the importance of the Third Estate.

When the Estates-General convened in Versailles on May 5, 1789, lengthy speeches by Necker and Lamington, the keeper of the seals, did little to give guidance to the deputies, who were sent to separate meeting places to credential their members. The question of whether voting was ultimately to be by head or by order was again put aside for the moment, but the Third Estate now demanded that credentialing itself should take place as a group. Negotiations with the other two estates to achieve this, however, were unsuccessful, as a bare majority of the clergy and a large majority of the nobility continued to support voting by order.

National Assembly (1789)

On June 10, 1789 Abbe Sieyes moved that the Third Estate, now meeting as the Communes (English: "Commons"), proceed with verification of its own powers and invite the other two estates to take part, but not to wait for them. They proceeded to do so two days later, completing the process on June 17. Then they voted a measure far more radical, declaring themselves the National Assembly, an assembly not of the Estates but of "the People." They invited the other orders to join them, but made it clear they intended to conduct the nation's affairs with or without them. In an attempt to keep control of the process and prevent the Assembly from convening, Louis XVI ordered the closure of the Salle des Etats where the Assembly met. Weather did not allow an outdoor meeting, so the Assembly moved their deliberations to a nearby indoor tennis court, where they proceeded to swear the Tennis Court Oath (June 20, 1789), under which they agreed not to separate until they had given France a constitution. A majority of the representatives of the clergy soon joined them, as did 47 members of the nobility. By June 27 the royal party had overtly given in, although the military began to arrive in large numbers around Paris and Versailles. Messages of support for the Assembly poured in from Paris and other French cities. On July 9th the Assembly reconstituted itself as the National Constituent Assembly.

The storming of the Bastille, July 14, 1789

By this time, Necker had earned the enmity of many members of the French court for his support and guidance to the Third Estate. The queen, Marie Antoinette, the younger brother of Louis, the Comte d' Artois, and other conservative members of the king's Privy Council urged Louis to dismiss Necker. On July 11, after Necker suggested that the royal family live according to a budget to conserve funds; Louis fired Necker, and completely

reconstructed the finance ministry at the same time. Many Parisians presumed Louis's actions to be the start of a royal coup by the conservatives and began open rebellion when they heard the news the next day. They were also afraid that arriving Royal soldiers had been summoned to shut down the National Constituent Assembly, which was meeting at Versailles, and the Assembly went into nonstop session to prevent eviction from their meeting place once again. Paris was soon consumed with riots, anarchy, and widespread looting. The mobs soon had the support of the French Guard, including arms and trained soldiers, because the royal leadership essentially abandoned the city.

On July 14, the insurgents set their eyes on the large weapons and ammunition cache inside the Bastille fortress, which also served as a symbol of tyranny by the monarchy. After several hours of combat, the prison fell that afternoon. Despite ordering a cease fire, which prevented a mutual massacre, Governor Marquis Bernard de Launay was beaten, stabbed and decapitated; his head was placed on a pike and paraded about the city. Although the Parisians released only seven prisoners (four forgers, two noblemen kept for immoral behaviour, and a murder suspect), the Bastille served as a potent symbol of everything hated under the Ancient Regime. Returning to the Hotel de Ville (city hall), the mob accused the *prevot des marchands* (roughly, mayor) Jacques de Flesselles of treachery; his assassination took place en route to an ostensible trial at the Palais Royal.

The King and his military supporters backed down, at least for the time being. Lafayette - famous for also fighting in the American Revolutionary War - took up command of the National Guard at Paris. Jean-Sylvain Baille, president of the Assembly at the time of the Tennis Court Oath, became the city's mayor under a new governmental structure known as the *commune*.

The King visited Paris, where, on July 27 he accepted a tricolored cockade, as cries of *Vive la Nation* "Long live the Nation" changed to *Vive le Roi* "Long live the King." Necker was recalled to power, but his triumph was short-lived. An astute financier but a less astute politician, Necker overplayed his hand by demanding and obtaining a general amnesty, losing much of the people's favour. He also felt he could save France all by himself, despite having few ideas. Nobles were not assured by this apparent reconciliation of King and people. They began to flee the country as *émigrés*, some of whom began plotting civil war within the kingdom and agitating for a European coalition against France. By late July, insurrection and the spirit of popular sovereignty spread throughout France. In rural areas, many went beyond this: some burned title-deeds and no small number of chateaux, as part of a general agrarian insurrection known as "*la Grande Peur*" (the Great Fear). In addition, plotting at Versailles

and the large numbers of men on the roads of France as a result of unemployment led to wild rumours and paranoia (particularly in the rural areas) that caused widespread unrest and civil disturbances and contributed to the Great Fear.

Toward a Constitution

On August 4, 1789 the National Constituent Assembly abolished feudalism, in what is known as the August Decrees, sweeping away both the seigniorial rights of the Second Estate (aristocrats) and the tithes gathered by the First Estate (clergy). In the course of a few hours, nobles, clergy, towns, provinces, companies, and cities lost their special privileges. Looking to the Declaration of Independence of the United States for a model, on August 26, 1789, the Assembly published the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. Like the U.S. Declaration, it comprised a statement of principles rather than a constitution with legal effect. The National Constituent Assembly functioned not only as a legislature, but also as a body to draft a new constitution. Necker, Mounier, Lally-Tollendal and others argued unsuccessfully for a senate, with members appointed by the crown on the nomination of the people. The bulk of the nobles argued for an aristocratic upper house elected by the nobles. The popular party carried the day: France would have a single, unicameral assembly. The King retained only a "suspensive veto"; he could delay the implementation of a law, but not block it absolutely.

On October 5, 1789 the people of Paris, mainly working women, marched on Versailles in what was the Women's March on Versailles. The women were responding to their anger at the harsh economic situations they had to face such as bread shortages while the King and his court held banquets such as that for the royal guards on October 1, 1789. They were also demanding an end to Royalist efforts to block the National Assembly and for the King and his administration to move to Paris in hopes for the poverty to be addressed. On October 6, 1789, followed by 20,000 National Guards, the King and the royal family moved from Versailles to Paris thus legitimizing the National Assembly. The Assembly replaced the historic provinces with 83 departments, uniformly administered and approximately equal to one another in extent and population. Originally summoned to deal with a financial crisis, by late 1789, the Assembly had focused on other matters and only worsened the deficit. Honore Mirabeau now led the move to address this matter, with the Assembly giving Necker complete financial dictatorship.

Revolution and the Church

The Revolution brought about a massive shifting of powers from the Roman Catholic Church to the state. Under the Ancient Regime, the Church had been the largest landowner in

the country. Legislation enacted in 1790 abolished the Church's authority to levy a tax on crops known as the dime, cancelled special privileges for the clergy, and confiscated Church property. To no small extent, the Assembly addressed the financial crisis by having the nation take over the property of the Church (while taking on the Church's expenses), through the law of December 2, 1789. In order to rapidly monetize such an enormous amount of property, the government introduced a new paper currency, assigned, and backed by the confiscated church lands. Further legislation on 13 February 1790 abolished monastic vows. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy, passed on July 12, 1790 (although not signed by the King until December 26, 1790), turned the remaining clergy into employees of the State and required that they take an oath of loyalty to the constitution. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy also made the Catholic Church an arm of the secular state.

In response to this legislation, the archbishop of Aix and the bishop of Clermont led a walkout of clergy from the National Constituent Assembly. The pope never accepted the new arrangement, and it led to a schism between those clergy who swore the required oath and accepted the new arrangement ("jurors" or "constitutional clergy") and the "non-jurors" or "refractory priests" who refused to do so. The ensuing years saw violent repression of the clergy, including the imprisonment and massacre of priests throughout France. The Concordat of 1801 between Napoleon and the Church ended the de-Christianisation period and established the rules for a relationship between the Catholic Church and the French State that lasted until it was abrogated by the Third Republic via the separation of church and state on December 11, 1905.

Factions within the Assembly began to clarify. The aristocrat Jacques Antoine Marie de Cazales and the abbe Jean-Sifrein Maury led what would become known as the right wing, the opposition to revolution (this party sat on the right-hand side of the Assembly). The "Royalist democrats" or monarchies, allied with Necker, inclined toward organizing France along lines similar to the British constitutional model; they included Jean Joseph Mounier, the Comte de Lally-Tollendal, the comte de Clermont-Tonnerre, and Pierre Victor Malouet, comte de Virieu. The 'National Party', representing the centre or centre-left of the assembly, included Honore Mirabeau, Lafayette, and Bailly; while Adrien Duport, Barnave and Alexandre Lameth represented somewhat more extreme views. Almost alone in his radicalism on the left was the Arras lawyer Maximilien Robespierre. Abbe Sieyes led in proposing legislation in this period and successfully forged consensus for some time between the political centre and the left. In Paris, various committees, the mayor, the assembly of representatives, and the individual districts each claimed authority independent of the others.

The increasingly middle-class National Guard under Lafayette also slowly emerged as a power in its own right, as did other self-generated assemblies.

Intrigues and radicalism

The Assembly abolished the symbolic paraphernalia of the Ancient Regime, armorial bearings, liveries, etc., which further alienated the more conservative nobles, and added to the ranks of the émigrés. On July 14, 1790, and for several days following, crowds in the Champ de Mars celebrated the anniversary of the fall of the Bastille; Talleyrand performed a mass; participants swore an oath of "fidelity to the nation, the law, and the king"; and the King and the royal family actively participated. The electors had originally chosen the members of the Estates-General to serve for a single year. However, by the time of the Tennis Court Oath, the communes had bound themselves to meet continuously until France had a constitution. Right-wing elements now argued for a new election, but Mirabeau carried the day, asserting that the status of the assembly had fundamentally changed, and that no new election should take place before completing the constitution. In late 1790, several small counter-revolutionary uprisings broke out and efforts took place to turn all or part of the army against the Revolution. These uniformly failed.

The army faced considerable internal turmoil: General Bouille successfully put down a small rebellion, which added to his (accurate) reputation for counter-revolutionary sympathies. The new military code, under which promotion depended on seniority and proven competence (rather than on nobility), alienated some of the existing officer corps, who joined the ranks of the émigrés or became counter-revolutionaries from within. This period saw the rise of the political "clubs" in French politics, foremost among these the Jacobin Club: according to the Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1911 ed., one hundred and fifty-two clubs had affiliated with the Jacobins by August 10, 1790. As the Jacobins became more of a broad popular organization, some of its founders abandoned it to form the Club of '89. Royalists established first the short-lived Club des Impartiaux and later the Club Monarchique. The latter attempted unsuccessfully to curry public favour by distributing bread. Nonetheless, they became the frequent target of protests and even riots, and the Paris municipal authorities finally closed down the Club Monarchique in January 1791.

Amidst these intrigues, the Assembly continued to work on developing a constitution. A new judicial organization made all magistracies temporary and independent of the throne. The legislators abolished hereditary offices, except for the monarchy itself. Jury trials started for criminal cases. The King would have the unique power to propose war, with the

legislature then deciding whether to declare war. The Assembly abolished all internal trade barriers and suppressed guilds, master ships, and workers' organizations: any individual gained the right to practice a trade through the purchase of a license; strikes became illegal. In the winter of 1791, the Assembly considered, for the first time, legislation against the émigrés. The debate pitted the safety of the State against the liberty of individuals to leave. Mirabeau carried the day against the measure.

Flight to Varennes

Louis XVI, opposed to the course of the Revolution, but rejecting the potentially treacherous aid of the other monarchs of Europe, cast his lot with General Bouille, who condemned both the emigration and the assembly, and promised him refuge and support in his camp at Montmedy. On the night of June 20, 1791 the royal family fled the Tuileries wearing the clothes of servants, while their servants dressed as nobles. However, the next day the King was recognized and arrested at Varennes (in the Meuse department) late on June 21. He and his family were paraded back to Paris under guard, in the same disguise they wore in their escape. Petion, Latour-Maubourg, and Antoine Pierre Joseph Marie Barnave, representing the Assembly, met the royal family at Epernay and returned with them. From this time, Barnave became a counsellor and supporter of the royal family. When they reached Paris, the crowd remained silent. The Assembly provisionally suspended the King. He and Queen Marie Antoinette remained held under guard.

Completing the Constitution

With most of the Assembly still favouring a constitutional monarchy rather than a republic, the various groupings reached a compromise which left Louis XVI little more than a figurehead: he had perforce to swear an oath to the constitution, and a decree declared that retracting the oath, heading an army for the purpose of making war upon the nation, or permitting anyone to do so in his name would amount to de facto abdication. Jacques Pierre Brissot drafted a petition, insisting that in the eyes of the nation Louis XVI was deposed since his flight. An immense crowd gathered in the Champ de Mars to sign the petition. Georges Danton and Camille Desmoulins gave fiery speeches. The Assembly called for the municipal authorities to "preserve public order." The National Guard under Lafayette's command confronted the crowd. The soldiers first responded to a barrage of stones by firing in the air; the crowd did not back down, and Lafayette ordered his men to fire into the crowd, resulting in the killing of as many as 50 people. In the wake of this massacre the authorities closed

many of the patriotic clubs, as well as radical newspapers such as Jean-Paul Marat's *L'Ami du Peuple*. Danton fled to England; Desmoulins and Marat went into hiding.

Meanwhile, a renewed threat from abroad arose: Leopold II, Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick William II of Prussia, and the King's brother Charles-Philippe, comte d'Artois issued the Declaration of Pilnitz which considered the cause of Louis XVI as their own, demanded his total liberty and the dissolution of the Assembly, and promised an invasion of France on his behalf if the revolutionary authorities refused its conditions. If anything, the declaration further imperilled Louis. The French people expressed no respect for the dictates of foreign monarchs, and the threat of force merely resulted in the militarization of the frontiers. Even before his "Flight to Varennes," the Assembly members had determined to debar themselves from the legislature that would succeed them, the Legislative Assembly. They now gathered the various constitutional laws they had passed into a single constitution, showed remarkable fortitude in choosing not to use this as an occasion for major revisions, and submitted it to the recently restored Louis XVI, who accepted it, writing "I engage to maintain it at home, to defend it from all attacks from abroad, and to cause its execution by all the means it places at my disposal." The King addressed the Assembly and received enthusiastic applause from members and spectators. The Assembly set the end of its term for September 29, 1791.

If the post American Revolutionary War Constitutional Convention was a success, the French Constitutional Assembly was, by comparison, a failure. The former produced an enduring document; the latter could not do so. There was not enough of a shared vision of how the "new society" should be governed. The "old regime" had been deposed but those who rebelled had not considered what they were going to replace it with.

Legislative Assembly (1791–1792)

Under the Constitution of 1791, France would function as a constitutional monarchy. The King had to share power with the elected Legislative Assembly, but he still retained his royal veto and the ability to select ministers. The Legislative Assembly first met on October 1, 1791, and degenerated into chaos less than a year later. In the words of the 1911 Encyclopaedia Britannica: "In the attempt to govern, the Assembly failed altogether. It left behind an empty treasury, an undisciplined army and navy, and a people debauched by safe and successful riot." The Legislative Assembly consisted of about 165 Feuillants (constitutional monarchists) on the right, about 330 Girondists (liberal republicans) and Jacobins (radical revolutionaries) on the left, and about 250 deputies unaffiliated with either

faction. Early on, the King vetoed legislation that threatened the emigres with death and that decreed that every non-juring clergyman must take within eight days the civic oath mandated by the Civil Constitution of the Clergy. Over the course of a year, disagreements like this would lead to a constitutional crisis, leading the Revolution to higher levels.

War (1792–1797)

The politics of the period inevitably drove France towards war with Austria and its allies. The King, the Feuillants and the Girondins specifically wanted to wage war. The King (and many Feuillants with him) expected war would increase his personal popularity; he also foresaw an opportunity to exploit any defeat: either result would make him stronger. The Girondins wanted to export the Revolution throughout Europe and, by extension, to defend the Revolution within France. Only some of the radical Jacobins opposed war, preferring to consolidate and expand the Revolution at home. The Austrian emperor Leopold II, brother of Marie Antoinette, may have wished to avoid war, but he died on March 1, 1792. France declared war on Austria (April 20, 1792) and Prussia joined on the Austrian side a few weeks later. The invading Prussian army faced little resistance until checked at the Battle of Valmy (September 20, 1792), and forced to withdraw. However, by this time, France stood in turmoil and the monarchy had effectively become a thing of the past.

On the night of August 10, 1792, insurgents, supported by a new revolutionary Paris Commune, assailed the Tuileries. The King and queen ended up prisoners and a rump session of the Legislative Assembly suspended the monarchy: little more than a third of the deputies were present, almost all of them Jacobins. What remained of a national government depended on the support of the insurrectionary Commune. When the Commune sent gangs into the prisons to try arbitrarily to butcher 1400 victims, and addressed a circular letter to the other cities of France inviting them to follow this example, the Assembly could offer only feeble resistance. This situation persisted until the Convention, charged with writing a new constitution, met on September 20, 1792 and became the new de facto government of France. The next day it abolished the monarchy and declared a republic. This date was later retroactively adopted as the beginning of Year One of the French Revolutionary Calendar.

National Convention (1792–1795)

Execution of Louis XVI

In the Brunswick Manifesto, the Imperial and Prussian armies threatened retaliation on the French population should it resist their advance or the reinstatement of the monarchy.

As a consequence, King Louis was seen as conspiring with the enemies of France. January 17, 1793 saw King Louis XVI condemned to death for "conspiracy against the public liberty and the general safety" by a weak majority in Convention. The January 21 execution led to more wars with other European countries. Louis' Austrian-born queen, Marie Antoinette, would follow him to the guillotine on October 16. When war went badly, prices rose and the sans-culottes (poor labourers and radical Jacobins) rioted; counter-revolutionary activities began in some regions. This encouraged the Jacobins to seize power through a parliamentary coup, backed up by force affected by mobilising public support against the Girondist faction, and by utilising the mob power of the Parisian sans-culottes. An alliance of Jacobin and sans-culottes elements thus became the effective centre of the new government. Policy became considerably more radical.

Reign of Terror

The Committee of Public Safety came under the control of Maximilien Robespierre, a lawyer, and the Jacobins unleashed the Reign of Terror (1793-1794). At least 18,000 people met their deaths under the guillotine or otherwise, after accusations of counter-revolutionary activities. The slightest hint of counter-revolutionary thoughts or activities (or, as in the case of Jacques Hebert, revolutionary zeal exceeding that of those in power) could place one under suspicion, and the trials did not proceed scrupulously. On June 2, Paris sections encouraged by the enrages ("enraged ones") Jacques Roux and Jacques Hebert took over the Convention, calling for administrative and political purges, a low fixed price for bread, and a limitation of the electoral franchise to "sans-culottes" alone. With the backing of the National Guard, they managed to convince the Convention to arrest 31 Girondin leaders, including Jacques Pierre Brissot. Following these arrests, the Jacobins gained control of the Committee of Public Safety on June 10, installing the revolutionary dictatorship. On 13 July, the assassination of Jean-Paul Marat a Jacobin leader and journalist known for his bloodthirsty rhetoric by Charlotte Corday, a Girondin, resulted in further increase of Jacobin political influence. Georges Danton, the leader of the August 1792 uprising against the King, having the image of a man who enjoyed luxuries, was removed from the Committee and on July 27, Robespierre, "the Incorruptible," made his entrance, quickly becoming the most influential member of the Committee as it moved to take radical measures against the Revolution's domestic and foreign enemies.

Meanwhile, on June 24, the Convention adopted the first republican constitution of France, variously referred to as the French Constitution of 1793 or "Constitution of the Year I." It was ratified by public referendum, but never applied, because normal legal processes

were suspended before it could take effect. Facing local revolts and foreign invasions in both the East and West of the country, the most urgent government business was the war. On August 17, the Convention voted for general conscription, the *levee en masse*, which mobilized all citizens to serve as soldiers or suppliers in the war effort. On September 5, the Convention, pressured by the people of Paris, institutionalized, The Terror; systematic and lethal repression of perceived enemies within the country. The result was a policy through which the state used violent repression to crush resistance to the government. Under control of the effectively dictatorial Committee, the Convention quickly enacted more legislation. On 9 September, the Convention established *sans-culottes* paramilitary forces, the revolutionary armies, to force farmers to surrender grain demanded by the government. On September 17, the Law of Suspects was passed, which authorized the charging of counter-revolutionaries with vaguely defined crimes against liberty. On September 29, the Convention extended price-fixing from grain and bread to other essential goods, and also fixed wages.

The guillotine became the symbol of a string of executions: Louis XVI had already been guillotined before the start of the terror; Queen Marie Antoinette, the Girondins, Philippe Egalite (despite his vote for the death of the King), Madame Roland and many others lost their lives under its blade. The Revolutionary Tribunal summarily condemned thousands of people to death by the guillotine, while mobs beat other victims to death. Sometimes people died for their political opinions or actions, but many for little reason beyond mere suspicion, or because some others had a stake in getting rid of them. Most of the victims received an unceremonious trip to the guillotine in an open wooden cart (the *tumbrel*). Loaded onto these carts, the victims would proceed through throngs of jeering men and women.

Another anti-clerical uprising was made possible by the instalment of the Revolutionary Calendar on October 24. Against Robespierre concepts of Deism and Virtue, Hebert's (and Chaumette's) atheist movement initiated a religious campaign in order to dechristianize society. The climax was reached with the celebration of the Goddess "Reason" in Notre Dame Cathedral on November 10. The Reign of Terror enabled the revolutionary government to avoid military defeat. The Jacobins expanded the size of the army, and Carnot replaced many aristocratic officers with younger soldiers who had demonstrated their ability and patriotism. The Republican army was able to throw back the Austrians, Prussians, British, and Spanish. At the end of 1793, the army began to prevail and revolts were defeated with ease. The Vento's Decrees (February–March 1794) proposed the confiscation of the goods of exiles and opponents of the Revolution, and their redistribution to the needy.

Because dissent was now regarded as counterrevolutionary, extremist enragés such as Hebert and moderate Montagnard indulgent such as Danton were guillotined in the spring of 1794. On June 7 Robespierre, who had previously condemned the Cult of Reason, advocated a new state religion and recommended that the Convention acknowledge the existence of God. On the next day, the worship of the deistic Supreme Being was inaugurated as an official aspect of the Revolution. Compared with Hebert's popular festivals, this austere new religion of Virtue was received with signs of hostility by an amazed Parisian public. In 1794, Robespierre had ultra-radicals and moderate Jacobins executed; in consequence, however, his own popular support eroded markedly. On July 27, 1794, the Thermidorian Reaction led to the arrest and execution of Robespierre and Saint-Just. The new government was predominantly made up of Girondists who had survived the Terror, and after taking power, they took revenge as well by persecuting even those Jacobins who had helped to overthrow Robespierre, banning the Jacobin Club, and executing many of its former members in what was known as the White Terror. The Convention approved the new "Constitution of the Year III" on August 17, 1795; a plebiscite ratified it in September; and it took effect on September 26, 1795.

The Directory (1795–1799)

The new constitution created the Directories (English: Directory) and created the first bicameral legislature in French history. The parliament consisted of 500 representatives le Conseil des Cinq-Cents (the Council of the Five Hundred) and 250 senators le Conseil des Ancients (the Council of Elders). Executive power went to five "directors," named annually by the Conseil des Ancients from a list submitted by the le Conseil des Cinq-Cents. With the establishment of the Directory, the Revolution might seem closed. The nation desired rest and the healing of its many wounds. Those who wished to restore Louis XVIII and the Ancient Regime and those who would have renewed the Reign of Terror were insignificant in number. The possibility of foreign interference had vanished with the failure of the First Coalition. Nevertheless, the four years of the Directory were a time of arbitrary government and chronic disquiet. The late atrocities had made confidence or goodwill between parties impossible. The same instinct of self-preservation which had led the members of the Convention to claim so large a part in the new legislature and the whole of the Directory impelled them to keep their predominance.

As the majority of French people wanted to be rid of them, they could achieve their purpose only by extraordinary means. They habitually disregarded the terms of the constitution, and, when the elections went against them, appealed to the sword. They resolved

to prolong the war as the best expedient for prolonging their power. They were thus driven to rely upon the armies, which also desired war and were becoming less and less civic in temper. Other reasons influenced them in this direction. State finances had been so thoroughly ruined that the government could not have met its expenses without the plunder and the tribute of foreign countries. If peace were made, the armies would return home and the directors would have to face the exasperation of the rank-and-file that had lost their livelihood, as well as the ambition of generals who could, in a moment, brush them aside. Barras and Rewbell were notoriously corrupt themselves and screened corruption in others. The patronage of the directors was ill-bestowed, and the general maladministration heightened their unpopularity.

The constitutional party in the legislature desired a toleration of the nonjuring clergy, the repeal of the laws against the relatives of the emigres, and some merciful discrimination toward the emigres themselves. The directors baffled all such endeavours. On the other hand, the socialist conspiracy of Babeuf was easily quelled. Little was done to improve the finances, and the assignats continued to fall in value. The new regime met with opposition from remaining Jacobins and the royalists. The army suppressed riots and counter-revolutionary activities. In this way the army and its successful general, Napoleon Bonaparte eventually gained much power. On November 9, 1799 (18 Brumaire of the Year VIII) Bonaparte staged the coup of 18 Brumaire which installed the Consulate; this effectively led to his dictatorship and eventually (in 1804) to his proclamation as Emperor (emperor), which brought to a close the specifically republican phase of the French Revolution.

Historical Analysis

The constitutional assembly failed for many reasons: there were too many monarchists to have a republic and too many republicans to have a monarch; too many people opposed the King (especially after the flight to Varennes), which meant that the people who supported the King had their reputation slashed. Despite the fact that post-Revolutionary France had its share of Emperors and Kings, perhaps the strongest notion that emerged from the Revolution was the concept of being a citizen. The Revolution is also credited with introducing the notion of nationalism into political discourse the idea that the nation belongs to its people.

Legacy of the French Revolution

The French Revolution made a lasting and mixed impact on France and the world. The most significant innovation was ideological, making abstract rational principles the

ground for revolution and radical social change. This created instability as every new group of revolutionaries could claim it had as much right to impose its ideals as the group before. France has had about 11 constitutions since 1789. Respect for tradition, liberty and the achievements of previous generations was replaced by a "cult of change," progress and modernity. This outlook has been adopted up by revolutionaries around the world often with very destructive consequences for life, culture, social institutions and cultural artefacts. The Revolution was popular because people wanted freedom, but the result was a powerful State which was far more coercive and interfering than the old monarchy. Today the Revolution is an issue that still divides France with some defending it and others criticizing it. Around the world its interpretation is also contested as the extensive historiography shows. Conservatives such as Edmund Burke accepted that reform was necessary but regarded revolution as a mistake from which the Terror and dictatorship inevitably followed. The liberal approach to the Revolution such as that of Alexis de Tocqueville has typically been to support the achievements of the constitutional monarchy of the National Assembly but to disown the later actions of radical violence like the invasion of the Tuileries and the Terror. Socialists and Marxists such as Louis Blanc defend the revolution as an inevitable and progressive event. When China's Premier, Chou En Lai was asked in 1972 whether he thought the French Revolution had been a good or a bad thing. He mused for a few moments and then replied "It's too early to tell."

End of Absolute Monarchy:

The French Revolution dealt a death-blow to absolute monarchies all over Europe. Even though the monarchy was restored for a period in France, from that point on there was constant pressure on European monarchs to make concessions to some form of constitutional monarchy that limited their powers. The ones that did not respond were all overthrown. Professor Lynn Hunt of UCLA regarded the creation of a new democratic political culture from scratch as the Revolution's greatest achievement. At the same time she also interpreted the political Revolution as an enormous dysfunctional family haunted by patricide: Louis as father, Marie-Antoinette as mother, and the revolutionaries as an unruly mob of brothers.

Demise of the Feudal System:

The Revolution held up equality as an ideal for all the citizens of France and forcibly eliminated the traditional rights and privileges of the aristocratic class. Some revisionist historians such as Alfred Cobban have recently argued that feudalism had long since

disappeared in France; that the Revolution did not transform French society, and that it was principally a political revolution and not a social one as socialists had previously believed.

Rights:

The Revolution made a significant contribution to the theory of human rights even if there were gross violations in the first few years of the Revolution. The language of abstract rights that has come to dominate current political discourse has its roots in the French Revolution. These are not discrete clearly described rights that are circumscribed by law and custom but abstractions bestowed by the State which may undercut tradition, custom, law and traditional liberties.

Modernization:

The French Revolution originated the idea that ancient regimes should be "modernized" according to the principles of a rational state. Modernization extended to the military, the administrative system, and other aspects of French life, with effective results. The very idea of modernity can be traced to the revolution.

Administrative and judicial reforms:

These survive to this day as a positive legacy for France, having made the country's polity more rational and fair for all its citizens. The greater freedom and equality made society more meritocratic. The Civil Code remains the basis of French law and has influenced other European legal systems. Decimal and metric systems were first introduced in 1795 and have been adopted by much of the world. Freedom of religion particularly for Protestants and Jews. Wherever Napoleon's armies went, Jews were emancipated and given the opportunity to participate as equals in European society. Disestablishment of the Church Education and social welfare programs that had traditionally been provided by the Catholic Church declined dramatically with the Revolution's attack on the church. The state was unable to provide alternative provision for many decades. The revolution destroyed the "religious, cultural and moral underpinnings of the communities" in which ordinary French people lived.

Violence

The Revolution's anticlericalism led to the repudiation of Christian virtues and sentiments. The revolution injected hate into the political process. The violence that characterized the revolution was a response to the resistance it encountered. It was naive to expect the nobility to welcome the abolition of their ancient status and privileges especially

as the reforms were enforced hastily, without negotiation or compensation. This use of violence and terror has been adopted by revolutionaries around the world who regard it as legitimate and unavoidable.

War

The Revolutionary Wars and Napoleonic Wars convulsed and changed the map and future of Europe. The character of war itself was changed. France mobilized all its resources to fight the wars and other countries had to do the same to defend themselves and defeat France. This required a huge rise in taxation and expansion of the power of the state. The wars had a worldwide impact drawing in the colonies of both sides. These wars were also ideological and thus a precursor of the world wars of the next century.

Nationalism

French revolutionary principles were exported and imposed on much of Europe. It led to the rise of nationalism as one of the key principles of the revolution was that people should think of themselves as citizens and have as their highest and sole source of identity the nation state. This fostered national hatred and conflict. Germany for example was 'tidied up'. Napoleon abolished the Holy Roman Empire and reduced the 396 principalities and free cities to 40. This imposition French rationalism and culture stirred up a reaction which poisoned Europe in the following century. The counter-Enlightenment with its rejection of abstract rationalism and emphasis on romanticism and blood ties blossomed in Germany, leading to a wounded German nationalism. Bismarck completed the unification so as to prevent the French, or anyone else, trampling over and humiliating Germany again.

Revolution

Revolutionaries for the past 200 years have regarded the French Revolution as a model to be emulated. Ever since there have been revolutionary figures hanging around plotting and waiting for the opportunity to seize power. These rebellions are against the supposed violation of abstract rights rather than existing laws. The revolution was a source of inspiration to radicals all over the world who wanted to destroy the ancient regimes in their countries. Some officers of the Russian Army that occupied Paris took home with them revolutionary ideas which fermented and directly contributed to the ideological background of the Russian Revolution. Historian François Furet in his work, *Le Passe d'une illusion* (1995) (*The Passing of An Illusion* (1999) in English translation) explores in detail the

similarities between the French Revolution and the Russian Revolution of 1917 more than a century later, arguing that the former was taken as a model by Russian revolutionaries.

Secularization

The anti-clericalism and de-Christianization policies created a deep and lasting gulf in France pitting the two sides against each other. This had a social and political expression too. Socialists and trade unionists throughout continental Europe have tended to be atheists. The strict separation of church and state took traditional Christian values out of public life. Citizenship is still the only sort of identity recognized by the French State which has made it harder for France to integrate religious minorities such as Muslims who find their identity elsewhere.

The revolution was carried out in the name of democracy and has spread the message to the world that the people are, or ought to be, sovereign. The French version of democracy has had a tendency to become intolerant of dissent and totalitarian. The modern democratic terminology of left-wing and right-wing comes from the seating arrangements of two main groupings in the Constituent Assembly.