

HISTORY OF EUROPE 1789 – 1914

Unit – I

Europe on the eve of the French Revolution – French Revolution – Causes, Courses of the Revolution – Work of the National Assembly – The Reign of Terror – The Directory Rule Coalition against France, Napoleonic wars' work of Napoleon – Continental System and its Failure.

Unit – II

The Congress of Vienna, Mettermich Era – Holy Alliance, Concert of Europe – Louise XVIII Charles X of France – 1830 July Revolution and its Effects Louis Philippe 1848 – Revolution and its effects – Comparison of the 1830 and 1848 Revolutions.

Unit – III

Napoleon III of France : Domestic and Foreign Policies – Unification of Italy – Policy of Kaiser Willaim II – Unification of Germany – Bismark – Foreign policy of Bismark – garibaldi – Young Italy Cavour, Mazzini, Victor Immanuvel

Unit IV

Eastern Question : Crimean War, Berlin Congress – Greek war of Independence – First Balkan War – Second Balkan War – Young Turk Movement – Mustafa Kamal Basha – Formation of Balkan League – Pansalv Movement – Italo – Turkish War.

Unit – V

First World War : Cuseses, Courses and Results. Russian Revolution of 1917 – League of Nations.

Books for Reference:

Anderson	-	Modern Europe in World Perspective
Fisher.G.A.	-	History of Modern Europe
David Thomson	-	Europe Since Napoleon
Fisher.H.A.L.	-	History of Europe
Grant and Temporley	-	Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries
Haley.H	-	World Crisis, 1914 – 1919
Hayes and Gole	-	History of Europe since 1500
Hayes. C.I.H.		Modern Europe upto 1870
Lipson.B		Europe in the 19 th and 20 th Centuries
Philips.A		Modern Europe, 1815 – 1899
South Gate		A Text Book of Modern European History from 1789 – 1870, Vol.II.
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Introduction:

The French Revolution was a great event in the History not only of France and Europe but also of mankind. The history of the 18th century of Europe was the history of one nation, one event and one man. The nation is France, the event is French revolution and the man was Napoleon.

The French Revolution of 1789 was one the epoch-making events in the history of the world. The storm was simmering for a pretty long time. The revolution produced far-reaching results in the political, social and economic spheres. It put an end to the royal absolutism based on Divine Right theory, swept away the last vestiges of medievalism and accelerated the tempo of nationalism. It let loss the three ideas of 'Liberty', 'Equality' and 'Fraternity'. It led to the despotism of Napoleon Bonaparte. The effect of the Revolution was felt not only in France but spread far and wide.

Causes of the Revolution:

The despotic nature of the French monarchy

The Bourbon monarchs were despots. They believed in the "Divine Right Theory of Kingship" by which they considered themselves as representatives of God on earth and as such they were answerable to God and God alone and not to the people. The costly wars of Louis XIV led to the financial depression which stopped only after the Revolution. The successors of Louis XIV were thoroughly incompetent. Louis XV (1715-1774) led a life of ease and pleasure. He squandered away the public money for private pleasures. The prophetic words of Louis XV-"After me the deluge came true". Louis XVI (1774-1792) who succeeded Louis XV was anxious to set matters right. But he became a nerveless tool in the hands of his advisers, particularly his beautiful Queen Marie Antoinette. Louis XV and Louis XVI danced to the tune of their wives. Their beauty and charm

brought no help to save France from the deluge. On the contrary, they directed the ship of the state straight to the rocks.

Social Cause:

The most important cause of the French Revolution was the social cause. The revolution of 1789 was much less a rebellion against despotism than a rebellion against inequality. The French society was divided into the privileged and unprivileged. The first group consisted of Nobles and Clergies. They were only (5%) five percent of the total population they owned 90% of the total wealth of the nations. They led a worldly life. They were exempted from the taxpaying. The Nobles were addressed as 'My Lord'. The men in the street were peasants and they starved. They craved for the Church. The Roman Catholic Church in France was a 'state with in a state'. It was an intolerable despotism. The clergies occupied a privileged position. They competed with worldly man. The clergymen had possessed waste wealth and palaces. They were exempted from taxpaying; the highest ranks of the Church were often filled by Nobles who had no interest in religious affairs. Enjoying huge income, the church dignitaries paid subordinates to perform their duties.

Condition of the Common People:

The condition of the lower classes was miserable. The entire tax burden fell on them. They were ill-treated in many ways. The saying at the time was, 'the nobles fight, the clergy pray, and the people pay'. It was the Third Estate which contributed to the bulk of the revenue in France. The taille or land tax was entirely borne by the peasants. The gabelle or salt tax was entirely borne by the peasants. The gabelle or salt tax hit hard the lower classes.

This was the most regressive of all the taxes. The price of the salt was about ten times of its real value. Nobody was allowed to use sea water to cook.

The Contribution of French Philosophers

Literature was a passionate champion of reform and through it a flood of new ideas swept over France. Another cause was the French intellectual giants. Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, Quesnay and many others stirred the intellectual world to its depths.

Montesquieu (1689-1755)

Since he was a lawyer he got an opportunity to review the work of the constitution of various countries. This champion's great work 'Spirit of Laws' had an immediate and immense success. It was a product of a long period labour. He was also dead against the severity of criminal laws and religious intolerance. He had neither the views nor the attitude of a revolutionary. He emphasized the necessity in any well regulated state of separating carefully the three powers of the government the legislative, the executive and the judicial. His view was that liberty was highly impossible without the separation of powers. His book was a study of political philosophy and analysis of various forms of government and their merits and demerits. He initiated a philosophic movement and unmasked the batteries of criticism and satire which were to strike at the foundations of the Ancient Regime in France.

Voltaire:

Voltaire was the most conspicuous and perhaps the most brilliant during the intellectual circle of 1694-1778. In his works, he criticized the institutions of his time in uncertain terms. He made slashing attacks on the

church and other pillars of the old Regime. He was a warrior all his life. By his intellectual activity, he had amassed a large fortune which had become one of the powers of Europe. His ideal of government was a benevolent despotism. But he denounced the abuses and iniquities of the laws and the judicial system of arbitrary punishment of torture. He could not tolerate tyranny of any form. He was always ready to take up the cause of the oppressed. According to Voltaire, the church was the enemy of freedom of thought, the persecutor of innocent man who differed from it, as the supporter of all kinds of narrow and bigoted prejudices. He headed the Roman Catholic Church and he constantly attacked it. He opined that "instead of ruling by 100 rats, let it be ruled by a lion".

Rousseau (1712 - 1778)

Another giant of the age was Rousseau, who was very different in tone and tendency. He was in favour of total re-organization of society because nothing less would render possible liberty. The political influence of Rousseau was incalculable not only in France but all over Europe. For him study of knowledge and cultivation degraded man. All accepted forms of political organizations were tyranny and abuses. The political influence of his "Social Contract" published in 1762, was considered as the **Bible of French Revolution**. His principal theory Stated in a nutshell was that man was essentially good, but corrupted by civilization, "born free but everywhere in chains".

Rousseau repudiated the representative form of government and demanded to the people that they should make the laws directly. Rousseau's statement made no provision safeguarding any rights of minority which the majority might wish to infringe.

His greatest contribution to political philosophy was the Doctrine of Popular Sovereignty. He propounded the idea of the sovereignty of the

people. As sovereign rested with the people, no government or king could snatch that from them. According him, the surroundings of society destroyed the natural simplicity of man, spoiled virtues and were responsible for his sufferings and sins. Thus his book lit the fire of revolution.

Other thinkers

Besides these three giants there were other writers who were responsible for revolution. They considerably influenced the thoughts of the people. Devisé Diderot unsparingly condemned the state affairs of the state. He had an indomitable perseverance and thereby he improved the conditions of mankind. He prepared the text of Encyclopedia, whose object was to express skeptical, rationalist attitude of the French philosophers on various matters. Helvetius, Holbach, Quesnay D-Alembert and Turgot did wonderful services to the people. Thus the thinkers and talkers alike were full of illusions, full of curiosity and full of unselfishness, full of hope during the revolution era.

The Administration System:

The Government of France was a naked despotism. The King combined in his person legislative, executive and judicial powers. The court was corrupt beyond measure. Since 1614 the State's General had not been convened. It practically became dead. The real administration of the country was in the hands of the Royal Council. The administrative system presented a confused and complicated picture. Overlapping of functions, confusion in laws and courts, prevalence of injustice and other abuses rendered the administrative machinery corrupt and inefficient. There was no personal liberty. Anyone could be thrown into prison by a letter de cachet or *sealed warrant* without proper trial by jury.

Another cause of the revolution was the rotten administrative system. Despite the king was the Head of the State, their mistresses interfered in the political affairs. The administrative system of the country was hopelessly unsatisfactory. It passed ill-defined and overlapping jurisdiction.

Legal System:

Since the country was full of confusion, there were no uniform laws. In one place there was German law and in another part there was Roman. It is estimated that there were more than 400 different systems of law in the country. Torture was a common feature. There was confusion not only in the field of law but also in the field of courts. There were royal courts military courts, church court and a court of finance. The officers of the courts were bought and sold. So the common people were imposed heavy fines. These fines filled the pockets of the high handed.

Influence of the American war and Irish experience:

France helped the American colonies in their revolt against Britain to attain independence. The independence which the American colonists secured with French help greatly influenced the French Revolution. The Irish wrested a number of concessions from Britain in their struggle for 'Home Rule'. Such examples were still green in the minds of the French.

Financial Cause

Under Louis XVI the financial situation of France became more and more serious until it could be no longer ignored. She staggered under the burden of a huge national debt which was due to criminal extravagance of court and had the audacity to take part in wars. The financial condition of the country was deplorable when the great Monarch Louis XIV died. Although he advised Louis XV to improve the finance and desist from wars,

the latter didn't care for the advice and France was on the verge of bankruptcy when Louis XVI ascended to the throne.

The nobility and the clergymen owned about 40% of the total wealth of the country but the burden of taxation fell on the unprivileged class. The nation's debt had increased tremendously and it had reached the figure of 4,467,478,000 lyres. It was practically impossible to reduce heavy items of national expenditure without undermining public credit and national security. The treasury became empty because, a large debt was inherited from the past, an obstinate annual deficit and embittered public unwillingness of additional taxation.

In 1774, Louis XVI appointed Turgot as the controller of finance. His programme was "No bankruptcy, No increase of taxation and No more borrowing". He hoped to extricate the national finances by two processes, by effecting economies and by developing public wealth, so that the receipts would be larger. Turgot was able to give many millions by suppressing useless expenditures; but in doing so he offered all who profited from them. Consequently they brought great pressure upon the king to dismiss the obnoxious minister.

Necker in 1776 succeeded Turgot. He took a bold step by publishing a finance report showing the income and expenditures of the state. The court was indignant that such high mysteries should not be revealed to the masses, thus the king weakly yielded once more to pressure and was finally dismissed.

Necker was succeeded by Clone. As he was an agreeable person, his purpose was to please all. He followed a wonderful philosophy of borrowing. "A Man who wishes to borrow must appear to be rich and to appear rich, he must dazzle spending freely. Money flowed like water and he borrowed nearly 300,000,000 lyres. In 1786 its treasury became empty and there was no one willing to grant loan to the state. Finally he proposed a

general tax which was to be paid both by the privileged and the unprivileged. Therefore, he had to meet the same opposition as that of Turgot and Necker and he resigned. Once again Necker was appointed as Finance Minister. .

In 1787 the King summoned the Assembly of Nobles with the view of tackling the financial problem and to get the consent to the taxation of privileged class. But the nobles were not prepared to oblige the king and the king tried new loans. The parliament refused to grant new loans and contended that further subsidies could be constitutionally granted only by the Estates General. The situation was tense and the crowds demanded convocation of the Estates General. Thus a new chapter of incalculable possibilities opened in the history of France and it was under the circumstances that the king forced to summon the States General after a lapse of 175 years.

In 1789, election began to take place for a meeting of the Estates General. The Estates General consisted of three Estates. It was a three chambered body and the first two chambers consisted of nobles and clergymen and the third one consisted of middle class artisans and peasants. The three Estates met separately and each of them had a number of delegates. But in 1789, the third Estate consisted of many members than that of nobles and clergies and in fact, it emphasized the important role to be played by the Estate.

Immediate Cause:

France was on the verge of financial bankruptcy on the eve of the revolution. The treasury became empty due to the Spanish Succession War, the Austrian Succession War, the Seven Years' War and the American War of Independence. Public debts mounted up, Louis XVI was under the evil influence of his wife, Marie Antoinette. Louis XVI started his reign well,

but broke down afterwards. To lessen the tax burden of the people, the ministers Turgot (1774-1776) and Necker (1776-1781) put forward a bold proposal to tax the nobles and the clergies. As it was strongly opposed by them, the King not only yielded but dismissed the ministers. In 1787 Louis XVI convened the Assembly of Nobles to find ways and means of taxing the privileged classes. The Assembly was not able to do anything concrete in the matter. On the advice of the Assembly, he was forced to summon the long-forgotten States General in 1789. The Revolution began with the summoning of the States General.

Course of the Revolution:

National Assembly (1789)

The States General which was not convened since 1614, met in 1789. It consisted of three Estates. The First Estate was represented by the nobility, the second by the clergy and the third by the commons. Immediately after the meeting of the States General, a dispute arose among the three orders as to the method of voting. The old practice was for each order to sit separately and each was given one vote. The nobles and clergy always joined together and outvoted the commons. In the newly assembled States General, the Third Estate formed the majority. So they insisted on joint sitting and demanded to introduce the principle of "One man one vote". Thus a dead lock ensued. On June 17, 1789, it declared itself as the National Assembly. The King got alarmed and so the representatives were kept out of the hall. But they met in the adjoining Tennis Court and solemnly resolved not to separate until a new constitution was framed for France.

On June 23, 1789, a special session of the States General was held. The King ordered that the three should sit separately. The nobles and clergy retired to their respective chambers. But the commons under the leadership

of Mirabeau flew into a fury. When they were asked to vacate the hall, Mirabeau thundered to the Master of the Ceremonies thus: “Go and tell your Master that we are here by the will of the people and that we shall not leave except at the point of bayonet”. Louis XVI submitted to the will of the people. On June 27, 1789, Louis XVI ordered the three Estates to sit as one body. Thus the National Assembly in its true sense of the term came into existence.

Storming of the Bastille (1789)

Some unhappy events developed which marred the hitherto peaceful attempts at reform. The Paris mob became restive. The Bastille, the French prison, was stormed by an infuriated mob. It pulled down the walls, murdered the guards and freed the prisoners. The storming of the Bastille was a signal to similar actions of violence throughout the country. Riots began against the aristocrats. A crowd of women marched from Paris to Versailles, entered the palace and brought out the King, Queen and their children. They were asked to accompany the crowd to Paris. As the procession moved on, the mob shouted every now and then: “We have the baker and the baker’s wife and the little cook boy-now we shall have bread”.

The Constituent Assembly (1789-1791)

While the fury of the Paris mob was going on, the National Assembly committed itself to the task of introducing reforms. The privileges enjoyed by the nobles and clergies were abolished. The Game laws were cancelled, manorial courts were done away with and serfdom was abolished. The clergymen gave up the tithes. After the abolition of class privileges, the National Assembly styled itself as the “Constituent Assembly” and drew up the ‘Declaration of the Rights of Man’. The assembly introduced other

reforms. It provided for a limited monarchy for France. The titles of the nobles were abolished. The church property was confiscated. It set up a uniform system of administration. In the meantime, a number of nobles fled from the country, collected an army, and made an unsuccessful bid to regain their lost power. The King finding his position intolerable in Paris attempted to escape but was detected and was forced to sign the new constitution.

The Legislative Assembly (1791-1792).

The constituent assembly dissolved itself and the legislative assembly under the new constitution met in 1791. Difference of opinion soon arose between the King and the Legislative Assembly. Many Kings of Europe sympathized with the pitiable position of Louis XVI and promised to help him. Foreign interference in the affairs of France set the revolution on its bloody course. Louis XVI was forced to declare war on Austria and Prussia. The Revolutionary army was defeated. The humiliated revolutionary leaders turned their wrath against the King. At this time of crisis, the mob led by Danton killed the Swiss Guard and compelled the Assembly to depose the King. This was followed by the “September Massacres”. The Revolutionary Commune of Paris led by Danton massacred 1500 persons who were suspected to be royalists in one week in September. After the ‘September massacres’ the French army marched against the invaders and defeated Austria and Prussia at Valmy.

The National Convention (1792-1795):

The Legislative Assembly came to an end in 1792 and in the same year the National convention took its place. It abolished monarchy and proclaimed France a Republic. Louis XVI was accused of treason against the country and was executed in 1793. On the question of the execution of the King, the convention was sharply divided. The moderate section

represented by the Girondists opined that it should be referred to the people. This made the Jacobians, who dominated the convention, furious. They rounded up the Girondists and sent them to the guillotine. The Jacobians set up the Revolutionary Tribunal to deal with the moderates. Thus the Jacobians started the 'Region of Terror' and sent hundreds of people who held moderate views to the guillotine.

The convention extended its support to all the people in Europe for spreading revolutionary ideas. This led to the formation of the First dangerous coalition against France in 1793. Britain, Austria, Prussia, Russia, Holland and Sardinia were the leading members of the coalition. External threat was added to the civil war that was going on in the country. The Jacobians suspended the constitution. They created the Committee of Public Safety with full powers to deal with the situations. It put down all revolts staged by the royalists within the country. It sent to the guillotine thousands of men and women who were suspected to be royalists or supporters of the invaders. Marie Antoinette fell a victim to the Committee. In the meantime, the members of the coalition started attacking France. The convention turned its attention to war. Napoleon Bonaparte, then an army officer, was sent to recapture Toulon which he did. Soon the enemies were driven out and peace was concluded.

Robespierre was the leader of the Committee of Public Safety. In spite of the fact that conditions had become normal, he wanted to continue his autocratic rule. He virtually became the dictator of France. His opponents in the Government were sent to the guillotine under the pretext that they were royalists. But soon the tables were turned. The rivals of Robespierre sent him to the guillotine in 1794. With the fall of Robespierre, the 'Reign of Terror' came to an end. A new constitution was drawn up. It

placed executive power in the hands of a Directory and legislative power in two councils—the Council of Five Hundred and the Council of Ancients. In order to avoid a Royalist majority in the councils, it was laid down that two-thirds of the members should be elected from the Convention. The Constitution was accepted by the people of France through a referendum. But the Parisian mob opposed the “Law of two-thirds” and marched against the Convention. The Convention sent Napoleon Bonaparte to disperse the mob which he did by sending a ‘whiff of grape-shot’. The Convention came to an end in 1795 and the Directory took charge of the Government of France.

Tennis Court Oath (Course of the Revolution)

Usually the two Estates could veto anything that the Third Estate wanted, by vote of two to one. So they could prevent all reforms which in any way affected them. The Estates General had their sittings separately. The members of the Third Estate maintained that the Estates General of 1789 was not a feudal assembly but represented the people of France. They demanded that all three Estates should sit together and there should be voting not by order, but by 'head'. A deadlock arose when the Clergymen and nobles were opposed to this demand and the Third Estate declared itself the National Assembly. When they went to their usual meeting their entrance was blocked by soldiers for a moment, the members were dismayed and utterly distracted. Then by a common impulse they rushed to a neighboring building in a side street which served, as a tennis court. There they took the famous Tennis Court Oath, 'Never to separate and to reassemble whenever circumstances required until the constitution of the kingdom be established'. Now the lower Clergy also joined with the third Estate.

The Fall of the Bastille

On 23rd June occurred the royal session which the privileged classes counted. The king pronounced the recent acts of the Third Estate as illegal and unconstitutional and declared that the three Estates should meet separately, Courte Mirabeau the first of the revolutionary leader to form a policy, reported by saying that the "deputies would give only at the point of bayonet". Later a majority of the clergy and minority of the nobility went over to the assembly. The king commanded the nobility and clergy to sit with the Third Estate in a single body. Thus the National Assembly was now completed. Thus the National Assembly had triumphed in the long initial battle, The National Assembly was accomplished by this fusion of three estates, adopted the title constituent Assembly.

However, the king was still determined to crush the Assembly and regain his lost control. Considerable bodies of soldiers began to appear near Versailles and Paris. On July 11th, Necker was dismissed and ordered to leave the country immediately. The privileged order was also reluctant to unite with the third estate to be formed as a single body. It was feared that the king was determined to use force to suppress the National Assembly. In this juncture, Paris mob reached the Bastille, a fortress, a prison and a symbol of arbitrary government. After a confused and bloody battle, the fortress was at their hands. The crowd savagely murdered several of Swiss Guards and prisoners were set free and the fall of the Bastille was considered to be the triumph of liberty in the country.

On October 5th, several thousands of women started to march to Versailles the crowd reached the gates, killed several of the guards and invaded the palace. A procession began in which the king, queen and their child were forced to come and the crowd shouted, "we have brought the baker, the baker's wife and the baker's little boy". The peasants attacked

their lord's houses and burned them. Power was captured by commune and a National Guard was set up. Necker was reappointed and the king began to live in Paris and a new flag was hoisted. In this atmosphere, the National Constituent Assembly performed its work from 1789-1791.

Work of the National Assembly

By far the most significant work of the Constituent Assembly was to sound the death-knell of feudalism, existing remnants of Serfdom and class privilege. The ancient regime had crumbled into pieces without the hope of redemption. On 26th August “Declaration of Rights of Man and of the Citizen” was adopted after a lengthy debate in the Assembly. It incorporated some of the provisions of Magna Carta and it contained moderate principles and a dignified repudiation of the old order. Liberty, equality and fraternity were declared to be the natural rights. Freedom from oppression was to be secured by the abolition of military arrest. Civil equality was guaranteed and the people had the right to control the finance of the state. Church property was confiscated and it became state property without any compensation. The problem of finance was also tackled. It issued paper money notes known as Assignors. All officers of the church were to be paid by the state. The Catholic Church was made a department of the state. It introduced a new uniform system of administration by which the country was divided into 83 departments of uniform size and population. A high national court was established to enquire political offenders accused by the assembly. The trial by jury was introduced in the criminal cases. A uniform system of law was introduced with an intention of unifying and simplifying different types of law. The new constitution was completed and it was the first written constitution of France.

The Constituent Assembly proclaimed a new gospel, created a civil and social revolution, set up a new political structure, secured the unity of France and fully established the will of the people a new criterion of public policy. The Assembly abolished the inequalities and injustices of the ancient regime. It destroyed feudalism and absolutism was done away with. In this juncture, the king was about to run away from Paris, but he was prevented and forced him to sign the new constitution. The new constitution demanded that France should be under the king assembly was to be single chambered, and it should be renewed by election once in two years.

The Legislative Assembly:

Elections were held under the constitution framed by the National Assembly in 1791 and the Legislative Assembly met on the first of October. The Assembly consisted of 745 members and all of them were quite new to their job because national assembly declared that the members of the national assembly should not contest in the elections. At that time certain political clubs came into existence and the most important were the Jacobean club, Grandilier club and the Cordelier club, Jacobean club was moderate at the outset but it grew more and more radical with the passage of time, for which Robespierre came to the front. The Cordelier club was led by Danton. The Jacobian club became a rival of the Legislative Assembly. The moderates were called the Girondists who had a majority in the Legislative Assembly but the influence of Jacobean was growing every day. Differences broke out when the law demanded about confiscation of the properties of the **Emigress** and the clergy, whoever did not take any declaration for the new constitution would be removed and punished. The king was not in favour of these changes.

The Revolutionaries of France were not contented with the spread of their ideas only in their own country. They determined to propagate their ideas in the other countries of Europe. The Emigrants - The Frenchmen who had left their country carried propaganda against France and there was every possibility of their attack on France with foreign help. The new Republic was threatened by foreign invasions especially from Austria and Prussia by its declaration of Pillnitz. Finally war was declared on April 1792 but they were defeated for which the French king was dubbed as the cause of French defeats. It led to the despotic rule of Danton. The king was suspended and the elections were ordered for a National convention to frame a new constitution. French army joined with peoples' army. Though the king was suspended the French commander **Prince Louis** declared to enthrone once again the Bourbon monarch. But as a protest against this, revolt began under Danton. In 1792, there occurred September Massacre in which the king's favourites were killed by Danton and Jacobins. Prussian and Austrian armies were defeated by Danton at Valmy by which France was saved.

The National Convention:

A government had to be established; social reform had to be completely consolidated. It accomplished all these tasks successfully. The deposed king was for trial and was found unanimously guilty of treason. His immediate death was upon while the Girondins pleaded for leniency; the Jacobins demanded his immediate execution. Finally the king was guillotined on January 21, 1793.

The national convention did a wonderful job. As regards foreign policy a compulsory levy of half a million was ordered. The militarism of France was based on the principle of the nation in arms. It cleared foreign troops regarding the internal policy and had to face a difficult situation. The

provisional government consisted of the committee of public safety and the committee of general security. The committee of public safety soon became practically omnipotent and it included the important personalities like Robespierre Carnot and St. Just from 1793-1794 there was a reign of terror.

Revolutionary Tribunal:

It was created at Danton's suggestion and was an extraordinary criminal court and its sentences were always sentences of death. Guillotines were erected in two of the public squares and each day they saw its executions. The Girondists were conspicuous victims. In Paris alone more than 5000 persons were executed and it included Mary Antoinette and Madame Rolland. The reign of terror ended with the disposal of Danton, St. Just and Robespierre.

Achievements

The National convention preached the gospel of nationalism to the people. It provided that French was to be the only language for purposes of national instructions throughout the country. The national laws of the country were codified. The law of primogeniture was followed. Religious reforms included showing hostility towards the traditional form of Christianity. Religion was made a private affair and so religious territoriality was given to all. It also made changes in the calendar. The properties of Emigrants were confiscated. The Revolutionary Tribunal was suppressed. A school of Oriental Languages, school of public works, Museum, National conservation of Arts and Industries were set up.

The Directory 1795-99

The constitution of 1795 framed by the National Convention vested the executive authority in France in a committee of five Directors known as the Directory. Napoleon was included as one of the five directors;

Legislative power was entrusted under the control of two councils-the council of 500 and the council of Ancients. Just to avoid a Royalist majority in the councils, it was laid down that two third of the members should be elected from the convention. Through a referendum, it was also accepted. But the Parsian mob opposed the law of 2/3 and also weak directory. A young general Napoleon was called for helping the convention. He controlled the mob by throwing a whiff of grape shot. The convention came to an end and the Directory took charge, very soon Napoleon overthrew the Directory and became the consul of France. Thus the ideals of the revolution were over shadowed and finally destroyed by a military dictatorship.

Results of the French Revolution

The French Revolution stood for principles like Liberty, Equality and Fraternity. It spread and dominated the European politics. It emphasized that government should be not only for the people but also by the people. It declared that the sovereignty resided with the people and law was the expression of the general will. Serfdom and feudal restrictions were given up and all men were equal before law. The freedom of press was established and the right of the individual to education was maintained and women should enjoy equal rights along with men. Liberty became a universal creed. Steps were taken to enjoy both personal liberty and political liberty. The principle of nationality spread all over Europe which created a new stir in the minds of the Europeans. The idea of French nation was substituted for that of French kingdom. It gave a stimulus to humanitarianism. It further helped the revival of romanticism by the assertion of individualism. The influence of the Roman Catholic Church was strengthened. It made France stronger and prosperous. Socialism ceased to be a speculative doctrine and became a political programme and it was universally recognized. It gave a death blow to the Bourbon dynasty of France. The autocratic role of the

kings had come to an end and the ancient regime was washed away. It also left a legacy on the principle of communism. Thus it influenced not only the people of France but also throughout the world. According to Gooch, "Nationalism is a child of the French Revolution". The idea of mass army involving military service as a civil obligation was another legacy of the revolution. It was a signal triumph for nationalism. Uniformity of institutions for France was achieved. The declaration of rights of man was appealed to the youth of Britain. It also stimulated ardour for parliamentary reform. Anyhow it heralded a new era in the history of Europe and it altered the whole situation.

1. The Revolution let loose the three ideas of Liberty, Equality and Fraternity.
2. The last traces of medievalism in Europe swept away and Monarchy was abolished in France, Italy and Germany.
3. It set up the principle of Nationalism. It was the neglect of this principle that ultimately led to the downfall of Napoleon
4. The Revolution laid down the principle that sovereignty or supreme power of the state rests with the people.
5. The Revolution was no doubt terribly violent and caused the death of many innocent people. But it did quickly some good things for the French People. It sounded the death knell of feudalism. It got rid of the many unfair advantages of the nobles and the clergy. The same laws were laid down for the rich and the poor alike. The people were more justly taxed instead of the poor paying more and the rich nothing. The great estates of the nobles were split up and sold cheaply to the middle and lower classes.
6. It paved the way for the various humanitarian movements of the 19th Century. The spread of the ideas of Liberty and Democracy made the

people understand the injustice of slave trade, sweated labour, ill-treatment of prisoners, prosecution of the Jews, religious intolerance, mass illiteracy etc, and steps were taken to remove these evils by social reforms.

7. It led to a remarkable rebirth in literature. The creative talents of the people in art, literature, science and music were closely talents of the people in art, literature; science and music were closely connected with the French Revolution and breathed an air of liberty.
8. It closed the age of the Enlightened despots and ushered the Age of the People.
9. The Revolution greatly influenced the freedom-fighters in the Latin American Countries.

NAPOLEON

Rousseau wrote thus in 1762 “I have some presentiment that this small island (Corsica) will one day astonish Europe” His prophetic words came true. Napoleon was a prodigy. In the military school at Brienna one of his masters said “This youngster is made of granite, but there is a volcano inside”.

Napoleon was the greatest General the world has produced. He dominated his age even after his death. He had occupied way important place in the history of the world. He was a man of enormous energy, self-confidence, fearlessness, resourcefulness. He was a fatalist in the sense that had believed from his very childhood that some hidden-power was guiding him to victory and glory.

Napoleon was born on 15th August 1769 in Corsica. Within a short span of time the island was sold to France. He got his military training and joined the army at the age of 17. He was hardly 20 when the French Revolution broke out. By dint of his ability in the battle of Toulon he won the victory so he was promoted to the rank of Brigadier General. He was given the command of the interior. He married Josephine on 9th March 1796.

Coalition: After the formation of First Coalition Napoleon was appointed to the command of the army in Italy. The campaign of Italy lasted from April 1796 to 1797. It has been summarized in these words.

He came, He saw, He conquered; He defeated Austrian forces and the Sardinians. The Government of Sardinia sued for peace and agreed to hand over Savoy and Nice to France. Napoleon described his achievements in these words to his soldiery. “In 15 days you have won six victories taken 21 stands of colours and 55 pieces of cannon and several fortresses and

conquered the richest part of piedmont, you have killed 15000 men but for soldiers you have done nothing since there remains something for you to do, you have still Battles to fight, towns to take and rivers to cross.”

Austrian Campaign

After his victory in Italy, he directed his attention towards the Austrians. He crossed the Po River but there was heavy fight at Loodi Bridge, which is across the Adda River. It was 350 feet long. After heavy fighting they crossed the river and defeated. Napoleon described none has equalled the tremendous passage of the Bridge of Loodi. Napoleon came to be called by his soldiers the “Little Corporal”.

At the battle of Arcola he defeated the Australian forces. So Austria sued for peace. Peace of Campo Formio was signed on 17th October 1797.

By this treaty:

1. Austria recognized the French annexation of the Belgium, Venitia was at the mercy of France.
2. France also got the right to set up a Republic called Cisalpine in Northern Italy.
3. As compensation for her losses Austria was allowed to annex a part of Venitia.
4. Republic of Geno was changed into the Ligurian Republic.
5. The galleries were destroyed; whatever was considered to be valuable was taken away to France.

The Italian campaign gave a death blow to the first coalition. With the withdrawal of Sardinia and Austria, Britain was left alone to carry on the struggle against the French Directory.

Breakup of the First Coalition

The French forces overran Holland in 1794-95. It was converted into the Batavian Republic allied with France. Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) fell into the hands of France. By the treaty of Basel, 1795, Prussia ceded her territories on the left bank of the Rhine. Spain concluded peace with France by the treaty of Basel in 1795 and by another treaty in 1796 she became an ally of France. The leading members of the Coalition- Britain, Austria and Sardinia were still at war with France. While the war was going against the Coalition, the Directory took charge of the administration of France in 1795.

Napoleon's First Italian Campaign (1796-1797)

At the age of 27, Napoleon was made the commander of the French army in Italy. It was in the Italian campaign that Napoleon laid the foundation of his imperishable military fame. He defeated the King of Sardinia and got Nice and Savoy. He then defeated the Austrians in a number of battles in Italy and forced Austria to sign the treaty of Campo Formio in 1797. According to the terms of the treaty, France got Austria and Netherlands (Belgium) and the Ionian Islands. France also got the right to set up a Republic called Cisalpine in northern Italy. As compensation for her losses, Austria was allowed to annex that part of Venetia which lay east of the Adige. The Italian campaign gave a death to the First Coalition. With the withdrawal of Sardinia and Austria, Britain alone was left out to carry on the struggle against the Directory.

Egyptian Campaigns

Egypt was the next target of attack of the Director; But Napoleon had the "**Great Eastern Design**" of capturing Constantinople and then the Empire of Britain in India. With that end in view, he set sail to Egypt in 1798. On the way, he pocketed Malta. He entered Egypt which he easily

conquered from the Turks after defeating them in the “**Battle of Pyramids**” in 1798. But Napoleon tasted a naval defeat at the hands of Admiral Nelson of England in the Battle of the Nile in 1798.

Second coalition, French Reverses, return of Bonaparte

In the meantime, England formed the Second Coalition against France in 1798. The leading members of the Coalition were England, Russia, Austria, Naples and Turkey. In 1798 France conquered Switzerland and constituted the “**Helvetic Republic**” to rule over Switzerland. In the same year, Rome was attacked, the Pope was removed, and the Roman Republic was set up.

In 1799 Naples was conquered. The combined armies of Austria and Russia drove the French out of Italy. The Directory was not able to deal with the situation. The French prestige was at its lowest ebb. The people were dissatisfied. To set matters right, Napoleon hurried back to France in 1799. He was given a rousing reception by the people, because they had great confidence in him.

Overthrow of Directory, Establishment of Consulate

The Directory had become unpopular. Napoleon overthrew the Directory and established the Consulate in 1799. It consisted of three Consuls, Napoleon being the Chief or First Consul. Immediately after setting up the Consulate, he turned his attention to the threat posed by the **Second Coalition**.

He won over the Tzar to his side. He then invaded Italy for a second time. He crushed an Austrian army at Marengo in 1800 and in the same year another Austrian army was crushed by one of his generals at Hohenlinden. Austria sued for peace and the war came to an end by the **treaty of**

Luneville in 1801. The treaty reaffirmed the provisions of Campo Formio. Naples also concluded peace with France. The Second Coalition virtually came to an end in 1801. Britain alone stood against France.

Treaty of Amiens

Napoleon wanted breathing space and was anxious to make peace. Britain too got tired of the war. So the peace of Amiens was concluded in 1802. By the terms of the treaty, England promised to restore all her conquests from France and her allies except Ceylon and Trinidad. France, in her turn, promised to evacuate Naples and the Papal States. The treaty left France very powerful in Western Europe and England on the sea.

Napoleon becomes Emperor 1804

In 1802 Napoleon became Consul for life. In 1804 the subservient Senate proposed to make Napoleon, Emperor. Napoleon said:” **I found the Crown of France lying on the ground and; I picked it with my sword**”. The coronation ceremony was graced by Pope Pius VII. In 1804 Napoleon himself placed the crown on his head and became Napoleon I, Emperor of the French. All the republics set up by him were transformed, into kingdoms.

Campaigns against the Third Coalition

The peace of Amiens was only a truce. It was only a question of time when fresh hostilities should break out. In 1805 Britain, Austria, Russia and Sweden formed the Third Coalition against France. Napoleon made an Austrian army surrender at Ulm in 1805. Admiral Nelson inflicted a crushing naval defeat on the combined French and Spanish fleets off Trafalgar in 1805. Though Nelson died in the battle, the naval supremacy of Britain remained paramount. Napoleon made good the loss by routing Russian and Austrian forces at Austerlitz in 1805. On receipt of the

disastrous news of Austerlitz Pitt the Younger, the Prime Minister of Britain, exclaimed thus: **“Roll up the map of Europe; it will not be wanted for a period of ten years”**. By the treaty of Pressburg 1805, between Austria and Napoleon, 1) Austria ceded Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy. 2) In recognition of the services rendered by the Dukes of Bavaria and Wurttemberg, the Duchies were raised to the status of kingdoms. 3) He made his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, King of Naples, and Louis Napoleon, another brother, the King of Holland. 4) He abolished the Holy Roman Empire in 1806 and constituted it into the Confederation of the Rhine.

Trafalgar:

Napoleon planned to attack England; Hanover was captured as his initial attempt French fleets which were supported by Spanish fleet met the English at Trafalgar on 21, October, 1805. In this battle more than half of the combined French and Spanish fleet of 33 ships was destroyed. Anyhow the biggest loss of England was the death of Nelson.

Causes for the Failure of Continental System:

The application of the continental system was highly impossible. His Empire was very wide and also the lack of a strong navy made it impossible for him to stop the English Ships.

- 1) Despite Napoleon got so many victories he could not defeat England. So Napoleon adopted the policy known as the Continuator System or Oriental Blockade to conquer England indirectly by cutting of England's resources. In other words he planned an economic starvation.
- 2) All the European Nations depended upon England for essential goods. No wonder the people of Europe were not ready to obey the order of Napoleon

Continental System

It was at such a time when Napoleon's power was at its height that he wanted to strike and starve Britain contemptuously branded by him as the “Nation of Shop-keepers”. He wanted to realize this by the famous Continental System. In 1806, he defeated Prussia in the battles of Jena and Austerlitz and made a victorious entry into Berlin. He inaugurated his Continental System by issuing a decree from Berlin in 1806. The decree ordered the closing of the ports on the continent to British ships and debarred his allies from trading with England. The Continental System was further strengthened by the decrees of Warsaw (1807), Milan (1807) and Fontainebleau (1810). To bring Russia under the scheme, he marched with an army and defeated her in the battles of Eylau and Friedland in 1807. Russia and Prussia concluded the treaty of Tilsit in 1807. While the former agreed to come under the Continental System, the penalty which the latter had to pay was heavy. From the territories acquired from Prussia, Napoleon constituted the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and from the other acquisitions west of the Elbe, he created the new kingdom of Westphalia. His brother Jerome was made the King of Westphalia. The treaty of Tilsit brought an end to the Third Coalition leaving Britain alone in the field. When the Pope refused to come under the Continental scheme, Napoleon annexed the Papal States in 1809.

Britain restored the Continental System by issuing Orders-in-Council in 1807. According to these orders, Britain threatened all the vessels trading with France to be captured. Even neutral vessels carrying goods to France were diverted to the ports of Britain. The Continental System was proved harmful and disastrous to the people of Europe. It was impossible for them to do without British goods. It impoverished all countries which came under the scheme. Even France was forced to buy cloth and leather for the soldiers

from England. As France was not self-sufficient in the production of essential commodities like sugar, coffee, tobacco and cotton, their prices shot up. The scheme was doomed to failure because Britain was very powerful on the sea and she could send goods to any country. Portugal disobeyed the decrees. Russia openly defied the Continental System. It led Napoleon into wars with Portugal, Spain and Russia and that ultimately brought about the destruction of his army.

Peninsular War (1808-1814)

As Portugal disobeyed the decrees, Napoleon conquered and occupied Portugal. He forced the King of Spain to abdicate and placed his brother, Joseph Bonaparte on the throne. The rise of national feeling made Portugal and Spain in the Iberian Peninsula revolt against Napoleon. Taking advantage of these opportunities Britain sent Arthur Wellesley to the Peninsula. He defeated the French army in Portugal and the French evacuated Portugal. Napoleon's attempt to recapture Portugal failed. Arthur Wellesley entered Spain and defeated the French in the battles of Talavera (1809), Salamanca (1812) and Vittoria (1813). The French forces were driven out of the Iberian Peninsula.

Austrian Revolt (1809)

The reverses of France in the Iberian Peninsula roused Austria into action. She rose into open revolt. Napoleon defeated Austria in the battle of Wagram in 1809. He married Marie Louise, the daughter of Emperor Francis I of Austria, in 1810. In the previous year, he had divorced Josephine as she proved incurably barren.

Russian campaign, Leipzig and Waterloo

As Russia openly defied the Continental System, Napoleon marched into Russia in 1812. It was a fatal step. It was the winter in Russia that made

Napoleon tastes his first defeat on land. In 1813 the Fourth Coalition was formed by Britain, Russia, Prussia and Austria against France. Napoleon was defeated in Germany in 1813 at Leipzig which is often called the “Battle of the Nations” and was driven back to France. This was Napoleon's second defeat. The victorious Allies occupied Paris and Napoleon was abdicated in 1814. He was exiled to the island of Elba. Louis XVIII, the brother of Louis XVI, was made King of France. In the meantime, Napoleon escaped from Elba and returned to France in 1815 and remained as the Emperor for 100 days. But the allied nations of Europe got alarmed. They united together and completely defeated him in the battle of Waterloo in 1815. He was exiled to St. Helena where he died in 1821.

Domestic Policy of Centralization

The keynote of Napoleon's administration was centralization. He wielded legislative, executive and judicial powers: In 1800 he brought the local government under his direct control. The departments and smaller districts (arrondissements) each under a Prefect and Sub-Prefect respectively were made answerable to him. While the Mayors of small communes were appointed by the Prefect, those of the bigger ones were appointed directly by the Central Government. Napoleon introduced a uniform system of administration throughout the country.

Finance

Financial administration was in a state of chaos when Napoleon became the First Consul. He removed many of the defects in the financial system. He increased the state revenue by careful collection of taxes. By economy drives, by severe punishment of corrupt officials and by compelling the vanquished countries for paying the French army, he

reduced public expenditure. In 1800, he set up the Bank of France on a sound basis.

Education

Napoleon brought education under the control of the State. The Imperial University, which he set up, controlled public instruction throughout the French Empire. Primary or elementary schools, secondary or grammar schools, high schools, and special schools such as technical schools, civil service schools and military schools were set up. Napoleon liberally endowed museums and libraries. As a part of State control of education, he vigorously censored the press and the theatre.

Public Works

Napoleon undertook a large number of public works. He constructed 229 broad military roads. Thirty of these roads radiated from Paris to the borders of France. He constructed two trans-Alpine roads connecting Paris with Turin, Milan, Rome and Naples. He undertook other works of public utility such as the construction of bridges, draining of marshes, strengthening of canals and improving of ports. These works provided work for the unemployed, promoted trade and commerce, and improved agriculture.

Industry

Napoleon did much to promote the economic prosperity of the country. By the Continental System, trade with England came to a standstill. He promoted industries, set up technical schools, offered prizes to inventors and gave loans and bounties to industrialists to increase production to make France stand on her own legs.

The Legion of Honour

The revolution had abolished all titles and honors to strengthen the bonds of loyalty to the Emperor and to provide an incentive for hard work. Napoleon instituted the Legion of Honour in 1802. It awarded decorations and titles to men who were distinguished in Civil and Military Services.

Literature and Art

In the midst of his preoccupations, Napoleon did not neglect the fine arts. He was a patron of art. Literature, science, sculpture, architecture, painting and music made great progress during the Napoleonic period. State palaces were restored and enlarged. He beautified the city of Paris with works of art taken as spoils from different countries.

Religious Policy

Napoleon realized the hold of the Catholic Church on the French people. He looked upon religion as a force in politics and nothing else. Napoleon believed that the people must have a religion. But the religion must be in the hands of the state. He used to say “People will say that I am a Baptist, I am nothing, and I was a Mohammedan in Egypt. I shall be a Catholic here for the good of the people”.

Concordat and Code Napoleon

The two greatest works which had kept the memory of Napoleon still green in the minds of the people are the Concordat and the Code Napoleon. He knew that an established Church would be a tower of strength to the State. So he entered into an agreement with the Pope in 1801 known as the Concordat. The Roman Catholic religion was recognized as the religion of France by the Concordat. The Pope agreed not to advance his claims to the restoration of Church property and the State undertook the payment of

salaries to the clergy. Bishops were to be nominated by the Consul and the Pope invested them with their office. The priests were to be appointed by the Bishops. To put the new scheme into effect, it became necessary to make both constitutional and non-juring bishops to resign. Many non-juring priests refused to resign. So the Pope was forced to depose them. New appointments were made mainly by the non-juring bishops. The constitutional bishops were also admitted. Thus Napoleon patched up the schism in the Church for which he was hailed as "Second Constantine".

The coding of the French law was the most outstanding-work of Napoleon. The Code of Napoleon is still the basis of the Civil law of France. His Code gave France a common legal and judicial system. It was no wonder that he was hailed as "Second Justinian".

Downfall of Napoleon

For the hero of hundred battles, neither the Nile nor Trafalgar proved to be the Waterloo. Napoleon's downfall came gradually. The ill-contrived Continental System, estranging the feelings of the Catholic world by imprisoning the Pope, the misdirected Russian expedition, the growth of national feeling and the supremacy of the Britain on the sea were some of the causes for his downfall. It was the "Spanish Ulcer" which ruined him to a great extent. He was too ambitious and thus he fell.

Estimate

Napoleon was a military genius. The French Empire reached the zenith of its glory and fame during his rule. He was not merely a distinguished general but also an excellent administrator. "If the conquests of Napoleon were ephemeral, his civilian work in France was built, upon granite". He indirectly paved the way for the unification of Italy and Germany. He evolved order out of chaos and created a strong centralised

state. He laid the foundation of a strong government rooting out corruption and inefficiency. In the words of Grant and Temperly, “Napoleon was without question a man of extraordinary force of brain and character, who under all circumstances and in all countries would have won for himself a high position. The instances that are usually quoted in comparison with Napoleon's life history are the establishment of the Roman Empire by Julius Caesar after a century of confusion and revolution in Rome and the personal rule of Oliver Cromwell which followed the Puritan revolution”.

UNIT II

VIENNA CONGRESS

Napoleon began to dominate the European politics after the French Revolution. Napoleon had badly mutilated the political map of Europe. He had torn away territories from some states and added them to other states to suit his convenience.

However, he was overthrown in 1814 and sent to the Island of Elba. Now the problem before the European states was how the map of Europe to be rearranged. Many emperors, foreign ministers and statesmen assembled at Vienna.

Participants:

Francis I, The king of Austria, Metternich the Prime Minister of Austria, Alexander of Russia, Castlereagh the Prime Minister of England, Talleyrand from France were among the participants. Alexander and Metternich played a very predominant role. Metternich had played the most important role in the Congress. He was the Head of the Congress. From 1809 onwards he was powerful in Austria. He was the man of mental make-up. He guided Austria for 40 years by his insight and versatility (wisdom). Later he gained a moral dictatorship in Europe 'He could swim like a fish in the sparkling whirlpool of Vienna'. He was an enemy to democracy. So he left no stone unturned to suppress the democratic ideas and also he made all the efforts to maintain the balance of powers.

Aims of the Congress

The main aims of the Congress were restoration, legitimacy and compensation. It decided to restore as far as possible the boundaries and restore the families of the several European countries, as they were before the French Revolution.

1. The Vienna Congress restored the Bourbon dynasty in Spain, Naples and Sicily.
2. The House of Savoy was restored in Piedmont and Sardinia.
3. Pope was restored in Italy.
4. Various German princes were restored to the throne, who had lost their possessions during the time of Napoleon.
5. It tried to prevent France from staging another outburst, the Congress set as its goal to make the border states of France bigger and stronger.

Settlement

Russia

- A large part of Poland including Warsaw was given to Russia. But it was given on the condition that she should not annex.
- Finland was conquered by Tzars. At the beginning the activities of Tzar was opposed but later it was ratified.
- England retained Heligoland, Malta, St. Lousia, Tobaco and Cape Colony, Ceylon, British Guiana and got the right to safeguard Ionian Island.

Austria

- She got Lombardy, Venetia and Illyria

Prussia:

- She got Westphalia, a large part of Saxony and western part of Pomerania.
- Thus the Big Fours got the lion's share of the spoils.

Germany:

The Holy Roman Empire was abolished by Napoleon in 1806 and no attempt was made to revive it. Regarding the German unification,

nobody showed any enthusiasm. A loose German confederation of the 38 states was established. There was to be a Diet at Frankfurt which consisted of delegates from various states of Germany. The Diet should be presided by the Chancellor of Austria. So Austria was able to dominate the politics.

France:

- In order to create the ring around France in Italy, the Sardinian kingdom was strengthened.
- Netherland and Holland were united and created a United Netherland. Sweden was compensated by giving Norway. Denmark was punished on account of her alliance with Napoleon for a long time. The House of Orange was restored in Holland. Italy was declared as an independent state. The Papal States including Romagna under the Pope were established. Thus the Austrian rule was predominant in Italy.
- Switzerland was allowed to continue as an independent state. Monarchy was restored in Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, Sardinia, Naples and Sicily. To prevent the revival and spread of revolutionary ideas, the Big Four formed the 'Quadruple Alliance'. It was a permanent body which stood for the enforcement of the Vienna Settlement.

Criticism of the Vienna Settlement:

- ✦ The Vienna settlement did not offer a cure for the political ills of Europe. It failed in its chief aim of preserving peace in Europe. Revolutions broke out in almost all countries that came under it. Thus it collapsed like a house of cards. In the words of Fisher: "The plant of legitimacy failed to flourish upon soil still covered by the lava of

revolution”. Revolutions broke out in France in 1830 and 1848. The Union of Holland and Belgium lasted only for 15 years. Italy and Germany threw off the foreign yoke and became independent in the course of half a century. Poland which was placed under the control of Russia became independent in the First World War. The Union of Russia and Finland was dissolved in 1917 and that of Sweden and Norway in 1905.

The Settlement unconsciously buried deep the ideas of democracy, nationalism and liberalism. The settlement was a mere return to the old order. Monarchy was restored to the old dynasties on the principle of legitimacy. Liberal and democratic ideas were ruthlessly crushed. But the Statesmen failed to note that such ideas were becoming determining political factors.

The real aim of the Congress was to divide among the conquerors the spoils of the conquered. This was daylight robbery. To the defeated it added insult to injury. Denmark and Saxony which sided Napoleon were severely punished. In redrawing the map of Europe the “Big Four” were mainly guided by selfish motives. The big powers not only got new places but retained old ones. The smaller states were not given a fair deal. Austria which played the part of the host virtually became a ghost to the smaller countries. In the distribution of spoils, the Congress bid farewell to the principle of liberalism. Territories were separated or united much against the wishes of the affected countries. Catholic Belgium was united with Protestant Holland. Denmark was penalised by uniting Norway with Sweden. Italian unity was broken. Poland was placed under the tutelage of Russia. Genoa was united with her foe, Savoy.

The “Holy League” set up to enforce the settlement proved to be neither holy nor a league. It only “aspired to bind Europe in chains”. Castlereagh called it a “piece of sublime mysticism and nonsense”. Metternich called it a “loud-sounding nothing”. In spite of the defects of the Congress, it at least prevented a general European war or a world conflagration for a century. The first half of the 20th century it had witnessed two World Wars. So the importance of the settlement cannot be undermined. It made a bold start in settling disputes by convening conferences. It may legitimately be considered as the precursor of the League of Nations and the United Nations Organization.

The Holy Alliance

After the congress of Vienna, a movement was set on foot to devise machinery for concerted action of the Vienna settlement. They tried to give practical shape to the idea of the concert of Europe. The Holy Alliance was not a treaty but it was only a manifestation of a pious wish inspired by the idealism of the Tzar who wanted spiritual politics by calling upon his brother monarchs of Prussia and Austria to act upon Christian principles, by his Grand Design. After Napoleon, Alexander became influential who could tackle any knotty problem for which he wanted to spread Christian principles in Europe. Quarrel alliance was also formed to maintain peace and thus the Holy Alliance was initiated by Alexander with religious feelings; because he deemed that there should not be any war without the willingness of God. So, in order to maintain peace this alliance was signed. England and Turkey, did not sign this alliance. Administration would be carried on only on the basis of Christian principles like peace, justice, good will and charity. The rulers announced that they would regard each other as brothers and their subjects as their children and they promised to aid each on all occasions and in all places. But the Holy Alliance proved to be

nothing but the ‘verbiage’ that Mettemich called it. It was a deed letter from the moment of issue.

It was the second scheme that of the Quadruple Alliance-an agreement of Austria, Prussia, Russia and The Britain signed by the four powers concerned. Several plans were put forward for the establishment of machinery for securing permanent peace in Europe. Metternich became the leader of the Quardruple Alliance.

Objectives

The objectives of the Alliance were the maintenance of treaties with France, preservation of the political stability of Europe and friendly relations among the four sovereigns for the welfare of the world. The powers also agreed to meet often to discuss problems and to maintain peace and prosperity in Europe. It was a failure because it was highly impossible to introduce Christian principles in the midst of confused and revolutionary stage. That is why it was described by Metternich as “loud sounding nothing” Castlereagh declared, “The balance of power would be spoiled due to the domination of Russia. It was an alliance much against to that of national feelings and people’s rights. Anyhow, though there was no mistakes, this system met its failure because of its religious principles which mingled with that of political principles. Thus the concert of Europe was formed. The period that followed the signing of this alliance was known as the era of Congresses.

Metternich

Introduction:

Prince Metternich was born in a family of diplomats in 1773. Keeping in the family tradition, he proved his worth as a born diplomat when he came of age. He married the granddaughter of Count Kaunitz, the famous minister of Maria Theresa of Austria. At an early age, he entered the diplomatic service of Austria and very soon mastered the niceties and subtleties of the profession. By dint of his ability he became the Chancellor of Austria in 1809 in which capacity he continued till his flight from the country in 1848. During this period, he dominated the political scene of Europe like a Colossus. He played the leading role in the formation of the Fourth Coalition against France in 1813 and the defeat of Napoleon in the Battle of Leipzig.

The policy of Metternich:

As Metternich dominated the European politics between 1815 and 1848, it is no wonder that the period is called “Era of Metternich” and the policy he subscribed was known as “Metternich System”. As the enemy of the French Revolution, he set his face against all liberal ideas for which it stood. The “Metternich System” in its practical working meant a double-barrelled attack on the twin principles of nationalism and liberalism. He saw Europe clearly divided into revolutionary West and reactionary East. As the champion of reaction, he made Austria the abode of reaction with heavy dose of conservatism. Mainly relying on the principles of Legitimacy and Restoration, he set the clock back by restoring the old monarchies in Europe. Utter disregard of the principles of nationalism and liberalism were set loose during the revolutionary era. In his ambition to make Austria the predominant power in Europe, he spread the net wider to trap the diplomatic dignitaries of the Vienna Congress. As a firm believer in maintaining the

status quo after the Congress of Vienna, he brought into existence the Concert of Europe. By his dexterous diplomatic strokes, he transferred the leadership of Europe from Revolutionary France to Reactionary Austria.

Metternich and the Congress of Vienna:

It was the towering personality of Metternich that made him the dominating figure in the Congress of Vienna. He handled the knotty problems of the Congress in such a way that it was remarked that he could “swim like a fish in the sparkling whirlpool of Vienna”. In spite of the fact that the Congress did not offer a panacea for the political ills of Europe, Metternich managed to safeguard the interests of Austria. He got for Austria, Lombardy and Venetia in Italy. He managed to place on the thrones of Tuscany, Parma and Modena members of the Hapsburg Royal family. Thus he made unity by further divisions and made it a mere “geographical expression”. He got for Austria effective control over Germany by bringing the German Confederation as set up by Napoleon under her direct control.

Metternich and the Concert of Europe:

As a firm believer in maintaining the status quo, Metternich used the Concert of Europe as an instrument to crush the forces of nationalism and liberalism. To prevent the revival and spread of revolutionary ideas, the Big Four (Austria, Russia, Prussia and England) under the leadership of Metternich formed the Quadruple Alliance in 1815. The members of the alliance agreed to hold meetings at fixed intervals to discuss the matters of common interests and to maintain the peace in Europe. Thus the Concert of Europe came into existence. But difference of opinion cropped up even in the first meeting which was held at Aix-la-Chapelle. Britain opposed any policy which aimed at maintaining the status quo with regard to the territorial boundaries of the powers. In the second Congress held at

Troppau, the Protocol of Troppau was passed which justified the intervention of the Big Powers in the internal affairs of other states in the event of outbreak of revolutions. Though Britain opposed the measure of tooth and nail, the other powers accepted the principle of intervention. This principle was put into practice by Metternich to quell the revolt in Naples. In the last Congress held at Verona, the Concert crumbled into pieces as Britain withdrew from it.

Metternich and Germany:

As the undisputed master of European politics from 1815 to 1848, Metternich richly deserves the title “the Prime Minister of Europe”. He interfered in the internal affairs of Germany and Italy, and exerted his influence in other countries. The Vienna Settlement brought the German Confederation under the direct control of Austria. Symptoms of revolutionary agitation was organised by a student body which perpetrated atrocities in Germany. It brought about such an alarm that the rulers of three German states of Bavaria, Baden, Wurttemberg granted liberal constitutions to their people. Metternich summoned a meeting of the German Princes at Carlsbad in 1819, drew up the Carlsbad decrees and got them passed in German Diet. The decrees outlawed the student body which was responsible for the revolution, prevented the formation of student associations except with the official permission, imposed vigorous press censorship and brought the Universities under effective control. Metternich thus got complete control over the affairs of Germany.

Metternich and Italy:

The Vienna Congress under the Presidentship of Metternich broke up the Italian unity and made it a mere “geographical expression”. He wrested from Italy, Lombardy and Venetia and placed on the thrones of Tuscany,

Parma and Modena members of the Hapsburg royal family. A revolt broke out in Naples in 1820. Metternich helped Ferdinand I, the ruler of Naples, to put down the revolt and restored him to power. Piedmont also rose in revolt in 1821. The Austrian forces on their return march from Naples put down that revolt also. As a result of the reactionary powers of Metternich, Italy came under his thumb. In the word of Hayes: "Italy was bound hand and foot to the triumphant reactionary chariot of Austria".

Metternich and Spain:

The Vienna Settlement restored Ferdinand VII to the Spanish throne in 1815. He suspended the liberal constitution of 1812. His despotic rule led to a revolt in 1820. In the Congress of Verona, Metternich goaded Louis XVIII of France to intervene in Spain and restored order.

Metternich and Russia:

To begin with, Tzar Alexander I was a votary of liberal ideas. But soon he came under the bewitching spell of Metternich and withdrew his liberal reforms. It was again this spell of Metternich which prevented the Tzar from rendering any help to the Greeks when they revolted under the Turkish oppression.

Metternich and France:

Metternich, the wily diplomat, always kept an eye on revolutionary France. To prevent France from staging another outburst, he prevailed upon the members of the Congress of Vienna and made the border states of France bigger and stronger. It was a result of his influence that stronger states such as Holland, Prussia, Switzerland and Piedmont came into existence. When France fulfilled her treaty obligations, she was admitted into the Concert. Thus the Quadruple Alliance was transformed into the Quintuple Alliance.

Metternich and Britain:

Metternich and Castlereagh of Britain drew closer to defeat Napoleon. They drew still closer in the Congress of Vienna. Britain became a member of the Quadruple Alliance. Difference of opinion cropped up even in the first Congress which met at Aix-la-Chappelle. Britain opposed any policy which aimed at maintaining the status quo with regard to territorial borders of the powers. In the second Congress held at Troppau, the Protocol of Troppau was passed which justified the intervention of the Big Powers in the internal affairs of the other states in during the outbreaks of revolutions. Though Britain opposed the measure of tooth and nail, the other power accepted the principle of intervention. This principle was put into practice by Metternich to quell the revolt in Naples. As armed intervention was allowed in France and Spain in the last Congress held at Verona, Britain withdrew from the Concert. Thus the Concert of Europe collapsed like a house of cards.

Metternich and Austria:

Metternich followed a vigorous reactionary policy in Austria-Hungary. As a born reactionary, he crushed the forces of liberalism and nationalism in the country. The press was vigorously censored. He maintained a vigilant espionage system. The Universities were brought under the direct control of the government. To prevent the infiltration of revolutionary ideas from France, he erected high tariff walls. But this policy was very unwise because it adversely affected Austrian trade and industry. In his anxiety to make Austria the citadel of reaction, liberty was crushed, conscience was hushed and scruples were ignored. But the popular ideas never died by acts of suppression. They gained only fresh momentum with every act of suppression.

The revolution of 1848 in France resulted in the overthrow of the Orleanist monarchy. It served as a signal to similar revolts throughout Europe. Austria was the worst affected by the wave of this revolution. The national consciousness of the people had been already boiling. When the opportune moment came, Vienna raised the standard of rebellion in 1848. Metternich fled to England. He returned to Vienna in 1851 and died in 1859.

Estimate:

Metternich, the astute diplomat, was the most dominating personality in European politics from 1815 to 1848. “This faithful Chancellor of Hapsburg Empire was at once the conservative patriot of Austria and reactionary genius of Europe”. As he dominated the political scene of Europe like a Colossus between 1815 and 1848, the age is rightly termed as the ‘Era of Metternich’. As he remained supreme arbiter in almost all the problems of the age, he can rightly be called as the “Prime Minister of Europe”. No country escaped from his evil machinations. Germany laid prostrate before him. Italy was under his thumb. He remained a silent observer in witnessing Spain chew his reactionary ideas with greatest discomfort. Tzar Alexander I swallowed his bitter reactionary pills with great pleasure. He encircled France by raising an “iron ring”. He kept Britain on tender-hooks. To the people of Austria-Hungary he remained a nightmare. He was a victim before the surging tide of liberal and democratic ideas.

UNIT III

NAPOLEON III

In 1848 France became a Republic. A new constitution was drafted. On 19th December 1848 fresh elections were held. In the election Louis Napoleon, a nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte got absolute majority and became the President of newly constituted French Republic. He continued as the President till 1852. In 1852 he took the office into his hands and proclaimed himself as the Emperor of France. Thus in 1852 Louis Napoleon, the President of the French Republic became Emperor Napoleon III of France. After having become the emperor of France Napoleon drafted a new constitution. The new constitution which was drafted in 1852 provided more powers to the king. Legislature body ceased to be a powerful chamber. Napoleon III appointed his own ministers.

He encouraged the Catholic Churches; Universities and schools were left under the control of the churches. Loans were advanced to the people at cheap rates of interest so as to encourage industrial development. Labourers were protected.

Labour hospitals were started. Insurance provisions were introduced for the labourers. Co-operative societies were started to advance loans to the peasants. Trade was encouraged. He founded the French Atlantic Company to facilitate maritime activities. Inland navigation system developed. Telegraphic and postal departments developed.

In 1854 Napoleon III involved France into a war with Russia. Napoleon III came to the rescue of the Palestinian Christians against Turkey. The Sultan of Turkey had exercised powers against the Palestinian Christians. The Palestinian Christians were known as 'slavs'. The Russians

propagated that the Slavs belonged to the Russian race. Napoleon III upheld that the Slavs belonged to the French race. On this issue a war known as Crimean war broke out. England came to the help of France. In this Crimean war Napoleon III succeeded. The war came to an end by the treaty of Paris in 1856. In this treaty France did not get any share. But the glory of Napoleon III and France had reached its zenith.

Napoleon III helped Cavour in his attempt towards the unification of Italy. He sent an army against Austria and Austria was defeated in Magenta and Solferino. All the Italian territories which were kept with Austria were snatched by Napoleon III and handed over to Cavour.

During his period French had colonial expansion. He colonized Algeria in Africa. In 1863 Cambodia in South East Asia became a French colony.

Napoleon III sent a powerful navy to Mexico. Mexico was brought under the rule of Napoleon III. But the people of Mexico did not like the rule of the French Government. They revolted against the French administration. But the President of U.S.A. Monroe issued his proclamation.

Monroe's doctrine insisted that all the European powers should quit the New World. No power should hold any colony in the American continent. So in 1867 the French army left Mexico. The policy of Napoleon III towards America was a miserable failure.

At this time the Spanish king died without a successor to the throne. The Spanish crown was offered to Leopaul, a relative of the Prussian royal family. If this is executed the power of Prussia would be enlarged. Napoleon did not like it. On this issue a war broke out between Napoleon

III and Prussian Chancellor Bismarck. The war was fought at Sedan in 1870. Napoleon III was defeated and he surrendered, France once again became a Republic.

Napoleon III was acclaimed by the people of France because he was the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte. But Napoleon III was not that much talented like his uncle Napoleon Bonaparte. Napoleon III did not have military efficiency. His plans were irregular. He could not get the support of all the people. His foreign policy in general was a failure. He could not understand the reality of worldly affairs. So he miserably failed.

Concert of Europe:

After the downfall of Napoleon, the European powers concentrated their attention in the allover power and also made many attempts to avoid the way. In the Vienna Congress European powers left no stone unturned to reduce the strength of France.

The Vienna Congress sealed the triumph of reaction and restored the pre-revolutionary conditions as far as possible. So in order to avoid the revolutionary ideas, Britain, Austria, Prussia and Russia entered into the Quadruple alliance on 20 November 1815.

Provisions:

1. The powers should have the periodical meetings.
2. They should maintain peace and prosperity of the nations.
3. They shouldn't have any separate treaties secretly.
4. All the European states were authorised to involve in the internal affairs of any state which is on the path of democracy.

On many occasions the members of the Concert of Europe met at different places to discuss the problems. In these Congresses Metternich was able to dominate the meeting. However, the Concert of Europe broke up in 1823 after holding four periodical meetings.

Congress of Aix-la-Chappelle -1818:

The Congress met in 1818 at Aix-la-Chappelle where Napoleon had once put forward his own scheme for the welfare of Europe. Metternich said to have remarked that he had never seen a “prettier little Congress”.

1. The Congress was recognised as the Supreme council of Europe.
2. France was admitted into the Concert of Europe so the Quadruple Alliance was transformed into the Quintuple Alliance.
3. It was intended to observe strictly the right of the people and protect the arts of peace.

Achievements of the Congress:

- ✦ The rulers of Morocco ordered to improve the administrative system of the country.
- ✦ The elector of Hesse petitioned to the Congress to allow him to assume the title of king which was refused by the Congress.
- ✦ The position of Jewish citizens in Austria and Russia was discussed but there was misunderstanding among the member states, so the matter was not materialised.
- ✦ In South America there were some rebellious colonies of Spain. In those colonies, Britain invested a lot of money so that England had trade relations with the colonies. Now an attempt was made to bring those colonies under the control of Spain. But England was not ready to accept this compromise.

- ✦ In order to check the sea pirates in the Mediterranean, Russia suggested that an international fleet representing various powers should be stationed in the Mediterranean. However, England rejected the proposal as she was not ready to allow the Russian interest in the Mediterranean.
- ✦ England was not ready to estrange her relationship with the sea pirates as the sea pirates would not attack the English ships.
- ✦ Slave trade was prohibited but now England appealed the state to allow the slave trade to all the European states. But other states refused due to the jealousy of the naval strength of Britain. The result was that no effective action could be taken against slavery and sea pirates.

However the credit for the failure of the scheme must go to England who opposed tooth and nail policy of Russia, Austria and Prussia. She was not ready to accept the move of other states and the general principles of international control. The Congress allowed Austria to suppress the revolt in Naples and Piedmont in 1821.

Congress of Troppau -1820:

When the second Congress had met at Troppau, a revolution had broken out in Naples, Spain and Portugal. The people of the countries forced their kings to give them liberal constitutions. Now the great powers condemned the revolutions but at the same time they differed in their ideas. So they could not take any effective action.

Russia tabled her request that she must be allowed to intervene in the affairs of Spain. She offered her armed assistance to the Spanish king to suppress the revolt. Austria wanted to interfere in the internal affairs of Naples because Lombardy and Venetia were under the control of Austria. If

revolution broke out the Austrian stability, these places would be endangered. So it was recognized by all the powers that Austria had a special interest in Italy and consequently she should be allowed to suppress the revolt in Naples.

The Congress also passed the famous Protocol of Troppau which justified the intervention of one state in the internal affairs of another state. The protocol declared if any state underwent a change in government due to revolution, such a state would automatically lose its membership in European alliance and it was made the duty of other states to restore the status quo in the troubled state by peaceful means or by resort to arms. Britain opposed the declaration on the grounds that it aimed at suppressing all revolutions without ascertaining their individual merits. But the principle of intervention was accepted by other members. This principle was put into practice in 1821 when the Laibach Congress allowed Austria to quell the revolt in Naples. This was promptly done by Austria.

The Congress of Laibach (1821)

- The third Congress was held at Laibach in which the Austrian involvement in Naples was justified.
- Now Austria was allowed to suppress the revolt which occurred in Piedmont in North Italy.

The Congress of Verona (1822)

The fourth and the last Congress was held at Verona in 1822. There were two questions before the Congress to be settled:

- * The question of Greek War of Independence was brought before the Congress. Now Russia demanded that she should be allowed to take action against Turkey, as Austria had taken in the case of Naples and Piedmont.

* Austria was not ready to tolerate the Russian influence in Balkan area. Austria was also supported by England. Under these circumstances Metternich succeeded not only in checking Russian action but also in solving a dispute of Greek question at Verona.

Spain

In 1820 the people of Spain forced their king Ferdinand VII to abolish the inquisition and proclaim a constitution. So the Spanish king appealed to the French king Louis XVIII to help him. These appeal of one Bourbon king to another Bourbon king looked like the revival of the old times. England did not like this appeal. At the Congress France tabled her request to intervene in Spain and asked the moral support of the powers. When Austria, Russia and Prussia supported the cause of France, England opposed the proposal. As the other powers were not ready to pay heed to England, England withdrew from the Congress. The Concert of Europe came to an end.

Causes for the failure of the Concert of Europe:

1. As England could not put up with the attitude of others, she withdrew from the Vienna Congress.
2. England with her parliamentary institution was unable to pull on the autocratic powers of Europe.
3. Mutual jealousy arose among the powers from the very beginning.
4. In the Congress of Aix-La-Chappelle the powers disagreed on the question of slave trade and suppression of sea pirates.
5. They also disagreed in 1820 on the question of intervention in Spain.
6. There was no internal harmony among the powers. Nearly an outward show of cooperation was maintained for some time.

7. The Concert of Europe was established against the common enemy, France. However due to the alliance of France, the unity among the allied powers were gone. And each power began to follow its own diplomacy.
8. The smaller powers were neglected and only the big powers dominated the Congress. So the Congress failed within a short span of time.

Louis XVIII 1814 - 1824

The House of Bourbon had been put back upon the throne of France by the Allies who had defeated Napoleon in 1814. After the abdication of Napoleon in 1814, Louis XVIII was put on the throne of France. He was the brother of Louis XVI. He was 59 when he succeeded to the throne. He stood for a policy of compromise and reconciliation. He never forgot the lessons of the French Revolution.

Charter of 1814

The revolution of the royal line did not at all mean the revolution of old regime. Having recognized that he must compromise with the spirit of age, he issued the constitutional charter under the influence of Alexander in 1814. He agreed to provide a constitutional monarchy somewhat similar to the system then prevailing in Britain, though with greater powers in the hands of the king. Of course, this was a more liberal form of government. The charter declared that the French men were equal before the law, all were equally eligible to civil and military position, monopolies should do public service, no one should be arrested by due process of law and there should be complete religious freedom for all sects. Thus it was given by the king to the people as a matter of grace. The charter established a parliament

of two houses; a charter of Peers-appointed for life and a Chamber of Deputies-elected for a term of 5 years.

Ultra - royalists

The system could not function smoothly due to a furious tussle between two warring factions when Louis XVIII desired to avoid conflicts and to enjoy his power in peace. One section was more eager to restore the former glory of the crown and bitterer forward towards the ideas than the king himself, they were the ultra royalists-men more royalist than the king. They were clamouring for revenge and their reestablishment and were contemptuous of the constitutional charter, "They stood for absolutism and privileges and they wanted an alliance between the altar and **the** throne. On the other side there were republicans and Bonapartists who were bitter at the restoration to the monarchy and at the undoing of the work of the French Revolution. Louis XVIII; the king had got the power to enact laws, appointment and dismissal of all officers, voting right according to age limit, acceptance of Napoleon's code and accepted Bourbon's tricolour flag. There was also an assurance that there was no revival of Bourbon's despotism. The leader of Ultra royalists was the count of Artois, the brother of Louis XVIII. When the news of the result of Waterloo reached France, riots broke out. Moreover, they dominated the chamber of Deputies. The government showed criminal neglect in the suppression of the royal attacks. This was the white terror which was the gift of the restored Bourbons to the nation.

White Terror

In this white terror regime, murders were common, in which liberals and Bonapartists were imprisoned and killed. When the ultra Royalists had won in 1815, there was terror and confusion everywhere, in which the common people fell as victims. Even the king didn't take any step to

suppress the white terror and the best commander of Napoleon named Marshunrael was killed. In this juncture, the king ordered to conduct fresh election in which the moderates gained majority who ruled from 1816-20, They introduced the reforms like the payments of full war indemnity by which the Europeans withdrew their army from France, trade flourished and France became prosperous. It gained the statues in the international field. Treasury was filled up and in 1818 Richelieu was forced of resign and after him Decades became the minister and the press censorship was removed. He set up a government by priests through priests and priests. The coronation of the king revealed the temper of the new reign.

Duke of Berry

New elections were held in 1816 in which moderates had a majority and a new electoral law in favour of the moderates was passed. A new press law was passed by which censorship was abolished. Suddenly there took place a cowardly crime which virtually undid all the conciliating work. This was the assassination of the king's nephew - the Duke of Berry who was the heir to the throne and was considered to be the hope of Bourbons. Although the crime was the work of one fanatic, named Laurel, a Bonapartist soldier unconnected with any political party in the country, the ultra Royalists blamed the liberals for the tragedy and attributed it to the policy of moderation of the king. Thus the hopes of liberals were dashed to the ground and attempts were also made to curb liberalism abroad in 1823, a French army intervened in Spain to crush a liberal movement in that country. In 1824, Louis XVIII died who strove earnestly to bring rapport between the crown and the nation but was failed in his efforts by the recalcitrant Ultras. He was succeeded by his brother Charles X.

Charles X

Nobles and clergies who had left France were invited and the king desired to revive the Divine Right principles and monarchy. “He had learnt nothing and forgotten nothing”; church was made supreme and he gave weightage to clergy’s words; Nobles and extravagance were given more importance.

In the international field also, France gained some prestige. Algeria was conquered and France joined hands with the British who helped the Greeks against the Turks and destroyed Britain and Russia.

Villele

Villele held office upto 1827. As the press was opposed to the church policy, its power was curbed and no newspaper had to appear without the permission of the king. In 1827, steps were taken by which the liberty of the press to be completely ended but the House of peers vehemently opposed, and it was dropped.

The noble’s emigres had been clamouring for adequate compensation for their lands. But those lands were sold to private individuals as nation’s property, so it was decided to pay an annual interest in the sale price of the lands to the old proprietors. So the indemnification Bill- an act of justice was passed in 1825. The money was to be paid from the government bond holders that are the middle class citizens who held these bonds. An attempt was also made to change Napoleon’s civil code but this attempt was failed in the chamber of Deputies.

A law of sacrilege was proposed by which burglaries were committed in church buildings and the profanation of holy vessels in churches was made punishable with death. Charles X was a devoted Catholic, so he

invited the Jesuits to France and continued the policy of entrusting public education entirely to the clergy but it faced opposition who wished to give liberal education to their children.

Charles X set himself to destroy the liberty of the Press, to suspend civil rights and to establish police espionage thus threw to the winds all constitutional limitation. By raising the property qualifications of the voters the middle classes were to have less control over the government policy in future.

In 1827 he disbanded the National guards which were another setback for the middle class for membership of that citizen army. They also shouted anti- government slogans like 'Down with Ministers' and 'Down with the Jesuits'. The disbandment infuriated the people of Paris.

Thus the acts of omission and commission gradually affected the middle class who had been hit very much by those acts.

Conflict between Charles X and the Chamber of Deputies

Polignac's appointment as Minister

The appointment of Polignac ministry rather precipitated a crisis which exploded in a revolution. The chamber of Deputies demanded for the dismissal of the unpopular ministry of Polignac. But Charles X dismissed the House and fresh election was ordered by which it resulted in a crushing defeat for the king and the ministry.

Ordinances

On July 25, 1830 he issued ordinances restricting still further the freedom of the press, dissolving the chamber of Deputies, introducing a new measure narrowing the franchise and calling for new elections and reduced the period from 7 to 5 years for assembly members.

1830 Revolution

The significance of the ordinances became apparent, so the popular anger began to manifest itself. Barricades were constructed in the streets but they were demolished by the government. The National guards and the regular troops swelled the rank of the agitators. At the secret instigation of the leader of the bourgeoisie they rose against Charles X. The fighting continued amid the fierce heat of July. Charles X realized his folly and seeing the loss; he abdicated in favour of his grandson, the Duke of Bordeaux, son of Duke of Berry, and fled to England with his family. But the Parisians favoured Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, who had always sympathized with liberal opinions. It was in these circumstances that the July Revolution took place in France in 1830.

Importance of the revolution

Charles X had ruled France by the grace of God but now was changed to “by the grace of people”. It brought about a change in the ruling dynasty. The Bourbons who were ruling since 16th century were replaced by the Orleanists. The king was deprived of his power of making ordinances in times of emergency. The freedom of press was restored. The franchise was extended. It granted equality, liberty and secularization of property etc. Legislative jurisdiction was taken over by the assembly. The influence of the revolution of 1830 was felt all over Europe. Catholic religion was accepted as a common religion in France. It was the signal and encouragement for widespread popular movements. The king was deprived of issuing ordinances. It changed the map of Europe prepared by the Vienna congress. The reactionary rule of ultra Royalists was given burial decently. France was freed from autocratic rule and linked monarchy was set up. The principles of legitimacy which had played a dominant part in

the Vienna Congress, was discarded. Middle class known as 'Bourgeoise' came into existence whose participation in politics became great.

Effects of the Revolution

It had repercussions in other parts of Europe because "whenever France sneezes, Europe catches cold". From the very beginning the union of Belgians with the Dutch was unhappy because they belonged to different religions. They also object to the kings' attempts to force the Dutch language into a position with under privilege. Consequently, by the Treaty of Landon signed in 1830, the independence of Belgium was recognized and Leopold I become the king of Belgium. The Poles inflamed by the successful revolution in France, rose in insurrection against, Nicholas I and prepared for a life and death struggle. Though they fought with great bravery, Poland ceased to exist as a separate kingdom and became merely a provider of the Russian empire and Russian language was forced as official language. Spain and Portugal obtained liberal constitution. But Prussia remained unaffected, when the revolution spread to Germany, small German states like Saxony, Hanover, Bavaria and Hesse secured liberal constitution. But it was quelled by Metternich. In England also, thus revolution paved the way for electing the Reform Act of 1832. Anyhow Belgium served as a beacon light to the nationalists of Europe in the years **to come**. In sort the July revolution of 1830 was merely a complement to the French Revolution of 1789.

Louis Phillippe (1830-48)

Louis Phillippe the new monarch of the French was already in his 57th year. He was the son of Philip, Duke of Orleans, who was executed during the reign of terror. He came to the throne of France after the July revolution of 1830. He participated actively in the revolutionary wars of France against

Austria and Prussia in 1789. He was a man of liberal's ideas. He visited various parts of the world including southern Europe. After the restoration of 1814-15, he entered the chamber of peers. Consequently the people believed in his democratic and republican principles.

He was put on the throne when Charles X realised slowly that the crisis was not a revolt but a revolution and he withdrew his ordinances. He attracted the people by his simple life. He ruled for 18 years and the middle class remained supreme during his regime. One king had been overthrown another created and the charter had been slightly modified and a return to aristocracy was prevented. Thus ended the restoration and the reign of Louis Philippe now began.

Regarding his nature, he was called the citizen king because he gave up the symbols of ancient monarchy; the crown and the scepter were set aside. He gave up the title of king of France and took up the title of king of the French. The government was proclaimed parliamentary and representative.

He walked in the streets of Paris alone, talked and even drank with workmen with engaging informality and sent his sons to the public schools to associate with the sons of the middle class- a delicate compliment fully appreciated by the latter. But beneath this exterior of Republican simplicity there laid a strong ambition for personal power, a nature essentially autocratic.

Liberal Government

The industrial capitalist and economic liberals like Lafitte and Casimir-perier were in power in the beginning of the regime of Louis Philippe. Casimir Perrier defined his policy that of the just mean who

followed a policy of revolution. He was in favour of foreign trade and friendly relation with other states.

The Guizot ministry

The government setup under July monarchy was to a great extent a class interest government by and for business and industry. He was careful to guard himself from all appearance of assuming personal power. He began to reveal his real purpose of being monarch. To all outward appearance the government was parliamentary and responsible as in England-the King's role being to reign but not to govern. He didn't believe that the monarchy should be an ornamental head of the state. Due to the non-existence of parliamentary tradition in France, he was able to assume a much more dominating position in the governance of the country than his counterpart in England. The constitutional monarchy in France in practice gave place to absolute monarchy run by the king and his able minister Guizot who spurned all reforms and innovations and adopted stern measures to subdue growing dissatisfaction in the country. The people also hated Guizot because he being a Protestant imposed stringent measures against the Catholics. Freedom was completely crushed; freedom of press was taken away. Louis Philippe now found in Guizot a man who sympathized with his views of kingship. He refused to recognize that France needed any alternation in her political institution. Any further reform would be unnecessary and dangerous, since he believed in the charter of 1814. This policy aroused more and more disgust. Since no attempt was made to meet the needs of the masses, the distress of the masses was widespread.

Internal policy

The charter of 1814 was accepted with slight modifications. It was prepared by the people and accepted by the king. Franchise was widened but not on the basis of property qualification. Industries were encouraged for which machinery was imported from England and factories were in France. The constitution of the railway was planned. Execution of works of public utility was encouraged in order to improve the condition of the workers. Factory Act was passed in 1814, which improved the status of the workers because the employment of children below eight was prohibited. He reduced the working hours in factories and mills.

Education

Education was made compulsory for children of 12 years. All educational institutions were asked to teach internal and social duties. Elementary schools were controlled by the church.

Religion

All religions were treated alike and Judaism was equalled with that of Christianity. It paid the salaries of the Jewish rabbis. The government only nominated the bishops and paid the salaries of the Catholic clergy. Thus the government tried to follow a policy of neutrality. It also made a treaty with the Pope. Consequently, difference of religious opinions was given up.

Foreign policy

He followed a policy of peace in foreign affairs. He was on good terms with Queen Victoria and thus harmony was secured. He aided the new state of Greece to have a liberal monarch but he did not allow Russia to increase her influence in the Balkans. In 1840, there was every possibility of war between England and France which was in favour of sending French army to Spain but Louis Philippe had not allowed. There was to follow a

vigorous foreign policy- Independence of England and finally war was averted. He refused to accept the crown of Belgium which was offered by the Belgians to his relative, when he supported their revolt. He too preferred to help the Swiss Cantons with the help of Austria, though this action was opposed by Britain.

The beginning of the French colonial system was made in Algiers and more than 40000 colonists settled there, though the liberals favoured for a complete withdrawal from Algiers.

Louis Philippe concluded the first *entente cordiae* with England thereby ending a long period of rivalry and enmity. Difference of opinion arose between Louis Philippe and Palmerson who neglected Louis in the settlement of Eastern Question.

Regarding the working class, the government passed a law restricting the right of association. In 1834, another organization called the Society of Seasons was set up. Very soon the government was free from the threat of insurrections. Since the working classes were without leaders for long periods, there was no contact between them and their leaders.

Revolutionary Attitude

By 1846, Louis Philippe's position on the throne became shaky in view of position to his rule from practically every shade of public opinion in the country. The legitimists stood against the king as they regarded him as a usurper. Still, they insisted that Charles X and later the count of Chambord, heir to traditional monarchy was the rightful king. They also considered his government as revolutionary and bourgeoisie. The Catholics of France were not happy with the corrupt politics of Guizot-a-Huguenot. The Bonapartists stirred by the Napoleonic legend were tilting towards the Emperor's nephew

Louis Napoleon. The Republicans and Liberals were now increasing hostility. Though they supported the king, they were disgusted with the corrupt administration. The Republicans aimed at the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of a republican government in the country.

The Industrial Revolution had led to the creation of a class-conscious proletariat who clamoured for reform in various directions. So the Revolution of 1848 burst in France as a social Revolution that was stimulated by the dire needs of the proletariat. The condition of the masses provoked discussion and many writers began to preach new doctrines concerning the organization of industry and the relations of the capital and labour did not receive its proportionate reward.

Giant Simon was a speculative thinker but not a practical man of affairs. He was the first to announce a socialist **Mhwne** for the reorganization of society in the interest of the then numerous classes. His doctrine emphasized that the state should be the means of production and industry should be the principle of labour according to capacity and reward according to services.

Louis Blanc another socialist proclaimed that the right of every man was to get employment. He denounced that the government of the bourgeoisie as the government of the rich, by the rich and for the rich. The state must guarantee a living wage for all workers. He emphasized to establish many national industries.

Prodhan was a radical revolutionary who stood for the destruction of private and the establishment of a new order on the basis of voluntary co-operation.

Moreover this movement demanded increased wages, better condition of work and the intention of franchise to them. To achieve these demands, they had to struggle for it

The patriots never wanted their policy to be submissive to that of England. They were for national honour and glory. They were in favour of those who stood for the honour of the country. They were helped by the growth of the Napoleonic legend during the regime of Louis Philippe. Napoleon's achievements were glorified. Streets were named after Napoleon; the dead body of Napoleon was brought to Paris from St Helena with great ceremony. The government became more unpopular. In brief, the prestige of France also was lowered in the Turk-Egyptian war and her affairs with Spain.

The reformers too condemned the government of Louis Philippe because even the moderate demands of reforms like the broadening of Franchise and eradication of corruptions, were not fulfilled. Efforts were also made to mobilise the public opinion by the reforms.

When Louis Philippe Guizot and the bourgeois Chamber of Deputies followed the policy of ruthless suppression the revolution took place. Thus the February Revolution was a composite movement showing clearly the various hostile elements which had been gathering against Louis Philippe.

Parliamentary Reform

In 1846, the liberal reformers began to arrange banquets in which questions of reform were discussed. The July monarchy accomplished nothing because the Chambers of Deputies supported. So banquets were instituted by those who were loyal to the monarchy but hostile to its policy. Similar meetings were instituted by the Republicans who also opposed the

existence of monarchy. Fixing a monster banquet was banned by the government by which the matters were precipitated. They had no leader and had no definite purpose. The government called out the National Guard but refused to march against the insurgents and they joined the people. Having frightened by this, the king was ready to grant reform and Guizot withdrew from office. By these steps, Paris was illuminated. Before that the people shouted “Down with Guizot” and “Long live Reform”.

The Republicans entered aggressively upon the scene, instigated the people against Louis Philippe and against the monarchy. They made hostile demonstration before Guizot’s residence. It made a serious turn because the guards were short at and more than 20 were killed. The dead bodies were taken and paraded round the streets to incite the people. It spread like a wildfire which resulted in the appearance of barricades on the streets. This was the doom of the monarchy and a riot had begun vehemently with cries like “Long live Republic” and “Long live Reform”. Louis Philippe tried to handle the situation but failed finally, he abdicated in favour his grandson, making his escape to England like his predecessor.

Reasons for failure

He failed to win over all the sections of the country. He had only the support of the middle class but their number was meager. No reform was made also in the social and political field. Since he followed a vigorous foreign policy he lost the support of the patriots also. Thus the July Monarchy had fallen. A provisional government was set up, headed by Lamartine, the Catholic liberal and poet and Louis Blanc as one of the members. It decreed a general election under universal manhood suffrage for members of a national assembly to draw up a constitution. The

provisional government immediately proclaimed the Republic, subject to the ratification by the people.

Comparison of Revolution of 1830 and 1848

Both the revolutions were chiefly Parisian affairs which meant that only the Paris mob started the revolution. Both revolutions started when they refused to accept, the progressive policy. Both failed to understand the real drift of events. In the July revolution, Charles X very lately realized that it was not a revolt but a revolution. Both attempted to suppress the growing discontent but they failed miserably. Both the rulers were abdicated and escaped to England. Both the revolutions lacked good leaders to guide the course of events. The liberal forces were strong. Both failed miserably in their objects of abolishing monarchy from Europe. Both recognized the principle of sovereignty. The July Revolution of 1830 succeeded in Belgium and in 1848, it succeeded in Prussia and Sardinia.

The two revolutions differed not only in their causes but also in their effects. The revolution of 1830 was essentially a middle class revolution. The charter of Charles X had alienated the middle class. He was a staunch Catholic and believed in the propagation of his faith but the people wanted to give secular education to the people. When the National Guard was disbanded it was highly resented by the middle class. So the revolution of 1830 started. But the revolution 1848 was a socialist revolution and the socialists played the most important role in its overthrow. The immediate cause too was different. The 1830 revolution was due to the issuing of 4 ordinances by Charles, but that of 1848 was the banquet of 22 Feb and shooting of the demonstrators. The uncompromising character of Charles X was liable for 1830, but the unpopularity of Louis Philippe was responsible for 1848, revolution. The 1830 revolution stood for constitutional

government but that of 1848 stood for nationalist government. 1830 Revolution was due to the pro-catholic policy of Charles X, but in 1848, it was due to anti-clerical policy of Guizot. The grant of universal suffrage which was promised in 1830 was conceded actually in 1848 only. The 1830 revolution was a short-lived which did not upset social order but 1848 faced bloody massacre. The 1830 overthrew the Divine Right monarchy but 1848 uprooted the middle class limited monarchy. The forces that went against Louis Philippe were stronger than those which worked against Charles X. Most of the troubles of Charles X were his own-making. But that was not so in the case of Louis Philippe. He was neither responsible for Industrial Revolution nor for the growth of Napoleonic legend.

The success of July Revolution brought immediate repercussion in other parts of Europe, including Britain. The liberals in various countries of Europe were encouraged to shake off the trammels. The popular movements seemed to threaten the whole structure erected in the Congress of Vienna. Europe was divided into two contrast political regions. Thus a new era was definitely unfolding. In short in the political sphere they sounded the death knell of the Era of Metternich and in social and economic sphere, they destroyed feudalism in most of Eastern Europe.

The Austrian states in the Northern Italy-Milan and Venetia revolted under Charles Albert but failed in their attempt. Due to the delay at Frankfurt Parliament the German states also revolted but resulted in failure. The patriots gained liberal constitution in Switzerland, where-as in Holland the autocratic rule of William II was put to an end. The July Revolution intensified the charlist Movement, in England. Anyhow the forces of liberalism and nationalism gained fresh and vigorous momentum.

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY

Introduction

Ancient Italy which became united and expanded into a mighty Empire under Rome was broken into several states during the Middle Ages. Napoleon conquered Italy and united all these small states for a short while. But his good work was undone by the Vienna Settlement of 1815. It broke up Italian Unity and made it a mere geographical expression. It divided Italy into : (1) the Kingdom of Piedmont and Sardinia ruled by Victor Emmanuel I, an Italian Prince. Nice, Savoy and Genoa were added to his territories (2) the Kingdom of Lombardy and Venetia under the Austrian Emperor (3) Tuscany, Parma and Modena under the indirect control of Austria. The ex-Empress Marie Louise (daughter of Emperor Francis I of Austria I) became the Duchess of Parma. Tuscany and Modena were ruled by members of the Austrian Hapsburg family (4) Naples and Sicily ruled by a Bourbon prince and (5) the Papal States including Romagna under the Pope. Thus the Austrian rule was predominant in Italy.

The Risorgimento

The wars of Napoleon in Italy kindled and stirred the national feeling which went by the name of Risorgimento. In the eyes of the people of Italy, “Napoleon was an Italian cast in the Imperial mould”. His daring deeds reminded them of the grandeur that was ancient Rome. After the downfall of Napoleon, the work of unification was carried on by secret societies like the Carbonari. Naples rose into an open revolt in 1820. With the help of an Austrian army, Ferdinand I, the King of Naples put down the revolt and severely punished the rebel leaders. The revolution spread to Piedmont in 1821. The people as such were not against the ruling family. They only wanted a new constitution and were against Austria. As Victor Emmanuel I (1802 – 1821) was not able to cope with the situation, he abdicated the

throne in favour of his brother, Charles Felix (1821 – 1831). The July Revolution of 1830 in France was the signal to similar revolutions in Italy also. The Papal States were the worst affected. With the help of the Austrian army, however, the revolt was put down, also in other parts of the country. All the revolts failed because there was not any united action on the part of the leaders. Moreover, the people were not ripe for action. With the passage of time, the people became politically mature. The chief persons responsible for the unification of Italy were Mazzini, Victor Emmanuel II, Cavour and Garibaldi.

Mazzini (1805 – 1872)

Mazzini was a professor of anatomy in Genoa. He was the chief inspirer of the revolutionary movement in the country. He was the “prophet and organiser of associations”. He became a member of the Carbonari. He was arrested in 1830 for his revolutionary activities. He organised in 1831 an association known as “Young Italy”. His aim was to unite all Italy under a republican government. He wanted to make Rome, the leading city in Europe. He declared that “the first Rome was the Rome of the Caesars, the second was the Rome of the Popes and the third was to be the Rome of the Italian people”. The young men of his “Young Italy” lit the flames of patriotism throughout Italy and helped the cause of Italian unity.

Victor Emmanuel II (1849 – 1878)

The overthrow of the French monarchy under Louis Philippe in 1848 was a signal to similar revolutions all over Europe. Italy did not escape from the storm. Charles Albert (1831 – 1849), the King of Sardinia, declared war on Austria. But he was defeated by the Austrian forces at Custoza in 1848. In 1849 Mazzini led an insurrection in Rome. The Pope was driven away and Rome was proclaimed a Republic in 1849. The

Republic was placed under a Committee of three of which Mazzini was one. He extended the support of the Republic to Charles Albert and persuaded him to declare war on Austria. But the Austrian forces again defeated Charles Albert at Novara in 1849. He then abdicated the throne in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel II. The Pope was however, resorted to power in the same year with French help. Victor Emmanuel II promised to work towards Italian unity and agreed to be the King of a united Italy.

Count Cavour

Perhaps the most important factor in the drama of the Unification of Italy was Count Cavour, the Prime Minister of Victor Emmanuel II. “Italy as a nation is the legacy, the life work of Cavour”. He has been rightly called the “Bismarck of Italy”. His policy was to liberate Italy from the clutches of Austria and to unite her under the Royal House of Savoy, i.e., the King of Sardinia. The revolutionary methods of Mazzini did not appeal to him. He knew that his policy could be carried out only with force of arms and foreign alliance. “I cannot make a speech” he said, “but I can make Italy”.

Garibaldi (1807 – 1882)

Garibaldi, the soldier and hero of adventure, was also responsible for the unification of Italy. He was a born revolutionist and an ardent admirer of Mazzini’s “young Italy”. He was condemned to death in 1834 on account of his revolutionary activities. He escaped to South America. When revolution broke out in Italy in 1848, he came back to Italy. The Austrian forces chased him out of the country. He escaped to America in 1849 and returned to Italy in 1854. He was a staunch Republican. But he sacrificed his political principles for the sake of Italian Unity.

Crimean War (1854 – 1856)

When the Crimean War broke out in 1854, Cavour advised Victor Emmanuel II to join the side of England, France and Turkey against Russia. Sardinia entered the war with two aims. (i) to obtain a status among the powers of Europe and (ii) to be in the good books of England and France so that later their help might be sought to crush Austria. Russia got defeated in the war. The Crimean war set the ball of Italian Unity moving.

Austro-Sardinian War (1859 – 1860)

The Crimean war earned for Cavour the friendship of Napoleon III of France. He utilized the opportunity and entered into a treaty with Napoleon III who promised to help Sardinia against Austria in return for Nice and Savoy. Sardinia was to occupy Lombardy and Venetia. Calculating French help, Cavour provoked a war with Austria. He increased the number in the Sardinian forces. Austria got alarmed at the rising power of Sardinia. Austria threatened Sardinia with war unless she reduced the number of soldiers. Cavour turned a deaf ear to it and accepted the challenge. So Austria declared war on Sardinia in 1859.

Napoleon III came with a French army to help Sardinia. The Austrian forces were defeated in the battles of Magenta and Solferino and driven out of Lombardy. Napoleon III suddenly got alarmed at the rising power of a united Italian State. He withdrew his forces and concluded a treaty with Austria at Villafranca in 1859. According to the terms of treaty, Austria retained Venetia but gave a large portion of Lombardy to Sardinia. But the war proved to be a blessing, because Tuscany, Parma, Modena and Romagna expelled their old rulers and joined them with Sardinia. Though Napoleon III betrayed the cause of Sardinia, the latter gave him Nice and Savoy.

Annexation of Sicily, Naples and Papal States (1860)

Count Cavour found the Italians ripe for unity under Victor Emmanuel II. He then turned to Garibaldi for help. In 1860 he sent Garibaldi to Sicily where the people had risen in open revolt against their King, Francis II. Garibaldi with his famous “Red Shirts” numbering a thousand entered Sicily where the people gave him a warm welcome. He conquered Sicily and then Naples.

Garibaldi now contemplated an attack upon Rome. In the meantime, Victor Emmanuel II himself marched at the head of an army to the south. The Pope’s troop was defeated at Castel-fidardo. There was so much popular enthusiasm in the Papal States that they expressed their desire through plebiscites to throw in their lot with Sardinia. Victor Emmanuel II annexed the Papal States with the exception of Rome. When they met Garibaldi in the south, the latter greeted him as a King of Italy and surrendered his conquests into his hands. Only Venitia and Rome still remained outside the United Kingdom.

Annexation of Venitia (1866)

In the Austro-Prussian War, Victor Emmanuel II sided with Prussia. Bismarck, the Prussian Prime Minister, promised to force Austria surrender Venitia to Italy. The Austro-Prussian War ended in a victory to Prussia. As a reward to the help rendered, Bismarck forced Austria to surrender Venitia to Italy.

Annexation of Rome (1870)

Rome still remained in the hands of the Pope who had the support of Napoleon III of France. Moreover, a French army was stationed in Rome. Though Victor Emmanuel II desired to have Rome as the capital of his kingdom, he was not for a war with France. So Turin, and later Florence

served as the capital for some time. Italy without Rome was like playing Hamlet without the ghost. In 1870 a war broke out between France and Prussia. France withdrew her forces from Rome. Thereupon, Victor Emmanuel II marched into the “Eternal City” in 1870. The finishing touch to the Unification of Italy was given by the proclamation of Rome as the capital of Italy in 1870. Thus the unification of Italy was achieved by “Mazzini’s moral enthusiasm, Garibaldi’s sword, Cavour’s diplomacy and Victor Emmanuel’s tact and good sense”.

THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

Introduction

Germany was split up into several independent kingdoms, duchies, principalities and free states in the Middle Ages and long after. The symbol of German unity, however, remained in the name of the Holy Roman Emperor. Napoleon Bonaparte abolished the title of the Holy Roman Emperor in 1806. He reduced the number of German states from 360 to 39 and organized them into the Confederation of the Rhine. He unconsciously roused the spirit of nationalism in the minds of the people. The Congress of Vienna retained the Confederation, but placed it under the control of Austria. Every year the delegates of the various states met in a Diet at Frankfurt to resolve important measures. But the veto power exercised by each member acted as a check on the good work that might have been otherwise achieved by it. Fredrick William III (1797 – 1840), King of Prussia, joined hands with Austria and crushed the forces of nationalism and liberalism in the country.

Customs Union

The first step towards German unity was taken in the sphere of commerce. Prussia took the lead and the other states followed suit. Most of the states entered into a Customs Union or Zollverein in 1834 to avoid the tariff duties levied by each member of the Confederation against the goods of other members. Austria kept herself out of the Union. The commercial unity of most of the German states sowed the seeds for the political unity of Germany.

The Effect of the Revolutions of 1830 and 1848

When the July Revolution of 1830 broke out in France, it spread to Germany also. Many of the smaller German states agitated and obtained liberal constitutions. But Prussia remained unaffected. The February Revolution of 1848 brought Germany also under its influence. Some more states obtained liberal constitutions. Prussia, too, obtained a liberal constitution. Austria was excluded from the German Confederation. The Frankfurt Parliament offered the Crown of Frederick William IV (1840 – 1861) in 1849. But he rejected the offer in the same year. Due to the interference of Austria, the German Confederation of 1815 was restored in 1850. Once again, Austria took the upper hand. Frederick William IV died in 1861. His brother William I (1861 – 88) became the King of Prussia. He was a man of different stamp. The Confederation stood more as an obstacle than a means towards German unification. There was jealousy between Austria and Prussia. Prussia was the strongest of the states in the Confederation. It was under the able leadership of Prussia that German Unity was achieved. The twin principles of popular sovereignty and nationalism prepared the ground for the political unification of Germany.

Bismarck

William I, the King of Prussia, appointed Bismarck as his Prime Minister in 1862. With him dawned a new era of progress in the history of Germany. He believed in a policy of blood and iron. He was a man of iron with nerves of steel. He was no believer in parliaments and liberalism. But, he had unlimited faith in Prussia and Prussianism. The first task of Bismarck was to build up German national unity under the leadership of Prussia. He firmly believed that the unification of Germany could be achieved only under the leadership of Prussia. The solution to this problem lay in snatching the German leadership from Austria which in turn depended on a strong army and sound finance. He increased the finances of the country by collecting new taxes disregarding the protests of the Diet, and strengthened the army by enlarging the Prussian forces. All opposition was ruthlessly crushed. Immediately after he became the Prime Minister, he declared: "The great questions of our time will be decided not by speeches and resolutions of majorities, but by blood and iron". He waged three wars to achieve German Unity.

War with Denmark (1864)

As long as foreign held possessions in Germany, national unification was out of question. Schleswig and Holstein were two German duchies held by the King of Denmark. The two duchies were mostly inhabited by the Germans. Holstein was a member of the German Confederation. The King of Denmark made an attempt in 1848 to incorporate the two duchies. But it was bitterly opposed by the Germans. By the treaty of London, 1852, in which most of the powers of Europe participated, it was decided that the King of Denmark should not incorporate the two duchies. In 1863 Christian IX (1863 – 1906), the King of Denmark, announced a new constitution incorporating Schleswig with Denmark and granting self-government to

Holstein. This was a gross violation of the treaty of London. There was a strong demand that Schleswig and Holstein should be freed from the control of Denmark and be made a part and parcel of Germany. The dispute drifted to a war between Prussia and Denmark. Austria as the official head of the German Confederation made common cause with Prussia. In a way, the war proved to be a blessing in disguise. Austria which had so far kept herself out of the scene joined Prussia at the hour of crisis. Bismarck sent an ultimatum to Denmark to honour the London Treaty within 48 hours. Prussia and Austria declared war against Denmark. Denmark was no match for the combined might of Prussia and Austria. She surrendered Schleswig and Holstein. Prussia and Austria soon quarreled on the distribution of spoils. By the Convention of Gastein, 1865, it was agreed that Prussia should rule over Schleswig and Austria over Holstein.

The Austro-Prussian War (1866)

Austria grew jealous of the rising power of Prussia. A war between the two was quite inevitable. Bismarck secured the neutrality of Russia on the strength of the support rendered to her in suppressing the Polish revolt of 1863. He also secured the neutrality of Napoleon III of France by allowing him to cherish false hopes about further French acquisitions. He also made friendship with Italy by promising Venetia to her. After the preliminaries were settled, he dragged Austria into war on the Holstein affair. On the flimsy pretext that an agitation was going on in Holstein, Prussia assumed full responsibility of Holstein also. As Austria opposed it, Prussia declared war on Austria in 1866. The strength of the Austrian army was double than that of Prussia. But, in the Austro-Prussian war which last for seven weeks, Bismarck inflicted a crushing defeat on the Austrians at Sadowa. Austria was forced to sue for peace. By the treaty of Prague (1866), Prussia annexed Han-over, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Frankfurt and the duchies of

Schleswig and Holstein. Italy received Venetia from Austria. Austria was excluded from Germany. The Old German Confederation was dissolved and the New North German Confederation was formed under the leadership of Prussia. The four Southern German States of Baden, Wurttemberg, Bavaria and Hesse-darmstadt remained neutral. But, Bismarck appealed and emphasized to them their common origin and kindled the fire of nationalism. This had the desired effect. They promised to join with Prussia in the event of war.

The Franco-Prussian War (1870 – 1871)

Bismarck had only one more enemy to deal with and that was Napoleon III of France. Napoleon III grew jealous of the rising power of Prussia. He demanded at different times Palatinate, Luxemburg and Belgium as the prize of his neutrality. But Bismarck refused to give him anything. He was waiting for an opportunity to crush the power of France. He had not to wait for long. In 1869 a revolution occurred in Spain. The Spanish throne was offered to Leopold of the Hohenzollern family. Napoleon III objected to it on the ground that a prospective union of Spain and Prussia under the Hohenzollern family would upset the balance of power in Europe. To get a diplomatic victory, he asked his ambassador to demand from King William I that he would never support a Hohenzollern to the Spanish throne. The Prussian King turned down the French request and sent a telegram to Bismarck informing him of the latest developments. Bismarck was waiting only for such an opportunity. He published the telegram in such a way that it wounded the feelings of both the French and the Germans. So, France declared war on Prussia.

The war kindled the patriotism of the Germans and Southern German States made common cause with the North. Prussia inflicted a crushing

defeat on the French at Sedan, Napoleon III became a prisoner. The victorious German army marched into Paris. While the siege of Paris was going on, the Southern German States of Baden, Wurttemberg, Bavaria and Hesse-Darmstadt joined with the North German Confederation. Paris fell after some resistance. By the treaty of Frankfurt, peace was concluded in 1871. France surrendered Alsace and Lorraine to Germany. She had also to pay a huge war indemnity. The finishing touch to the unification of Germany was given in 1871 by the proclamation of Kaiser Willaim I as the first Emperor of United Germany in the famous “Hall of Mirrors” at Versailles. Bismarck, the Iron Chancellor, richly deserved to be called the “Maker of Modern Germany”.

UNIT IV

THE EASTERN QUESTION

(a) Definition

The Eastern Question (or near Eastern Question) played an important part in the European politics in the nineteenth century. At the end of the eighteenth century the Near Eastern question assumed its modern form. Three factors determined it:

1. The growing weakness of the Turks at Constantinople,
2. The rise of small, vigorous Christian nationalities in the Balcan peninsula, and
3. The effect of both on the policy of the great powers.

Between the years 1788 and 1791 Austria and Russia attacked Turkey in Concerto. At that time Russia asserted that she was the protector of Christians in the Turkish Empire. Russia advanced as far as the port of Oczakov on the Black Sea. England denounced Russia's advance. Austria also was moderate towards Turkey and henceforth sought to protect her. England and Australia, by 1791, had recognised that Turkey was a menace, because of her weakness.

The problem of Turkey was that it frequently created mutual jealousies and rancour among the European rulers. Historian Hayes says that the basic importance of Turkey before the Continental statesmen between 1855 to 1870 was whether Turkey was to be wiped out of Europe or not; and if it was to be wiped out, what was to take her place".

C.D.Hazen observes, in the following way: "The Near Western Question may be defined as a problem of filling up the vacuum created by the gradual disappearance of the Turkish Empire from Europe".

(b) Decay of the Turkish or Ottoman Empire.

Turkey is situated in the far of the South corner of Europe, a part of it touches Western Asia and another North Africa. After the Crusades, the Christian States of Balkan had made much impact on the Turks. There were trade and political compromises between the European Kingdom and Turkey. But the Cultural and religious differences continued to exist. The European Christian Kingdom did not recognise the Islamic Turkey as a part of Europe till 1815. Turkey was considered as a part of Asia. After 1815 the large territory of Turkey began to shrink. Hungary, Tranylvania, Bessarabia and a few regions near the Black Sea were separated from Turkey. Thus the Turkish distintegration started. The Christian kingdom of Turkey started including in the national movements, it created serious problems for the European Kingdom to solve. This is what is known as the Eastern Question.

(c) The Subject Peoples of Turkey

The Turks, an Asiatic Mohammedan people, had conquered southeastern Europe in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. They had subdued many different races, the Greeks, the Rumanians, the Albanians, and the great Slavic race. The Turks had contempt for them, and did not attempt to assimilate them. They were satisfied with exploiting them. These Christians suffered under Mohammedan oppression. They only waited for their hour of deliverance. But the Wars of Liberation of the Balkan peoples from the Turks were not yet over in the third decade of the twentieth century.

Revolution in the Balkans (a) SERBIA

It was the Serbs, and not the Greeks, who strict the first below for Balkan freedom. The revolt began in 1804 under Kara (Black) George. It was a story of heroic fights and bloody massacres on both sides. The rebels

drove the Turks from Serbia for a time. But Kara George was defeated in 1813. The Turks regained Serbia. In 1815 Kara's rival Milos Obrenovic raised another revolt. The Serbs got aid from the Russians. Milos wanted complete autonomy for Serbia. He continued his struggle till 1830 and secured a Constitution. A decree of the Sultan made him hereditary Prince of the Serbians. Serbia ceased to be a mere Turkish province, and became a tributary to the Sultan. This was the first state to arise out of European Turkey in the 19th century. This attracted little attention in Europe.

(b) The Greek War of Independence (1821-1829)

The next to rise against the hated oppressor was the Greeks. The outcome of the revolt was that Greece became a Kingdom, entirely independent of Turkey.

Thus a new Christian state had been created in South Eastern Europe. The following were the causes of the Greek War:

1. Cultural Nationalism of Korais

The Greek racial unity had been preserved beneath an active and common religious life. Ancient Greek literature was read. Their Hellenic Consciousness was awakened by the literary revival at the end of the 18th century. One of the pioneers of the new Greek nationalism was Adamantios Korais. He had grasped the enlightened philosophy of Western Europe. He devoted himself to patriotic propaganda among his fellow countrymen. The cultural nationalism of Korais heralded a national uprising.

2. Political nationalism of Constantine Rhigas

Another middle-class Greek, Constantine Rhigas, had an enthusiasm for French Revolutionary principles. He composed patriotic verses and founded secret societies to work for Greek independence. He was shot dead in 1794, as an early 'martyr' to the cause of Greek nationalism.

3. Greeks were regarded as Atheists

The Sultan of Turkey was a Mohammedan, and treated the Greeks as atheists. For this reason he maltreated them.

4. Society of Friends

A political union was established in Greece, which was called 'Society of Friends'. By its efforts, national cause was promoted.

5. Serbian revolt

The Serbian revolt inspired the Greeks much. The Greeks now started dreaming about their freedom by revolting against Turkey.

6. The Russian help

Russia helped the Greeks secretly against Turkey. The Tzar promised substantial help to them. It exhorted them a great deal.

7. The revolt by Mehemet Ali

The ruler of Egypt Mehemet Ali also revolted against Turkey. Turkey was busy in suppressing the revolt. Now Greece, taking the opportunity started its revolt against Turkey.

Growth of War

(i) Early Revolts

As early as 1814 some Greeks had established at Odessa a society named the Hetairia Philike to overthrow the Turkish rule. This society gradually developed its strength.

In 1821 prince Alexander Ypsilanti of Greece revolted against Turkey, in Moldavia and Wallachia. Russia did not arrive. Ypsilanti was imprisoned.

(ii) Real insurrection in the Morea

The Greeks did not give up for independence. In 1821, they rebelled in the Morea, and began a war which did not end until they had achieved their independence in 1829. The Morean insurrection was the work of the Hetairia-Philike. It was also a national movement. The insurrection was spontaneous and unorganised.

(iii) Intervention of Mehemet Ali

During the first six years they fought alone against the Turks. The war was one of utter atrocities on both sides. The course of events changed, when unexpectedly Turkey asked for the help of Mehemet Ali of Egypt. Mehemet Ali's son Ibrahim Pasha conducted the Campaign against the Greeks; he devastated Crete in 1824 and reached the Morea in 1825. His base was Navarino. He indulged in awful slaughter and annihilation. He captured Missolonghi in 1826, where the famous English poet Lord Byron was killed. Athens fell in 1827, and the Greek cause was on the point of collapse.

(iv) Alexander and Metternich

Tzar Alexander, now the most faithful henchman of Metternich, restrained his own subjects from giving aid to revolutionaries until his death in 1825. The successor Nicholas I was not sympathetic towards the Greeks.

(v) Attitude of Europe

Before 1827, it was evident that outside intervention could not be much longer delayed. The more liberal Canning had taken Castlereagh's place in Britain. Russia would not see the triumph of Turkey nor England the destruction of Hellenism. Popular sentiment was in favour of Greek insurgents in France, Britain and in Russia also. Canning did not want,

Russian interference, in favour of Greece. It would make Greece a satellite of Russia.

Metternich did not want to see Russia intervene in Greece. It was because Russian influence in the Balkans would alter the balance of power. Moreover, Russian aid to Greece would be a betrayal of the Holy Alliance.

Nicholas joined the British in calling upon the Sultan to give the Greeks autonomy.

(vi) Anglo - Russian Agreement

When the Sultan refused to give autonomy to the Greeks, Russia and Britain made an agreement in April, 1826. By this they were to offer joint mediation to Turkey. Greece was to be independent but was to pay tribute to Turkey.

(vii) Turkey's Convention with Russia and the Treaty of London.

The Sultan signed a convention with Russia. By this Turkey was to quit the principalities and bow down to the dictates of the Tzar.

Britain, France and Russia concluded an alliance on July 6, 1827 in London. The declared object was securing Greek independence. England thus abandoned her policy of non-intervention. While the Greeks agreed to have the mediation of three big powers in August 1827, Turkey which was overconfident refused. A naval battle at Navarino (na-va-no) in October 20, 1827, resulted in the destruction of the Turkish fleet. The following year Russia declared war upon Turkey. This Russo-Turkish war (1828-29) lasted over a year. In the first campaign the Russians were unsuccessful, but redoubling their efforts, and under better leadership, they crossed the Balkans, and marched rapidly towards Constantinople. The Sultan was

obliged to yield and the treaty of Adrianople was signed with Russia in September 14, 1829.

(viii) Treaty of Adrianople

By the settlement, the Sultan acknowledged the independence of Greece. He confirmed the grant of partial autonomy to Serbia and likewise to Moldavia and Wallachia. He surrendered claims on Georgia and other provinces on the Caucasus to Russia. He also recognised the exclusive jurisdiction of Russian consuls over Russian traders in Turkey.

The treaty was a treaty of first-rate importance in the history of the dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire. Russian influence increased in the Balkan Peninsula. The Sultan's power in Europe was therefore considerably reduced.

Russia would have been content with the erection of Greece into a vassal State, autonomous but tributary. This solution was not acceptable to the British Government. Wellington and Mettemich (of Austria) were now compelled by the force of circumstances to recognize Greece as a sovereign and independent state.

(ix) Creation of the Kingdom of Greece

In February 1830 an international conference in London fixed the Greek frontier, and in 1833 Otto, a lad of seventeen, second son of King Louis-I of Bavaria, became the first King of Greece (as King Otto-I) Nationalism and liberalism had borne fruit. A new Christian state had been created in southeastern Europe. And Greece got rid of Russian influence at once.

The liberation of Greece made the first significant change in the map of Europe since the Congress of Vienna, in the face of Metternich's desire

to freeze the 'status quo' the victory was Won; In this way the first serious breach was made in the integrity of the Ottoman Empire.

(B) THE TURKO-EGYPTIANWAR, 1839-41

1. Introduction

It was in fact, not Russia but France which was active in a policy of dismembering Turkey during the period 1839-41. This is the time when she secured Algiers; it is the period also when she favoured the revolt of Egypt against Turkey. England was anxious to preserve Turkish Empire.

The real trouble laid in Egypt. There. Mehemet Ali was the bold and ambitious Pasha (Governor). He had long been in only nominal subordination to the Sultan. He had already become Pasha of Crete. He hoped to add the pashaiike (province) of Syria and Damascus to that of Egypt.

2. Egypt's Desire to be completely Independent

The Sultan was jealous and suspicious and listened to the enemies of Mehemet. So Sultan Mehmud-II was reorganizing his army along European lines with the help of the German adviser Moltke. Sutlan's objective was to crush Mehemet Ali. In Syria Mehemet Ali began to consolidate his position in 1837. In 1838 he made it clear to the British Consul in Alexandria that he had finally decided to be completely independent of Turkey.

3. Palmerton's Aims

The British were perturbed and Palmerstone gave serious thought of protecting British interests in the Middle East. He pursued a policy with three aims:

1. He wanted to prevent further disintegration of the Ottoman Empire by Mehemet Ali.

2. His second aim was to make the Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi ineffective by superseding it by a new treaty.
3. And the third objective was to ensure that Russia and France did not collaborate.

At any moment war was likely to break out in 1839, as the Ottoman and Egyptian troops were poised for attacking each other. Sultan - Mahmud was prepared to be just as treacherous towards Egypt as he intended to be to Russia.

4. Power wanted Amicable Settlement

While the circumstance was grave, the chances of war gradually receded. But nobody could be absolutely sure of anything, because conditions were fluctuating and the various countries were reacting in different ways. Britain, France, Russia, Prussia and Austria wanted peace. They suggested that Turkey and Egypt should reach an amicable settlement. Their advice, however, did not prevail, as the attitude of both was unreasonable.

5. Turkish army to Bir

Sultan Mahmud had a chance of success against Ibrahim, for he had speedily alienated his Syrian subjects by his tyranny. In April 1839 Sultan sent a Turkish army to Bir on the Euphrates. It crossed from the left to the right bank. Now it could strike at Ibrahim's communications between Palestine and the Adana ports.

6. The Battle of Nezib and Sultan's Demise

The Great powers at once got alarmed. It was agreed to send a joint French- British squadron to the Bosphorus, in case the Russians entered Turkey. It was too late. The Turks moved against Ibrahim early in June

1839. The war commenced. Three severe blows followed in relentless successions. On the 24th Ibrahim utterly routed the Turks at Nezib capturing 15,000 prisoners with their guns and stores. On July 1st Mahmud died and was succeeded by Abdul Majid, an ignorant boy of sixteen. Most surprisingly the Turkish Admiral sailed off to Alexandria and surrendered to Mehemet Ali. The whole of Europe was shocked to hear that, in three weeks Turkey had lost her Sultan, her army and her fleet”.

7. British Headache

Mehemet Ali was proud of the triumphs of his son and of Egyptian army. He thought he could retain his prizes and power. But he had gravely miscalculated. He could not defy Palmerstone, the British Statesman.

Palmerstone thought of preventing French help to Mehemet Ali. France was not ready to co-operate with Britain to check the moves of Mehemet Ali. Therefore, Palmerstone issued orders for the movement of the British squadron to Alexandria. It was a preventive measure against Mehemet Ali. The French favoured Mehemet Sultan. He, therefore, sounded the other powers, which advised Turkey not to make any treaty or agreement with Mehemet Ali.

8. Anglo-French Disagreement Regarding Mehemet Ali

Palmerston lost hope of French Co-operation in dealing with Mehemet Ali. So he thought of breaking connections with France and placing the matter before a conference of big powers. His plan was to blockade Syria with the help of the big powers for compelling Mehemet Ali to surrender the Turkish fleet. Palmerston's main concern was to prevent Turkey approaching Russia for military help. Russia told Britain that she would help her to check the progress of Ibrahim pasha even though France would not co-operate. Palmerston sent a message to France that Britain

would act in concert with Russia, Austria and Prussia even if France kept away. Palmerston heard the news from some source that France would protect Mehemet Ali, as his fleet in the Mediterranean could be useful to France, when she could wage War against Britain. But conditions changed in March, 1840, when Thiers came to power. Thiers was in favour of Anglo-French, friendship and of continuing her membership of the concert of Five powers, but at the same time he wanted Mehemet Ali to be in possession of Syria. Thiers was bound to fail because he was trying to bring two contradictions together. Thiers was not agreeable to the British policy of cutting the power of Mehemet Ali.

9. Anglo-Turkish and France-Turkish Talks

The Turkish ambassador reached London. He said his country was ready to make Mehemet Ali the Governor of Egypt for settling the matter amicably. France did not show any interest in the Turko-British London talks. At the same time Turko-French talks were being held at Constantinople. Palmerstone got a convention signed in London on July 15, 1840, with Austria, Prussia and Russia. The terms were that Mehemet Ali and his successors were given Governorship of Egypt. He was to be given Acre and South Syria for life; Mohamed Ali did not evacuate all other conquests and accepted these terms within ten days, he was henceforth to be confined to Egypt alone.

10. Triumph over another Opponent Mehemet Ali

Mehemet Ali rejected the terms offered to him by the powers. On August 11, 1840 the British and Australian squadrons appeared off Beirut and demanded Egyptian evacuation of Syria. On September 9, Admiral Stopford bombarded the town and landed a Turkish force. On October 9 he captured Beirut. Syria at once rose in revolt against Ibrahim, and the British

Squadron moved on to Acre, on November 3 Admiral Stopford destroyed it in three hours.

Ibrahim felt the danger. He prepared hastily to evacuate Syria. Egypt itself was then in danger. The boy-Sultan had plucked up courage to depose Mehemet Ali. Mehemet Ali hoped to get over it. But he changed his tone when Admiral Napier appeared before Alexandria and threatened to use cannon. Mehemet Ali signed a convention on November 27, 1840 by which he was to keep Egypt permanently, but to retire from Syria.

In February, 1841, the Sultan was persuaded to make Mohamed Ali, the hereditary Governor of Egypt. A Convention was signed on July 13, 1841. By it the Great powers and the Sultan pledged not to permit vessels of war belonging to foreign powers' to enter the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus. All peace lovers welcomed the settlement.

C.THE CRIMEAN WAR (1853-56)

1. Introduction

The Crimean War occupies a peculiar place in the history of Europe in the nineteenth century. The military methods resemble those of the Napoleonic age. Steam vessels were used, but their full importance was not appreciated. Constantinople and the Crimea were still beyond the reach of the telegraph. All that concerned the feeding and the sanitation of the armies was almost medieval in character. It was the last war on a large scale to be fought without the help of the modern resources of science.

2. Causes of the Crimean War

(a) Rivalry between Britain and Russia

Russia wanted to bring Turkey under his influence and control. The Tzar of Russia proposed to England that she should take Cyprus, Crete and Egypt from the Turkish Empire and the rest of it should be given to the

Tzar. But England declined to accept the resolution. When Russia tried to make inroads into the Turkish Empire, Britain felt annoyed and irritated. Britain wanted to maintain Turkish Empire in order to curb the advance of Russia.

(b) Question of Balance of Power

The true cause of the Crimean War was the question of balance of power and not the question of the custody of the Christian Holy places in the Ottoman Empire. The Big powers suspected each other. They closely watched the moves of each other in connection with every problem having relationship with decaying Turkey.

(c) Hostility between Russia and France

The relations, between Napoleon III and the Tzar of Russia, were strained. The main cause of it was that the Tzar was not recognising Napoleon III as the emperor of France.

(d) Tzar's Ambitions

The Tzar could have easily found ways and means to find a solution to the dispute between France and Russia regarding the custody of Holy piece in Palestine. But he avoided the road to peace because he was ambitious and wanted to take undue advantage of Turkey's decline. The occupation of Constantinople by Russian troops might be necessary, but the Tzar would not hold it permanently. He would not permit any other power to establish itself at Bosphorus. The Tzar wanted to have his way up to the Mediterranean for the purpose of colonial expansion.

e. Interference by Emperor Napoleon

In Palestine, in the Ottoman Empire, there were Holy places in and around Jerusalem. These were looked after by monks belonging to the Latin

(or Roman Catholics) or Greek and Russian Churches. The monks of these two churches never got on well. According to the treaty of 1740, France had secured from Turkey the custody of holy places in and around Jerusalem. As the Latin monks were not very particular about the enjoyment of their rights, the custodianship of the Holy places fell into the hands of the Greek monks.

Traditionally, the Latin monks sought French protection and the Greek monk's Russian protection. During the French Revolution, the Greek monks were able to enlarge their rights at the cost of the Latin monks. The main dispute was regarding the key of certain Holy places and the keeping of a star decorated with the arms of France inside the Church of the Nativity (at Bethlehem)

The French Government had a traditional right to be considered the protector of the Christians in the East. **Now** the Tzars had begun to put forward their own claims. Genuine religious feeling came to strengthen national rivalry and political ambition. But of all these causes the condition of the Balkan Peninsula was the most important.

f. Immediate cause

The situation became grave only when the Tzar sent to Constantinople Prince Menschikov demanding various concessions. He also demanded the recognition of the Russian claim to be accepted as the protector of the Christians of the Balkan peninsula. The Chief party on the other side was Lord Stratford, Canning. He feared and disliked Russia. He was determined of Turkey even at the risk of War. He advised the Sultan not to recognize the Russian protectorate of the Balkan Christians. In May 1853 Menschikov left Constantinople in protest against this decision.

National ambition, rivalry, and fear are the motives which impelled the nations to what proved a severe struggle.

The Groupism

There were two parties involved in the War. On the one side were England, France, Italy, and Turkey and on the other was Russia alone. Austria and Prussia remained neutral on the war.

Events of the War

The war came when a Russian army in July 1853 occupied Moldavia and Wallachia. A conference was called at Vienna but it did not stop the War. Passion was growing hot in Russia and Turkey. On October 4, 1853, Turkey declared war against Russia.

Support of Turkey and jealousy of Russia were traditional in the foreign policy of England. The spread of Russian power into the Mediterranean would, threaten Egypt and the road to India.

Napoleon III wanted to maintain the prestige of France in the East and to give the country glory and victory. At the end of October 1853 the joint French and English fleets passed the Dardanelles to give their moral support to Turkey. They were in the neighborhood of Constantinople. At that time a Russian fleet attacked and destroyed a Turkish squadron near Sinope. The two great Western Powers, France and Britain, declared war on Russia in March 1854. Sardinia, which wanted help from the powers for Italian unification, joined the war on January 26, 1855.

The Crimean War was fought on two stages

1. March to July, 1854 and
2. September, 1854, to September 1855.

March to July, 1854

In the first stage, Russia laid siege to Silistria. The British and the French armies went to the support of Silistria. Austria gave an ultimatum to Russia. Russia evacuated the principalities. Austria occupied these principalities during the remaining part of the war. The Allies sent a note to Russia demanding the removal of the Russian protectorate over the Danubian provinces. The Tzar agreed too many demands after much hesitation in November, 1854.

September, 1854, to September, 1855.

The Allies determined to attack the Russian naval station of Sebastopol. The Allies Turks, French, and English - opened their offensive in the Crimea. They won the Battle of Alma and laid siege to Sebastopol. In October, 1854, they were victorious in the Battle of Balaclava and in the next month in the Battle of Inkerman. In August 1855, the French and the Sardinians scored the third victory in the Battle of Tehehena. On September 8, 1855, Sebastopol surrendered to the Allies. It was accomplished after a siege of 336 days and an enormous expenditure in human lives.

Treaty of Paris

Peace was finally made by the Congress of Paris. The Treaty of Paris was signed March 30, 1856. The treaty provided that the Black Sea should not be open to vessels of War, even of those countries bordering on it Russia and Turkey. The river Danube was internationalized. The Danubian principalities were more to be Russian Protectorates. They were fully independent with the exception that the Sultan was to exercise nominal sovereignty over them. Turkey promised to give a humane treatment to his Christian subjects. The most important clause was that European powers

admitted Turkey to the European family of states. The powers agreed not to interfere with Turkey's internal affairs.

Consequences of the Crimean War

As a solution of the Eastern Question the war was a flat failure. The promise of the Sultan that the lot of his Christian subjects should be improved was never kept. Their condition became worse.

(a) Great change in European politics and Diplomacy

The Crimean War "inaugurated two decades of upheaval, of national reconstruction and international readjustment that fundamentally transformed the states system of Europe and shifted the Balance of Power".

(b) Setback to Russia

Russian influence in the Balkans and the Black Sea suffered great erosion. For many years Russia's military power in the Black Sea area could not be felt. Russia felt bitter about the Treaty of Paris. She tried to be free from the neutralization clause regarding the Black Sea. Russia started advancing towards Asia. It made England apprehensive. She tried to curb Russia's advance in the East. It resulted in Anglo-Russian rivalry.

(c) Turkey saved from dismemberment

The vigour of Turkey was revived. All European powers recognized its worth. Two independent Kingdoms of Moldavia and Wallachia were established. The new lease of life was got by the Ottoman Empire.

(d) Encouragement to Italian Unification Movement

Sardinia participated in the Crimean war helping the allies. The Great powers had sympathy for Cavour, the prime Minister, of Sardinia. Italian

unification movement received encouragement and support from the powers.

(e) Russo-Austrian friendship broken

The Crimean War broke the long friendship between Russia and Austria-Hungary. This was because Austria-Hungary did not help Russia in the War, though Austria had received help from Russia, when Hungarians revolted against her.

(f) End of Metternich Era

The Crimean war put an end to the era of Metternich; The Treaty of Paris enabled Germany and Italy to be strong-Austrian power lost influence by their unification movements.

(g) Reforms of Russia

Tzar Alexander II introduced many reforms in Russia to win the support of the people. This was an indirect result of the Crimean War.

(h) Medical science

Considerable progress was made in medical science. Florence Nightingale served the ailing humanity. The wounded were looked after by her, and many were saved.

(i) Heavy Loss

The war involved heavy material losses and huge man-power was also destroyed. The national debt of England rose to 41 million, and it evidently did not gain by it.

(j) French gains

Though France gained little by the Crimean War, Napoleon gained much. Until the advent of Bismarck his influence upon the continent was almost supreme. The war gained him the friendship of Russia.

Thus the victors in the struggle gained little. The integrity of Turkey was in fact not maintained. The advance of Russia was not permanently checked, yet the war provides us with an instructive illustration of the way in which wars are brought about.

(D)THE RUSSO TURKISH WAR (1877-1878)

(a) Introduction

In 1875 the Eastern Question entered once more upon an acute phase. In Europe itself the only field for expansion was offered by the unrest in the Balkans and the increasing decay of Turkey. Here Russia was like the most interested and ambitious of powers, and it was difficult for Germany to oppose her. For it was due to Russia's good will and support that Bismarck had triumphed over all his enemies. The years between 1870 and 1878 were the opportunity of Russia in Europe.

Under the rule of Alexander I Russia had suffered. His successor Nicholas I applied stern repression. Corruption and inefficiency discredited the Russian Government. The problem before his son Alexander II was to secure peace and to build up a new Russia. He emancipated the Serfs; carried out enlightened reforms.

Under foreign policy the Russian Government had a last hit upon an illuminating idea. In Europe the persistent advance to Constantinople was effected. She adopted a pan-Slavish policy in Europe. The powerful weapon for propaganda was first used in the days of Alexander I. The first ethnic conference, uniting all members of the Slav race, was held at Prague in

1848. Russia was crippled in material force by France and England in 1856. Alexander II tried to turn the Slav people of the Balkans into the satellites of the Russian planet.

(b) Reopening of the Eastern Question

In the summer of 1875 an insurrection broke out in Herzegovina, a Turkish province west of Serbia. For years the peasantry had suffered from misrule. These peasants were slaves. Bosnia, Serbia, and Bulgarians aided the peasants. Religious and racial hatred of Christian and Slav against the infidel Turk flamed up throughout the peninsula.

(c) The Bulgarian Atrocities

Early in 1876 the Christians in Bulgaria, a large province of European Turkey, rose against the Turkish officials, killing some of them. The revenge taken by the Turks was of incredible atrocity. The Turks tried to crush the rising of the Bulgarians by wholesome massacres. In the valley of the Maritiza all but fifteen of eighty villages were destroyed. In Batak, a town of 7000 inhabitants, five thousand was savagely slaughtered. The Bulgarian atrocities thrilled all Europe with horror. Gladstone condemned it. The public opinion of Europe was aroused.

(d) Russia Declares War upon Turkey. (1877-1878)

In July, 1876, Serbia and Montenegro declared war against Turkey, and the insurrection of the Bulgarians became general. The Russian people became intensely excited in their sympathy with their co-religionists and their fellow Slavs. Finally the Russia government declared war upon Turkey, on April, 24, 1877. The war lasted until the close of January 1878.

Abdul Hamid had become Sultan. He believed that England would support him against Russia, as she had done in the Crimean War. He was mistaken.

Russia on the other hand had the support of Serbia, Montenegro, Rumania and Bulgaria. Fierce fighting broke out at the stronghold of Plevna in Bulgaria. The Russians were held up by the military genius of Osman pasha. Behind earthworks this heroic Turk repelled all assaults and immobilised the European forces of Russia for nearly five months. Finally Todleben, the forgotten hero of Sebastopol, drew lines around him that proved too strong to be broken when the gallant Turk made his last effort. Osman surrendered in December 1877. Before the end of January 1878 Skobeler the most brilliant of the Russian generals, had opened the way to Adrianople on the 28th. The Turks were everywhere in retreat.

The Serbs had re-entered the war and captured the important strategic centre of Nish; Prince Nicholas of Montenegro had seized Spizza and Duleigno. In Asia the Russians had been victorious everywhere. Abdul Hamid sued for peace; and an armistice was agreed on January 31, 1878.

Peace was fairly well assured between Russia and Turkey. It was not assured between England and Russia. The Russian army moved within sight of Constantinople. The British fleet was in the waters of Principia Island. The danger seemed great. But Russia was worn out and exhausted. It was a risk to fight with England, a new enemy.

Russia took the wisest course under the circumstances, and signed a separate peace with the Turks on March 3, 1878 at San Stefano.

c) Controversial Treaty of Stefano, 1878.

By this treaty, Turkey (The ports) recognized the complete independence of Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania, and made certain cessions of territory to the two former states. The main feature of the treaty concerned Bulgaria was that it became a self-governing state, tributary to the Sultan. Its frontiers were liberally drawn. Far-reaching reforms in favour of Christians were to be introduced in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The States of Bosphorus and Dardeelles were to be thrown open for peaceful commerce. Turkish forts along the Danube were to be pulled down. Russia was to be given a slice of Armenia, a piece of Dobrudja and she was to receive a large war indemnity. Sultan was to introduce reforms in Albania.

f) Opposition to the Treaty and the Berlin Congress (1878)

The treaty was opposed by Austria-Hungary and Great Britain. England feared Russian expansion southwards towards the Mediterranean. She declared that the Treaty of San Stefano must be submitted to a general congress. The British view was not determined by any consideration but that of resistance to Russia. Great Britain and Austria-Hungary demanded a European Congress for revising the terms of San Stefano. Russia must abandon the plan of a Big Bulgaria.

Russia agreed to participate in a congress, and Bismarck agreed to act as "honest broker". The decisions taken by the congress came to be called the Berlin settlement.

The treaty of Berlin was signed on July 13, 1878. By the treaty Montenegro, Serbia and Rumania were independent of Turkey. But Bulgaria was divided into three parts. One part of the division called Macedonia, was handed back to Turkey. Another was called Eastern Rumania, but to have a Christian Governor. The disposition of Macedonia

was a colossal blunder. Austria was invited to occupy and administer Bosnia and Herzegovina. England was to occupy Cyprus.

Disraeli's policy in Asia speedily came to **naught**. **British** Military consults to Armenia proved useless. In 1886 (July) Russia began to fortify Batum against the Treaty of Berlin. So neither Russia nor Turkey upheld Disraeli's Asiatic policy. The Sultan never attempted to keep his promises of reform in Asia.

In Europe Disraeli's policy, though not successful, was not irremediable. The blunder by which Bulgaria was separated from Rumania was ultimately set right. The enlargement of Bulgaria produced her liberation from Russia.

The treaty was nothing short of a compromise but it bore the seeds of future catastrophes. So it proved to be a kind of temporary compromise.

(E) YOUNG TURK MOVEMENT 1908

a) Introduction

The Eastern Question entered upon a new and starting phase in the summer of 1908. In July a swift, sweeping, and pacific revolution occurred in Turkey. The young Turks, a revolutionary, seized control of the government.

The causes of this movement are as follows:

1. Abdul Hamid II (ab-dol-ha-mad) ascended the throne of Turkey in 1876 and continued to rule Turkey upto 1909. He introduced a liberal constitution in Turkey and still he had to face opposition by the reactionaries. At last the Sultan resorted-to violence, abandoning the liberal policy. It created a general discontent among the Turks.

2. Many big powers had made their groups against the Turkish Empire. Hence she had some fear about them.
3. The economic condition of Turkey was in a mess. She had to depend on the foreign aid.
4. The people of the Balkans were another source of terror and stir in Turkey. The rise of nationalism in the Balkans inspired Rumania, Bulgaria, Serbia and Montenegro to cast off the Turkish yoke. The other Kingdoms of Balkans started envying them. They also aspired for their own freedom.
5. The tide of nationalism had already swept over Armenia, Albania and other areas.
6. The Sultan adopted an autocratic policy towards his subjects. There were several defects in his administrative system which created stir among the people and they resorted to revolution.

Because of these reasons the Turks were opposing the Sultan.

b) Rise of Kamal Pasha

The Turks felt the impact of the liberal ideas of the west and reacted strongly against the tyrannical Government of Sultan Abdul Hamid Kamal Pasha, a Turkish statesman, was a Wazir (Vizier) for six years from 1887 and again in 1906. He came to the conclusion that a liberal and constitutional government on the lines of Great Britain must be set up in Turkey. He retired from his office with the intention of spreading liberal ideas. He was surrounded by a large number of educated “liberal” Turks.

c) Young Turks

There were many young men in Turkey who were more radical than Kamal Pasha and they formed secret societies and carried on propaganda in favour of establishing a national state in Turkey. These people were called

young Turks. The young Turks in exile had long planned and plotted for a Republic and a constitution. Their headquarters was at **Paris**. Gradually, the Turks within the country itself took the initiative of having a movement independent of pashas in 1905. In 1891 a committee (the young Turks) was formed in Geneva. Committees were formed in European and Asiatic Turkey with their headquarters shifted to Salonica.

d) Planned Revolution

There was anarchy in Macedonia and the Great powers were tempted to intervene. However, the young Turks were against any type of foreign intervention. Their programme was a strike of the troops at a critical moment. For this purpose the Third Army Corps which was stationed in Macedonia was chosen. The Sultan had spread his detectives (spies) to all the nooks and corners of the Empire. Fearing discovery, the Committee of Union and Progress planned a rising for September 1908.

e) Aims of the Young Turks

The Young Turks programmed to:

1. Transform the Ottoman Empire into a Modern European State.
2. To give a genuine parliamentary constitution to Turkey.
3. To proclaim the principle of religious and intellectual liberty.
4. To emancipate the press.
5. To promote intercourse with the progressive nations of the world.
6. To encourage education.
7. To promote trade.
8. To eradicate the last relics of Medievalism.

On July 23, 1908 the Committee of Union and Progress suddenly raised the standard of revolt at Salonica, and demanded the restoration of

the abortive Turkish constitution of 1876. Abdul Hamid rendered the application of force superfluous by conceding everything demanded of him. The Sultan conceded seeing the ominous defection of the army. He “restored” on July 24, 1908 the constitution of 1876 and ordered elections for a parliament.

Thus tyranny was instantly swept away. This revolution was completely successful and almost bloodless. Everybody joined in jubilant celebrations of the release from intolerable conditions. Racial and religious hatreds were not visible. The revolution proved to be the most fraternal movement in modern history.

Elected members of parliament in December 1908 at Constantinople for discussing the reforms to be introduced.

Deposition of Abdul Hamid

Abdul Hamid took undue advantage of differences of opinion among nationalists and began his tyrannical rule again. Therefore, he was deposed and imprisoned in 1909. His brother was appointed as the new sultan. He ruled Turkey for nine years (1909-1916) as Mohammed-V.

g) Impact of the Revolution

The revolution had its impact felt in the Balkans. Bulgaria became independent and its ruler assumed the title of King. Bosnia and Herzegovina were annexed by Austria-Hungary.

For nine years from 1909 to 1918 the young Turks ruled in a dictatorial manner. Aggressive nationalism was their policy. Turkish was declared as the official language of the Ottoman Empire. Military service for all citizens was made compulsory.

The Arabs of Asia and the Christians of Europe resisted their policy of Turkification. As the young Turks became more and more fanatical and aggressive, Italy declared war on Turkey in 1911. Italy wanted to secure Tripoli and Cyrenaica in North Africa. Great trouble broke out in the Balkans. So peace was made with Italy in Lausanne in October 1912. Tripoli was surrendered to Italy.

F) The Balkan States

1. Greece

The first inroad upon the integrity of Turkish empire was made by the Greeks. The Kingdom of the Hellenes was established by the Treaty of London in 1832. Thus the first of the Nation-States of the Balkans was re-born.

2. Greece After 1833

In January 1833 Otto became the King of Greece. The kingdom was small with unsatisfactory boundaries. The country had been devastated by war.

King Otto reigned from 1833 to 1862. He had several Bavarians as officers. Athens was made the capital and a university was established there. A police system was organized and a national bank was created. From 1844 Otto became a constitutional monarch. A bi-cameral legislature was instituted. The Government did not defy Europe.

Then came the ruler George-I who ruled from 1863 to 1913. England in 1864 ceded to the Kingdom the Ionian Islands. In 1881 she got Thessaly from the Sultan. In 1897 Greece was defeated by Turkey. Crete was made autonomous under the Sultan.

3. Moldavia and Wallachia

A second state came into being as a result of the Crimean War. By the Treaty of Paris (1856) Moldavia and Wallachia obtained their independence.

4. Bulgaria After 1878

The Treaty of Berlin, did not bring peace to the Balkan peninsula. In 1885 Bulgaria was enlarged by the addition of Eastern Rumania. Bulgaria aspired to annex Macedonia. She was preparing herself to renounce her nominal connection with Turkey. The opportunity came in 1908. On October 5th, 1908 Bulgaria declared her independence, and her prince assumed the title of Tzar. Later history of Bulgaria may be described in connection with the Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913.

5. The Kingdom of Rumania

In 1881 Rumania proclaimed herself a kingdom, and her prince styled himself King Charles. Rumania proceeded to create an army on Prussian models to build railroads and highways, and to improve the conditions of the peasantry.

6. The Kingdom of Serbia

Serbia also was recognized as independent by the Berlin Treaty in 1878. She proclaimed herself a Kingdom in 1882. In 1885 she declared war against Bulgaria, only to be defeated. The financial policy was deplorable. The scandals of the private life of King Milan utterly discredited the monarchy. Milan was forced to abdicate in 1889. He was succeeded by his twelve-year-old-son. Alexander I was murdered in 1903 with his wife in a midnight palace revolution. The new King, Peter I found his position most untenable. A new chapter of Serbian history began with the Balkan war of 1912-13.

7. Balance Altered

The balance was altered in the Balkans, Rumania was pro-German and pro-Austrian, but Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro were all pro-Russian. And in 1903 Turkey in Europe seemed to be breaking up. Macedonia was worst governed than ever; Abdul Haid was getting old and losing his grip. In 1897 Austria-Hungary and Russia had a greed on maintaining the "Status quo" in the Balkans. They agreed to keep peace and avoided raising difficulties.

8. The Bosnian Crisis (1908-9)

By the Treaty of Berlin (1878) Austria - Hungary was given the right to occupy and administer Bosnia, Herzegovina and the Sanjak of Novi-bazar. For three decades Austria continued to administer the territory without annexation. However in September 1908, a bargain was struck between Aehrenthal-Foreign Minister of Austria and Izvolski- Foreign Minister of Russia. This evil Bargain was known as Buchlau Bargain. Aehrenthal agreed to open the Straits to Russian Ships of war. Russia agreed the Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

9. Austria annexed Bosnia

Austria violated the Treaty of Berlin (1878) by proclaiming the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina on October 7th, 1908. Even Germany was not informed in time. Austria's allies were annoyed. Austria could not keep her promise and opened the Straits to Russian Warships. Because Britain and France were opposed to such an act. Russia became a victim of faithlessness on the part of Austria.

10. Serbian Reaction

The news of annexation caused great excitement in Serbia. Serbia was prepared for war. She ran to Russia to get help from the Tzar. Other

European countries were also approached. The Serbians also demanded compensation. Russia was unprepared for war.

Excitement and agitation continued to increase in Serbia, Bosnia and Croatia. Germany's firm decision was to support Austria, if war broke out. Russia put forth sustained effort to get an international conference and tried to pacify Serbia. But here she failed badly.

11. Agitation and Suppression

Demonstrations were made against Austria. Austrian Government resorted to a policy of repression. Arrests of Serbians on a large scale were made and the trouble makers were severely punished. As the situation went out of control, the Austrian Government sent the army to the frontier. Russia advised the Serbians to remain peaceful.

12. Attitude of Turkey

The Turks wanted to wage a war against Austria. But no European state was prepared to "give them armed assistance. Turkey accepted a cash payment as a compensation for giving up their nominal sovereignty over Bosnia and Herzegovina.

13. Germany's Role

At a later stage Germany put forward her own plan in March 1909 to avoid an armed conflict. The German proposal had certain advantages. This does not change the Treaty of Berlin without the approval of the powers concerned. It avoided the humiliation of Russia. Serbia should recognize the annexation. Serbia surrendered to the dictates of the powers. The international robber- Austria was not humiliated.

14. Results

- * The result was both Serbia and Austria demobilised their armies and the crisis was over.
- * Austria had violated a solemn treaty without any justification. It would create many difficulties for her in future. Germany got her share of bad name, on account of her association with Austria.
- * The Bosnian crisis had an unfortunate effect on Italy. She felt that her own ambitions in the Balkans were thwarted by the Austrian action. She was willing to lean on Russia.
- * Russia began to increase her navy and army so that she might be ready for the inevitable war with Germany and Austria; Izvolski gave up his office as Foreign Minister in 1910.

(G) THE BALKAN WARS (1912-13)

1) The Balkan League

The idea of permanent alliance *or* even a confederation among Christian States of the Balkans was frequently canvassed after the Treaty of Berlin. The real obstacle between the Balkan Powers was their conflicting interests in Macedonia. Bulgaria consistently favoured title policy of autonomy. She thought autonomy would be the prelude to the union of Macedonia with Bulgaria, Serbia and Greece on the other hand advocated partition.

2. Serbo-Bulgarian Alliance, March 13, 1912

Between 1910 and 1912 there were various indications of some improvement in the mutual relations of the Balkan States. On March 13, 1912 a definite treaty was signed between the kingdom of Serbia and Bulgaria. To Serbia, Austria - Hungary was the enemy. Bulgaria on the other hand, had no special reasons for enmity against Vienna.

By the Treaty the two states entered into a defensive alliance. They also defined their respective claims in Macedonia.

3. Greco-Bulgarian Treaty May 10 1912

An arrangement was reached between Greece and Bulgaria on May 10, 1912.

4. Establishment of Balkan League

The policy of the Young Turks created a great discontent among different races of Balkan Peninsula. They began to organize themselves for the opposition of Turks and to safeguard their own interests. The process of integration was very difficult. It was because the mutual relations between different races living in the Balkans such as Greeks, Serbs, and Bulgarians were not cordial. But the relentless slaughtering by the Turks in Armenia and Macedonia was quite fresh in the memory of the Balkan states. For their own survival, forgetting their mutual differences, they established the Balkan federation.

Serbia and Bulgaria solved the problem of Macedonia and spearheaded the formation of Balkan league. Greece also concluded a pact with Bulgaria on the issue of Crete and joined the league. Montenegro also joined this federation after some time and thus the Balkan league was established in Balkan Peninsula to the relief of Balkan states and to the grief of Turkish Sultanate.

THE BALKAN WARS (1912-13)

The First Balkan War

The following are the reasons for the outbreak of this war:

1. Turkification Policy

The Young Turk Revolution proved to be anti non-Turk. The Turkification policy was launched by the Young Turks. The nationality of the races in the Balkans was non- Turkish. Thus the struggle between the Turkish nationality and anti-Turkish nationality created the Balkan war.

2. Weakness of Turkey

The military weakness of Turkey was another cause. The Balkan nationalities wanted to take full advantage of Turkey's difficulties. Turkey could not withstand the attack of Italy, which wanted to seize Tripoli and Cyrenaica. As Turkey was busy fighting and losing war against the aggressor in the Turko Italian War, the Balkan States formed the Balkan League.

3. Events of the First Balkan War

The Balkan League declared War against Turkey on October 1, 1912. The war commenced on October 15th. What followed is one of the miracles of history. On October 22nd, the Bulgars won a great victory over the Turks at Kirk-Kilisse; on the 26th, the Serbs opened their way into Macedonia by a resounding victory at Kumanovo. Another victory was at Ohrid. On November 8th the Greeks entered into the town of Salonica. This was really the end of the Turkish Empire in Macedonia. The victorious armies of Bulgaria soon reached near Constantinople, the capital of Turkey. In Europe only Constantinople, Adrianople and Zainina remained with the Turks.

The Great powers believed that the Balkan league would be beaten. A miracle took place. Within a space of one month the Balkan alliance demolished the Ottoman Empire.

Turkey, agreed to sign the Treaty of London on May 30th, 1913. By the Treaty, all territory west of the line drawn from the Enos on the Aegean Sea to Midia on the Black Sea was given to the Allies except Albania. Great powers would decide the territorial limits and future of Albania. The plight of the Sultan was almost wiped out in Europe. After 5 centuries of proud possession he was almost expelled from Europe.

4. Differences among the Allied Nations

Balkan States became proverbial for their hostility to each other. It was not easy to distribute the conquered Macedonian regions among themselves. Differences came up on the issue of distribution between Bulgaria and Serbia. Therefore, they declared war. In this way Bulgaria decided to fight with the old ally. It is known in history as the second Balkan War. In this war Serbia, Montenegro, Greece and Rumania took up arms against Bulgaria.

Second Balkan War 1913

1. Events

The War continued for a month. Bulgaria could not face so many kingdoms put together; therefore Bulgaria made peace with other kingdoms on August 10th, 1913.

2. Treaty of Bucharest

Bulgaria lost territory and faced utter humiliation. Serbia and Greece received their rewards of territories. Russia secured a slice of Bulgaria. Turkey was particularly gratified with the recovery of the city and fort of Adrianople.

3. Consequences of the Balkan Wars

Turkey lost heavily in terms of territory and population. Greece stood to gain immensely. Serbia could expand considerably. Rumania succeeded in her aggrandizement. Bulgaria was unhappy because she secured much less than what she thought she deserved. Bulgaria was the worst sufferer. Nationalism was given encouragement. No Single event influenced the outbreak of war in 1914 more than the Balkan war of 1912-13.

II. BISMARCK

Germany was unified in 1870-71. After 1871 Germany wanted to maintain peace and avoided war.

1. Internal Policy

Between 1871 and 1890 Bismarck was the Chief figure in the domestic politics of his country and in the international field. The Empire was proclaimed on January 18th, 1871 in Versailles. The name of Confederation gave way to that of Empire. The King of Prussia became the Emperor. Bismarck strengthened the power of the navy. He made ports at Jads and Kie. He improved trade. He established a bank in Germany. He enfeebled the power of the socialists by improving his own influence with the proletariat. Insurance rules and compensation rules were framed in 1883-84. He passed an Old Age Pension Act for the relief of infirm workers. Thus he improved the economic condition of Germany.

2. Kultur-Kamph

No sooner was the new Empire established the it was torn by a religious conflict, that lasted for many years. This conflict was between the Roman Catholic Church and the State. This is called “Kultur-Kamph” or “War in defence of civilization”. Roman Catholic Church was in favour of

the Austrian power because the ruler of that country was a Roman Catholic, and on the other hand the Emperor of Prussia was a Protestant. The Roman Catholics looked suspiciously at the policy of Bismarck. The Catholic party owed allegiance to the Pope of Rome. Therefore, the conflict between the two was of a political nature.

In 1871, A.D. in the Lower House of the legislature of the federal Germany, 63 Catholic members found their entry. Bismarck wanted to reduce the influence of the Catholics. Any political talk from the lips of the clergymen was prohibited in the churches of Germany.

The Catholics opposed it. Bismarck was compelled to frame the laws of May 1873. According to it Civil marriage was made compulsory. Clerical missionaries must have good education. The Government controlled clerical appointment.

Pope asked the Catholics to disobey the laws, Bismarck also did not budge. After 7 years of struggle Pope Leo XIII made efforts and a compromise was reached in 1878.

3. Bismarck and the Socialists

The steady growth of the Socialist party aroused the alarm of the ruling class of Germany. This stood for monarchy, aristocracy, the existing economic system. The aims of the socialist party were destructive. After 1879 Bismarck levied heavy duties on the imports, the socialists clamoured for the nationalisation of industry.

The Socialists opposed the concepts of imperialism and militarism. In 1878 the socialists made two attempts to kill the German Emperor. Bismarck issued ordinances to curb their activities. The movement of the socialists became more furious.

In the 1890 election, the socialists formed the majority in the House. At last Kaiser William II had sympathy for the Socialists. He withdrew many restrictions imposed on them.

The Foreign policy of Bismarck

By 1870 Bismarck won for his country a national unity by the policy of blood and iron. His contemporary politicians of Europe accepted his genius. Bismarck could very dexterously manage countries like England, Russia, France, Austria and Italy by manipulating the cleavage between the two camps.

The Foreign policy of the German Empire since 1871 has been the maintenance of peace and the prevention of anti-German coalition, and the pivot of his policy is Russia.

In spite of the efforts to isolate France, Bismarck's policy towards the latter was in no sense hostile.

a) The Three Emperors 'League

In 1873, Bismarck set up the Three Emperors' league. By means of this, he was able to bring together Austria, Russia and Germany. It emphasized the common interests of the three Emperors.

b) Austro German Alliance

The Three Emperors' league completely broke down in 1878 after the Congress of Berlin. Bismarck was successful in entering into an alliance with Austria, which was signed in 1879. The two countries opposed Russia. The alliance was renewed again and again.

Bismarck made friends with England also by dint of his masterly diplomacy. He kept her away from the problem of Europe.

Bismarck made enigmatic treaties before his downfall. He made friends with Russia against Austria; got help from Austria against Russia and in this manner manipulated international relations. He got Italian help against France and the combined help of Austria and Italy against the combined attack of Russia and France. Due to the masterly policy of Bismarck the international conflict came to a standstill. Germany became a prosperous country under the powerful influence of Bismarck.

UNIT V

CAUSES OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

In the beginning of the 20th century the history of the world was affected by the First World War. A long series of events led to the First World War. Some historians feel that Germany and her alliance were responsible for the War. But others felt that there were many causes. But though there were many causes, Germany was the main cause for the War. The divided responsibility played an important role in the causes of the War. The First World War was a War between the Central Powers and the Allied powers. The countries which supported Germany were called Central Powers and the countries which supported Great Britain were called the Allied Powers. The War started in 1914 and ended in 1918. In the beginning of the First World War, the central power won many victories over the Allied Powers. But the year 1917 marked a turning point in the history of the cause of the First World War, due to the entry of America in the First World War on the side of the Allied Powers. The entry of America paved the way for the final victory of the Allied Powers in the First World War. The following were the reasons for the First World War:

1. System of Alliance

The First World War was due to many causes and the most important cause was the system of secret alliance. Europe herself was divided into two military camps in the beginning of the First World War. The Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente were the alliance systems that existed before the First World War. Of the two alliances, the Triple Alliance was formed earlier in 1883 among the central European powers, Germany, Austria and Italy. This Triple Alliance was not formed for the purpose of creating the

Great War but on the other hand concluded for the sake of strengthening themselves from the possible French - Russian joint aggression.

The Franco - Prussian war of 1870-71 was a turning point in the history of Europe. It put an end to the growth of French power in the European continent and it railed the prestige of Prussia. Prussia now became the unified Germany and commanded the continent ever since its victory. Bismarck, the architect of the German unification wanted to strengthen the position of his nation. There upon Bismarck collected friends for Germany and it ended in the formation of Triple Alliance in 1882. Upto the dropping of the pilot (Bismarck) in 1890, the Triple Alliance did not bring about serious repercussion in the history of Europe. But later in the hands of Kaiser William II, it became an instrument of war which really became an important cause for the Great War of 1914. The Franco - Prussian war left embittered memories behind it. Although the French were defeated, they were waiting for an opportunity to remove that stain from the history of France. To them the loss of Alsace and Lorraine was not irrevocable. Hence they were in good allies to defeat resourceful Germany. On the other side, Bismarck indicated that “we want France to leave us in peace”. Besides, Bismarck believed that he had to prevent France finding an ally. As long as France has no allies, she is not dangerous to Germany. In short, Bismarck feared of an anti-German coalition. Bismarck’s fear was not without certain valid grounds. First of all, France made a rapid and unexpected recovery after 1870. Secondly she recognised her military forces. All these symptoms showed that France was preparing for revenge upon Germany.

Austria’s ambitions in the Baikan Peninsula

The formation of Triple Alliance was not the work of one nation; rather it was the work of a group of nations. Austria and Italy too

contributed for the conclusion of the alliance in 1882. Austria was shattered to pieces by Bismarck. So it tried to expand the expense of the troubled cock-pie of Europe with the support of the unified Germany. But Russia stood as a bulwark against the Austrian intervention in the Balkans. Austria was not having good natural Labours except the one at Triesti. Thereupon she wanted to expand her territories in the South Eastern side to get the access of good labours. So her expansion in the Balkan region was a cruel necessity.

Revolutionary Unrest

Bismarck wanted friendship with both Russia and Austria. Since all these three nations had a similarity, all of them were under monarchy. They were all conservative powers. Anti autocratic movements broke out in Europe in the form of Paris Commune, German Soviet Democracy and Russian Nihilism. Bismarck exploited the fears of the conservative powers in order to build up another Holy Alliance. The result was the League of Three Emperors was formed in 1872. Accordingly, they agreed to stand united in the maintenance of the boundaries.

Visit of Italian King -Victor Immanuel (1873)

Victor Immanuel II, the king of Italy paid a friendly visit to Germany. It was calculated as a diplomatic victory for Germany and it was thought that the isolation of France was thus rendered complete. Thus Italy was brought into the construction of an alliance against the common danger, France.

The Berlin Treaty in 1878

The Berlin Treaty was a turning point in the diplomatic history of Europe. It paved the way for the breaking of the Three Emperors' League.

At the congress of Berlin, Germany co-operated with Austria and gave Bosnia and Herzegovina to her. This annulled the plans constructed by Russia in the San Stefano Treaty. Russia was violently incensed at the ingratitude of Germany. The Russian Government demanded that Bismarck should withdraw his support to Austria or forfeit the friendship of Russia. Germany was not ready to do either of these demands. This resulted only in the formation of an alliance with Austria in 1879.

Austro-German Alliance in 1879

In 1879 the German Chancellor concluded a formal alliance with the Austrian empire. This was generally known as the Austro-German Alliance of 1879. According to the terms of the alliance, if Russia would attack one of the contracting parties, they resolved to take joint action on Russia. Besides, they agreed if any other third power would attack any one of them, the other should keep benevolent neutrality. The terms of the treaty were kept secret because it was arranged partly against Russia. Bismarck felt that the tie with Austria was irrevocable because of the blood relationship and thus the alliance was based on moral grounds.

Entrance of Italy in 1882

In 1882 Italy joined the Austro-German Alliance. The accession of Italy to the Austro-German alliance converted it into a Triple Alliance. Italy entered the alliance for a term of five years. There were two reasons for the entry of Italy. First, the Roman question was not solved with the Pope and she had the fear of French intervention on behalf of the Pope. Secondly, she was much alarmed by the aggression of France over Tunis. According to the idea of Bismarck, France attacked and annexed Tunis in 1881. Italy too, had the idea of conquering Tunis. The French capture of Tunis greatly disappointed her. This practically forced Italy to join the

alliance in 1882. Thus the Triple Alliance consisted of Germany, Hungary - Austria and Russia.

Formation of Triple Entente

Between 1871 and 1890 Bismarck followed the policy of isolating France from the European powers. It was with that object Bismarck supported Russia against Austria - Hungary on the occasion of Bulgarian crisis and also renewed the Three Emperor's League. The dismissal of Bismarck in 1890 paved the way for the formation of much alliance against the Triple Alliance.

Franco - Russian Alliance in 1893

The Franco - Russian Alliance was formed between France and Russia in 1893. The estrangement between Germany and Russia led to the formation of this alliance. The relationship between Russia and Austria was strained on account of Bulgaria. Russia tried to convert Bulgaria in to a vassal state So it opposed the accession of prince Ferdinand. This was opposed by England, Austria and Italy. But the Austro - German alliance overfed the crisis and war was avoided. This the Bulgarian Issue led to the formation of an alliance between France and Russia.

The economic and military co-operation between France and Russia also led to the formation of the Dual Alliance; in 1888, France offered economic support and French arms to Russia. The friendship was strengthened by naval visits. This resulted in a "Dual Alliance" between the two countries. By the alliance, Russia promised to support France if she was attacked by Germany or Italy or by both the powers. France agreed to assist Russia if she was attacked by Austria - Hungary, or Germany or both the powers.

Anglo French Entente

Great Britain and France had been rivals for a long time. When Deicasse became the foreign minister of France there developed a smooth relationship between them to get back Alsace and Lorraine from Germany with the help of Great Britain. President Loubet and foreign minister Declasse sent friendly messages to Edward VII on his accession to the throne. This helped to bring the two countries together and finally led to the formation of an alliance in 1904.

Anglo - Russian Convention

The Anglo - Russian convention was signed between England and Russia in 1907. This convention brought together England and Russia, which dealt with Tibet, Afghanistan and Persia. Regarding Tibet, both England and Russia recognised the sovereignty of China and agreed not to interfere in her internal affairs. Regarding Afghanistan, Great Britain promised not to annex it. Regarding Persia, both the powers agreed to respect the territorial integrity and independence of Persia.

The convention of 1907 transformed the Entente Cordiale of 1904 into the Triple Entente of 1907. The Triple Entente brought England, France and Russia into the war in 1914 against Germany and Austria Hungary. Then the rivalry between the Triple Alliance and Triple Entente led to the outbreak of the First World War in 1914.

German Responsibility

A long series of events led to the First World War. Among the events, Germany was mainly responsible for the First World War. The following were the reasons:

Policy of Kaiser William II

Kaiser William II was the emperor of Germany. He ruled Germany from 1888 to 1918. He controlled the foreign policy of Germany after Bismarck, the architect of Modern Germany. He felt that Germany was as powerful as Britain. Moreover he wanted Germany to become the master of the world. Thus his ambitious policy led to the First World War.

Anglo - German Rivalry

There was a race for colonization in the later parts of the 19th century. Britain was more powerful because of its colonization. It had many colonies. It was the first rate power because of the colonies. Germany wanted to establish colonies. It created rivalry between Britain and Germany.

Industrial Revolution started in Britain, and began to spread to other countries in Europe. The unification of Germany was completed in 1871. After that, it began to develop its industries. It also captured world markets. It led to commercial rivalry between Britain and Germany. Thus the colonial and commercial rivalry between Britain and Germany led to the First World War.

Balkan Issue

The provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina created another “Alsac - Lorraine” in the Balkans. By the Congress of Berlin, which was convened in 1878, in Austria Hungary was given the right to govern Bosnia and Herzegovina. But Austria Hungary annexed both Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908. The people of Bosnia and Herzegovina were Slavs as in Serbia. So Serbia objected the annexation of Austria Hungary. Serbia was supported

by Russia which was the champion of Balkan states. Thus the Balkan problem widened the rivalry between Austria and Russia.

The policy of Kaiser William II, Anglo - German rivalry, Franco - German rivalry and the Balkan Issue widened the rivalry between Germany and Great Britain. It ultimately led to the First World War.

Balance of Power

At the beginning of the 20th century balance of power in Europe was no longer stable. Since 1870, Germany had rapidly grown in military and industrial activities, due to the efforts of Bismarck, who was the chief architect of united Germany. He improved the textile industry. The improvement in the field of industries paved the way for sound finance and more number of colonies was established. Thus the development in the field of army and navy completely upset the balance of power in Europe.

Arms Race

There were six great powers in Europe in the early twentieth century. They were Austria, Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy and Russia. They were divided into two armed camps. There was a great rivalry between these powers in colonial and commercial activities. They raised a large army and navy, and entered into the armament race. In 1914 the standing army of Germany consisted of 8,12,000 men, Russia consisted of 13,00,000, France consisted of 8,46,000, England consisted of 3,81,000, Italy consisted of 3,05,000 and Austria - Hungary consisted of 4,24,000. These dangerous mechanism and large navy created powerful clash of military and naval officers. They dominated the army of the Central Powers. There was also a naval competition between Germany and England. Thus militarism made army arbiters dominate their country. It led to the trial of strength of power between countries.

Narrow Nationalism and Competitive Patriotism

The love for their country created hatred towards others. For example, the love of Germany demanded the hatred of France. The love of France demanded the hatred of Germany. Moreover the narrow patriotism of Serbia created hatred between Serbia and Austria - Hungary. It led to the murder of the Austrian Prince Ferdinand and his wife Isabella. Thus the narrow nationalism and competitive patriotism widened the rivalry.

Newspaper

The newspapers poisoned the public. It tried to inflame national feelings by misrepresenting the situation, in other countries. Sometimes, they created attacks and counter attacks, and sometimes the facts were exercise censored. Thus the newspapers created bitterness between the nations.

Alsace - Lorraine Problem

Alsace and Lorraine were the two important provinces that originally belonged to Prussia. They were rich in iron and coal mines. These two provinces were taken over by France. In order to go back to these provinces Prussia waged a war with France in 1870. It was called France - Prussian war of 1870-71. By the France - Prussia war, Prussia got Alsace and Lorraine from France. France desired to get back these two territories from Germany. Thus the natural resources of Alsace and Lorraine widened the rivalry between France and Germany and finally paved the way for the First World War.

Italian Interest

The desire of the people of Italy to recover the Trentino and the area around the port of Trieste was one of the reasons for the outbreak of the First World War in 1914. These territories were inhabited by the Italian but

it was a part of Austria - Hungary. Italy was a member of the Triple Alliance of 1882. It was on the side of the Germany upto 1914. When the war started, it came on the side of the Allied powers and wanted to get Trentino and Trieste. Moreover, it thought that as Allies could get victory and it could get more spoils of war. Thus the interest of Italy led to the war.

Morocco Crisis

Morocco became the bone of contention between Germany and France in the early years of the 20th century. Hardly a year passed since the formation of Anglo - French Entente by which the special interest of France was granted by Great Britain. Germany wanted to possess Morocco. In all these critical and uneasy years France was ably backed and co-operated by Great Britain. To be short, the strength of the Anglo - French Entente was tested in the question of Morocco.

Circumstances led to the Algeiras Conference

The Position of France

Both France and Germany had commercial interests in Morocco. But that French trade in Morocco exceeded that of England *or* Germany. For some years, France had been engaged in the “Peaceful penetration” of Morocco. She entered into compacts with Italy, Great Britain and Spain. In 1900 a treaty was concluded with Italy, which recognised the French special interest in Morocco in exchange of Italian Interest in Tripoli. In October 1904 a compact Spain agreed the French possession in Morocco. On the other hand, Germany could claim with fairness that she also had important economic interest in Morocco.

French Action and German Reaction

In 1905 the country was in a disturbed condition. The French Government resolved to compel the new Sultan, Abdul Aziz to accept a scheme of reforms. But the German emperor adopted a bellicose attitude. On March 31st the German Emperor landed at Tangier. He asserted the independence of the Sultan and demanded the settlement of the Morocco Question by a European conference. This was a challenge to France.

The French Reluctance

France was not willing for the war. The menacing attitude of Germany was evidently inspired by the Great defeat of Russia at the battle of Mukden on 1st October 1905. Since her dual alliance partner was defeated in the Russo-Japanese war and her allowances of power was disclosed France was not willing to fight. The French foreign minister Déclassé opposed the German demand for a conference. Therefore he resigned. The conference met at Algeciras in January 1906.

Algeciras Conference

Lengthy negotiations brought the danger of war very near. The convention of Algeciras patched up a settlement. France was not only supported by Russia and Great Britain but also by the U.S.A. Even the other members of the Triple Alliance Austria, and Italy were lukewarm in support of Germany. According to this convention:

1. The sovereignty of the Sultan was recognised.
2. France was authorised to control the Bank of Morocco.
3. The principle of the open door for all countries was reasserted.
4. France was left free to proceed with her 'peaceful penetration'.

Although Germany had forced France to submit the Morocco Question to an international conference, the assembly had arranged matters more satisfactorily to France than to Germany. It gave stability to the Anglo-French Entente. The historical significance of the Morocco crisis thus lies in the fact that it was the first trial of strength between Germany and the western powers.

The Agadir Incident

In the summer of 1911 the Morocco Question once more became acute. Owing to the anarchy in Morocco a French army occupied the capital, Ferg. This was interpreted by Germany as a sign that France intended to proclaim a protectorate and a German cruiser, The Panther, was dispatched to Agadir on 1st July 1911. On the pretext of looking after German interests, Great Britain intervened on the side of her ally, far apart from her obligation to France; a German port on the Atlantic might endanger the security of her commercial routes. The British Government therefore intimated that any attempt to ignore British interests would be a humiliation intolerable for a great country. But soon Germany changed her policy of aggression. Finally a negotiation was brought into action in 1911. By this Germany recognised a French protectorate over Morocco and France surrendered the North West part of French Congo. These terms provoked great dissatisfaction in both countries; it paved the way for the first trial of strength between Germany and the Western powers. It was Germany which made Morocco problem an international affair.

Lack of International Peace Organization

The lack of an International Peace Organization was another important cause for the First World War. There was chaos and confusion in various countries. There were many secret alliances. It was found that the

secret of diplomacy was not known even to all the members of the same ministry. Secret diplomacy created a lot of confusion in the minds of the people. There was no power to enforce the code of international law and morality. Many resolutions were passed at the Hague conference of 1899 and 1907 but those were observed by the various states according to their convenience. Every state considered itself to be a sovereign and did not consider itself bound by its international commitments.

Balkan Problem

The clash of interest of the Great powers in the Balkan Peninsula was the most outstanding cause of the First World War. Serbia became stronger after the Balkan war of 1912-13. She desired to get back Bosnia and Herzegovina, the two slave provinces. The Balkan problem became complicated when Serbia was supported by Russia, which proclaimed herself as a protector and champion of the Balkan states. Russia, a Slav imitation encouraged the Serbian nationalism and Pan - Slavism. The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria - Hungary in 1908 widened their rivalry. The hostile Serbian press campaign and the activities of the Slav terrorists also caused extreme hostility in Austria and Hungary. The Balkan problem was further complicated when Germany had expanded her influence in the Ottoman Empire. Her Turkish policy, particularly, the construction of the Berlin - Baghdad Railways was bitterly resented by Russia. Morocco, Austria - Hungary and Germany had been trying to isolate Serbia in the Balkans. So they waited for an opportunity to achieve their aims.

Immediate Cause

The Austrian Prince Ferdinand and his wife visited Bosnia, a Balkan state annexed by Austria in 1908 to celebrate their fourteenth wedding

anniversary. They were shot dead in the street of Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia by a Serbia-Slav. Immediately Austria - Hungary declared war on Serbia. Russia was much interested in the Balkan States. So it sent military help to Serbia. When Russia supported Serbia, Germany and Austria - Hungary declared war with Russia. Immediately France supported Russia. So Germany declared war on France through Belgium. Thus the First World War broke out in 1914 between the Central Powers and the Allied powers. The murder of the Austrian Prince was the immediate cause for the outbreak of the First World War.

Germany was mainly responsible for the outbreak of the War in 1914. Besides, the colonial and commercial rivalry between Germany and Great Britain, narrow nationalism and competitive patriotism, arms race, Balkan problems, Morocco crises were the other important events that led to the War in 1914.

Course of the First World War

The First World War broke out in 1914 and ended in 1918. It was the War between the Central Powers and the Allied Powers which supported Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria were the Central Powers. England, France, Italy, Russia, Japan, China, Rumania. Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, Belgium, Portugal and United States of America were the Allied Powers. Russia withdrew her support from the Allied powers in 1917 due to Russian revolution. The United States of America entered into the War on the side of the Allied powers in 1917. Both the Central Powers and the Allied Powers fought against each other in 1914 in different parts of the world.

War in the Western Front - War in Belgium

The murder of the Austrian Prince, Ferdinand and his wife caused the outbreak of the war between the Central Powers and the Allied Powers in 1914. When Austria - Hungary declared war on Serbia, Russia supported Serbia. So Germany, declared war on Russia. Russia was supported by France. Germany declared war on France through Belgium. By the treaty of London which was signed in 1839, the European powers agreed to preserve the neutrality of Belgium. Germany demanded free passage for his troops through Belgium. King Albert of Belgium refused to accept the demand of Germany. So Germany attacked France through Belgium in 1914. When Germany violated the treaty of London, France and England entered into the war supporting France. Though France was supported by England, Germany advanced to Paris. The Government of France was removed to Brodeaux.

The Battle of the Marne

The battle of the Marne was fought on 5th, September **1914**. It was one of the decisive battles in the history of the world. In this battle the German forces were prevented by the combined forces of the French and the British. But the Germans got victory in the battle. As a result of this battle, the Germans were in possession of a large area of Northern France and of nearly all of Belgium. After the battle of the Marne, the Allied Powers sought to break through the German lines along the Asine but they were unsuccessful.

Battle of Neuve Chapelle

The Germans conquered Belgium and north-eastern France. They tried to capture Switzerland. The Allied Powers tried to dislodge the Germans. They fought against each other in the battle of Neuve Chapelle.

The British force was led by Sir John French. In that battle, terrific artillery warfare was used. Both England and Germany lost. Many were killed, wounded, and captured.

Battle of Ypres

The battles of Ypres were ruinous. The first battle was fought on 11th October 1914, and the second battle was fought on 22nd April 1915. In the second battle of Ypres, gas was used for the first time. The battle was famous for the new feature of warfare. This was the most remarkable battle in the imperial history of Britain. But it broke no line and like the battle of Neuve Chapelle it was mere 'nibbling'.

Battle of Verdun

The battle of Verdun was fought on 21st February 1916. It was famous in the military annals of France. Petain was the commander-in-chief of the French forces. The battle dragged on for six months. The Germans had to withdraw. The name and fame of Petain increased through the battle of Verdun.

Battle of the Somme

The battle of the Somme was an endeavour to bring to an end the long deadlock on the western front. The French and the British launched a counter offensive. The British used tanks in the war for the first time. In the battle of Somme a new and redoubtable engine of war was introduced by the British. Their striking power completely surprised the Germans and contributed eagerly to the British success. Hindenburg who was the hero of the Germans was replaced by Falkenhaya as chief of staff to infuse new spirit into the German soldiers.

On the western front the First World War was a battle fought in trenches. Trenches were ditches in the ground as a protection for soldiers against the enemy's fire.

War in the Eastern Front

The Russians invaded Germany and Austria - Hungary. The German forces under General Hindenburg had a decisive victory in the battle of Tannenbesg, which was fought on 26th August 1914. The Russians gained great success after this battle. They defeated the Austrians and Lamberg was captured by the Russians. They invaded East Prussia. But the Russian forces were attacked by the German forces under the command of Mackensen who was assisted by the Austrians. The Russian forces were driven out of Austria - Hungary and they occupied Poland and Lithuania. Russia had lost 65,00 square miles of territory, and millions of people. The defeat of Russians by Hindenburg in 1915 and Brusiloff in 1916 was criticised by the people. It led to the outbreak of Russian Revolution in 1917, and Russia withdrew from the First World War.

Balkans

The First World War began with the Austrian invasion of Serbia in 1914. But by the middle of December, 1914, the Serbians drove out the Austrians and occupied Belgrade. The Austro-German forces invaded Serbia in 1915. In the meantime, Bulgaria entered the war on the side of the Central Powers invading the Serbians from the east. The fighting between them was fought for two months. The Serbians were completely defeated by the Austro - German forces. The Anglo-French force landed at Salonika, a port of Greece in 1915 to help the Serbians. But they were forced to withdraw behind the lines of Salonica.

Rumania entered the war on the side of the Allied Power in 1916. The Germans, Austro - Hungarians, Bulgarians, and Turks under the command of Falkenhayn and Machensen were sent against Rumania. They conquered the southern part of the kingdom and entered Bucharest, the capital of Rumania. The Central Powers exploited their rich resources, wheat and oil. Greece joined the First World War against the Central Powers in 1917.

War with Turkey

Turkey entered the war on the side of the Central Powers in 1914. Though European, Turkey had been reduced as a result of the Balkan wars, the Ottoman Empire was still extensive including Asia Minor, Armenia Mesopotamia, Syria, Palestine and Arabia. Its capital, Constantinople was considered as a city of geographical importance. It linked the European and Asian countries. The Turkish government was strongly pro-German. The Turkish army was under the command of German commanders-in-chiefs. They permitted two German war ships to enter the Bosphorus and bombarded Russian ports. So Russia declared war upon Turkey. Turkey's entrance into the War was a threat to the Balkan states and the British Empire in India and Egypt. It involved Asia and Africa in the war. Great Britain declared Egypt as a protectorate. Turkey invaded Egypt to control the Suez Canal. But they were defeated by the British. The Allied forces withdrew their forces in 1916.

Entry of Japan

The First World War broke out in 1914 between the Central Powers and the Allied Powers. Japan demanded Germany to withdraw her fleet and surrender Kiauchau, a naval base in Asia on 17th August, 1914 and participated in the War until 1918, supporting the Allied Powers.

Entry of Italy

Italy was a member of the Triple Alliance, which was organised by Bismarck of Germany in 1882. But Italy remained neutral until May 1915. By the treaty of London, which was signed in 1915, the Allied Powers promised Italy big chunks of Austrian and Turkish territory. So Italy entered the War on the side of the Allies on 23rd May 1915. The Italian forces were directed against the Austrians. It got victory over the Austrians in the beginning. But after the entry of Germany, the Italians encountered reverses. The Italian fell back in Trientino. In the battle of Gaporetto they were defeated by the combined forces of Austria - Hungary and Germany. They highly damaged the southern Italy. But the Northern Italy was pressured with the help of Britain and France.

War at Sea

Because of the naval supremacy, the North Sea was under the control of Britain. The French and the Italian controlled the Mediterranean sea with the help of the British. Britain was able to check the aggression of Germany in the battle of Dogger Bank. Beatty, the British admiral defeated the German navy.

Battle of Jutland

Jutland is in Denmark. In 1916 a battle was fought between Germany and Britain. Admiral Hipper led the German fleets and the British fleets were under the command of Admiral Beatty. The battle of Jutland was the greatest naval battle of the First World War. In the battle of Jutland Germany lost 15 British ships, and Britain destroyed "German ships". When the British fleet under Jellicoe appeared, Germans escaped from Jutland.

Submarine warfare

The First World War was fought on land and sea from 1917. The German announced an unrestricted submarine warfare. The German submarine not only attacked the Allies ship but also attacked the neutral ships. Germany used 'U' boats and the British used 'Q' ships. British was able to sink 145 German ships out of 200. Germany was able to sink 59 British ships. Thus Britain was able to command its superiority in the war on sea.

Entry of America

In the beginning of the First World War America was a neutral country. The German submarine attacked the American passenger ship Lousitania which carried 1250 passengers including 188 Americans. The ship was sunk and 1198 died. Of them 128 were the citizens of America. As a result anti-German feeling in the United States of America reached new heights. Thus the unrestricted submarine warfare of Germany made the United States of America to enter into war. It declared war on Germany on 6th April 1917 to safeguard democracy. Thus the entry of America into the First World War was the most important event in the history of world.

Russian Withdrawal from the War

When the First World War began in 1914 Russia entered into the War on the side of the Allied Powers and continued its attack against the Central Powers. The year 1917 witnessed an important landmark in the history of Russia due to the outbreak of the Russian Revolution. It was organised by the Russians against the Tzar Nicholas II. As the result of the revolution Nicholas II abdicated the throne. The Bolsheviks under Lenin formed the Government in Russia. He concluded peace with Germany on 3rd March 1918 and withdrew the Russian forces from the First World War.

By the treaty of Brest- Litovsk, Russia gave up Finland, Baltic States, Poland and Ukraine to Germany. It was a great humiliation to Russia, and for the Germans it marked the height of their success in the First World War. After the surrender of Germany in 1918 these territories were returned to Russia.

War in the Western Front

In 1918, Germany began to attack France. Series of battles were fought near Amiens, Yprest and Riems. The German forces crossed the Marne and began to bombard Paris. But the Allies with the support of America fought the German forces in the battle of Marne, the second battle, Marne in 1918. The Allies defeated the German forces. The defeated German forces were driven out from Amiens.

End of the war

In the beginning of the War, the Central Powers got victory. In the later parts of the War, the Allies began to get victories. After the second battle of Marne, Germany had to face continuous defeats. The battle of Amiens made Germany surrender. Kaiser William II, the Emperor of Germany escaped to Holland. Germany sent two representatives to form an armistice that was signed between Germany and the Allies on 11th November 1918. Thus the First World War came to an end in 1918.

Cause for the success of the Allies

The First World War began in 1914 and ended in 1918 in favour of the Allied Powers. In the beginning of the First World War, the Central Powers defeated the Allied Powers and occupied many parts of the European countries. But the final victory was won by the Allied Powers due to the following reasons.

Economic Causes

The Allies had greater economic resources than the Central Powers. Since Britain had many colonies, the Allies were able to get the help of men and material from them. But the Central Powers could not get such help.

British naval Supremacy

Great Britain was to superior in navy. The North Sea was under the control of Britain. The Mediterranean sea was commanded by France and Italy with help of Britain. Britain was able to apply naval blockade against Germany until 1919. It was a severe blow to the Central Powers.

Geographical Advantage

Geographically, Britain was highly protected. The position of Britain made Central Powers not to attack it very easily. But the geographical feature of the Central Powers made the Allies attacks them very easily from all directions.

Shifting of Alliance

The formation of secret alliance system in Europe was one of the important causes for the outbreak of the First World War in 1914. Europe was divided into two main campuses, one under Germany and another under Great Britain. The countries which supported Germany were called Triple Alliance and the countries which supported Great Britain were called Triple Entente. Italy was one of the members of the Triple Alliance. But when the war broke out in 1914, it remained neutral and entered into the war in 1916 on the side of the Allied Powers, which was under the control of Britain. Russia, which was a member of the Triple Entente, entered into the war on the side of Britain, but it withdrew its forces from the First World War in 1917 due to the Russian Revolution. Thus the shifting of alliance was more advantageous to the Allies than the Central Powers.

Poor Help of the Partners

The partners of Germany were wounded. They were unable to help Germany. But the position of Britain was different. Though Britain was affected, it got help from their supporters. Thus the weakness of the partners led to the defeat of the Central Powers in the War.

Russian Revolution of 1917

The First World War broke out in 1914 and came to an end in 1918 by an Armistice. It was also called Bolshevik Revolution. This revolution made Russia to withdraw their forces from the First World War. In the First World War, Russia was on the side of the Allied Powers. The withdrawal of Russia was a blessing-in-disguise to the Allies.

Entry of America

America was a neutral country in the beginning of the First World War. In 1917 the British ship 'Lusitania' was sunk by the German submarine. In that incident, 1190 people died. Of them 188 were Americans, in 1917 Germany announced 'Unrestricted submarine warfare' Germany was able to sink six American ships. So America was forced to enter into First World War. The direct entry of America in 1917 was a great help to the Allies. The American soldiers and materials gave timely help to the forces of the Allies. It led to the victory of the Allies in the First World War.

Team spirit

The Allies had a good team spirit and unity. The Allies were highly affected by the Central Powers in the beginning of the War. But they did not lose their confidence and unity. Thus the high team spirit of the Allies led to the victory of the Allies in the First World War.

The Result of the First World War

The First World War was ended by the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. It was the first war in which most of the countries in the world participated. It had far-reaching results.

Social results

The First World War was considered as the bloodiest war. The war led to the loss of human life and property. As the result of the war, about four crores, fourteen lakhs and thirty five thousand people including the soldiers and civilians were killed. The war created the problem of refugees.

Economic results

The First World War was also considered as the costliest war. As the result of the War, the people lost their properties. The total monetary loss of the First World War was about 400 billion dollars. The war affected the European economy and that led to the rise of the United States of America in industrial activities.

Political results

The political consequences of the First World War were far-reaching. Monarchy was abolished in Germany and Austria Russia. Emperor William II abdicated to Holland and a Republic was established in Germany. The Russian Tzar, Nicolas II was deposed as the result of the revolution of 1917, which was due to the First World War. The Sultan of Turkey was deposed in 1922.

As the result of the First World War, there was progress in national liberation movement in the colonial countries during the post-war period.

The First World War led to the launching of non-cooperation movement by Mahatma Gandhi in India. The non-cooperation movement was organized against the British imperialism in India.

Japan entered the First World War on the side of the Allied powers. After the war, Japan became a super power. The Japanese supported the Nazi Germans and Fascist Italy. It led to the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis. This alliance was the most important cause for the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939.

America entered into the War in 1917 on the side of the Allied powers. With the resources of the United States of America the Allied Powers got victory. America advanced loans to the European countries after war to regulate their economy. As the result of these activities America became a Great Power.

The First World War led to the loss of human life and property. Confusion prevailed in the world. To establish peace and to avoid war in future, the League of Nations was established.

Germany accepted the terms of the Armistice and signed it on 11th November 1918. It ended the First World War. This Armistice brought great relief and the people of the world began to breathe.

Paris Peace Conference

The Armistice of 11th November, 1918 ended the First World War. Then a conference was held at Paris to bring a settlement in Europe. The first session of the conference was held on 18th January 1919 at Paris. Seventy delegates representing the countries which brought about the collapse of Germany and her allies assembled in Paris. There were numerous advisers, assistants and clerks. Big Four, Woodrow Wilson of

the United States of America, Lloyd George the prime minister of Great Britain, Clemenceau, the Premier of France and Orlando, the Prime Minister of Italy played an important role in the conference.

The conference was inaugurated by Poincare, the President of France and George Clemenceau, the Premier of France was elected its President. The celebrations of the conference were drawn at the end of April 1911.

Aims of the Conference

The Paris Peace Conference was convened to achieve the following aims:

1. To redraw the map of Europe due to the fall of the Hohenzollern / Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires.
2. Remove the obstacles of international tariff.
3. Reduction of national armaments.
4. Imperial adjustment of all colonial claims and the interests and sentiments of the people were to be considered.
5. Evacuation of Russian territory; Russia was to be given full opportunity to decide her future course of action.
6. Evacuation and restoration of Belgium.
7. Evacuation and restoration of French territory.
8. Readjustment of Italian Frontiers along her recognizable lines of nationality.
9. Autonomous development for the people of Austria-Hungary.
10. Evacuation and restoration of Serbia, Montenegro, Rumania and an outlet to the sea for Serbia.
11. Securing of sovereignty for the Turkish portion of Ottoman Empire and freedom of shipping through the straits.
12. Establishment of an independent Poland with access to the sea.

13. The creation of an international organization to guarantee independence and territorial integrity to small and big states of the world.

Woodrow Wilson elaborated his general principles of peace-making in a number of speeches between February and September 1918. His most important addition to the general principles were the absolute justice and mutual adjustment. As regards the creation of an international organization, Woodrow Wilson himself presided over a commission, which drafted the covenant of the League of Nations. The peace settlement is also based upon the principle of self-determination. Special provision was made for the protection of the minorities. They were to be protected in matters of religion, language, and citizenship.

Treaty of Versailles (1919)

The Paris Peace Conference was convened in 1919 to bring a settlement in Europe. All the nations of Europe participated except Russia. The conference was dominated by the Big Four, France, Great Britain, America and Italy. In the conference, five treaties were concluded between the Allied Powers and the members of the Central Powers. The treaty of Versailles was concluded between the Allied Powers and Germany. It was signed on 28th June 1919. It was the day of 5th anniversary of the murder of Ferdinand and Isabella. Germany was forced to sign the treaty. The terms of the treaty were very harsh and terrible. The treaty consisted of 15 parts, and 400 articles.

Provisions of the Treaty

1. Germany had to give Alsace - Lorraine to France, Eupen and Malmedy to Belgium, Memel to Lithuania and a large part of Posen and western Prussia to Poland.
2. Plebiscite has to be conducted in Silesia. By the plebiscite, 7,00,000 people voted for Germany and 4,80,000 voted for Poland.
3. Danzig was taken away from Germany and it was put under the League of Nations as a free state.
4. The Rhineland was demilitarised. Germany was not allowed to station forces in the Rhineland.
5. Germany had to give the coal mines of the Saar Valley. It was put under the League of Nations for 15 years.
6. Germany had to recognise the independence of Austria.
7. The possession of Germany in Africa was put under the mandate system of the League of Nations. The possessions of Germany in the pacific area were shared by the Allies.
8. Germany had to recognise the independence of Belgium, Poland, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. She also agreed to nullify the treaty of Brest - Litovsk and Bucharest, which were signed by Germany with Russia and Rumania respectively.
9. The special rights of Germany over China, Thailand, Egypt Morocco and Liberia were shared by the Allies.
10. The army of Germany was reduced. It was fixed as 1,00,000. It was not allowed to manufacture arms and ammunition. Germany was not allowed to import or export any war materials.

11. The navy of Germany was reduced. Germany was allowed to have only 6 battleships, 6 cruisers, 12 destroyers and 2 torpedo boats. Germany was not allowed to have any Submarine.
12. Trial had to be conducted on German officials. Germany was forced to accept the responsibilities of the First World War.
13. Reparation commission was appointed to estimate the total loss to be paid by Germany. Moreover, the method of payment was also to be indicated.
14. Germany was required to surrender the works of arts, taken away from France in the Franco - Prussian war of 1870 and 1871.
15. The Rivers Elbe, Danube, Oder and Niemen were internationalised. The River Rhine was put under the control of an international commission.
16. The troops of the Allies had to be stationed on the banks of the river Rhine.

Merits of the Treaty

1. The treaty of Versailles led to the creation of national states in Central and South-Eastern Europe on the principle of self-determination. It was considered as a great achievement of the Paris peace conference.
2. The introduction of the Mandatory system was a great improvement on the past practice of out-rights annexation by the victors.
3. Minorities in states like Czechoslovakia and Poland were guaranteed protection by special rights.
4. The treaty of Versailles paved the way for the establishment of an international organization, the League of Nations, to settle international disputes, to establish peace in the world.
5. The treaty of Versailles marked the end of an era of international rivalry and hostility.

Demerits of the Treaty

1. The terms of the treaty of Versailles were very harsh and terrible. Germany had to surrender Alsace - Lorraine to France, Malmedy to Belgium, and Memel to Lithuania.
2. The terms of the treaty of Versailles humbled and humiliated Germany. Germany was allowed to have only limited number of warships and submarine was not allowed. Germany had to pay a huge amount of war indemnity to the Allied Powers.
3. Austria was forbidden to unite with Germany. The Austrian economy was completely spoiled due to the treaty of Versailles.
4. The harsh and terrible terms of the treaty of Versailles led to the rise of Hitler in Germany. The rise of Hitler in Germany paved the way for the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939.

Thus the Paris peace settlement did not establish justice among all the nations. The treaty of Versailles humbled and humiliated Germany very much. It was a revenge taken by the Allied Powers over the Central Powers.

Treaty of St.Germaine 1919

The treaty between the Allies and Austria was called the Treaty of St. Germaine.

By that:

1. Austria recognised the complete independence of Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, and Yugoslavia.
2. Austria was reduced to a small Republic.
3. Austrian army was reduced to 30,000 men. She was deprived of her sea-ports.
4. It had to pay a war indemnity fixed by the reparation commission.
5. Austria had to hand over Trieste and Trentino and Illyria to Italy. Bosnia and Herzegovina to Yugoslavia and Larissa to Poland

6. Thus big Austria became a little Austria by the treaty of St.Germaine

Treaty of Trianon 1920

The Allies and Hungary signed the treaty of Trianon in 1920.

By that:

1. Hungary gave up the non - Magyar population.
2. The population of Hungary was fixed as 8 million.
3. The army of Hungary was reduced to 35,000 men.
4. Transylvania was given to Rumania.
5. Slovac provinces were given to Czechoslovakia.

Treaty of Neuilly 1919

The Treaty of Neuilly was concluded between the Allies and Bulgaria. It was signed on 27th November 1919.

1. By the treaty of Neuilly, Bulgaria lost the entire Aegean Coast to Greece the greater part of Macedonia to Yugoslavia and Dobruza to Rumania.
2. Bulgaria had to pay a war indemnity of half-billion dollars.
3. The army of Bulgaria was reduced to 33,000 men.
4. The treaty of Neuilly made Bulgaria one of the weakest powers in the Balkan area.

Treaty of Sevres 1920

The treaty of Sevres was concluded between the Allies and Turkey. It was concluded on 10th August 1920.

1. By the treaty of Sevres, Hedjaz was freed and put under British control.
2. Armenia was created as a Christian Republic.
3. Turkey had to give Trans-Jordan, Syria and Palestine.

4. England got Mesopotamia by the mandate system.
5. Turkey had to give Adrianople. The Island of Angers to Greece.
6. It had to pay a huge war indemnity.
7. The Dardanelles and the Bosphorous were internationalised.

The terms of the treaty of Sevres were harsh and terrible. This paved the way for the rise of Mustafa Kamal in Turkey. It led to a war between Turkey and Greece.

Treaty of Lausanne 1923

The Turks revolted against Greek occupation of a part of their mother land and drove them out. The Turko-Greek war led to hostilities between Turkey and Great Britain. But it was averted by the treaty of Lausanne. The treaty was signed on 9th July 1923.

1. By the treaty of Lausanne, Turkey was allowed to have Armenia and Adrianople.
2. It had to give up Trans-Jordan, Mesopotamia and Palestine.
3. The system of capitulations' was abolished and Turkey promised to carryout judicial reforms.
4. The straits were neutralized and free passage was guaranteed to all ships. The waste lands on both sides was constituted into a demilitarized Zone under the League of Nations.

Problem of Minorities

Woodrow Wilson, the President of America announced a programme with fourteen points. It was called 'Fourteen Points of Woodrow Wilson'. It was also known as Wilsonian peace, the Wilsoian mutual adjustment, compromise, mutual commitment and self- determination.

By following the principle of self-determination seven new nations were established. They were Czechoslovakia, Poland, Yugoslavia, Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. Plebiscites were held in some areas and thus the people were given an opportunity to express their ideas. There were minorities in many states.

As the result of the First World War, Poland was created from the territories of Germany, Austria and Russia. There were 10 lakhs people who were in Poland. The Jews and Germans were the important minorities in the country.

Czechoslovakia was created from the territories of Austria and Hungary. Czechoslovakia consisted of 3 lakhs Germans, and 7 Lakhs Magyars.

As the result of the First World War, Yugoslavia was created with the addition of Serbia. It had a million German and half-a-million Magyars. The territory of Rumania was increased. Many Germans and Serbia were in Rumania.

To protect the rights of these minorities, Minority Treaties were signed in the Paris Peace Conference. These treaties were signed by Poland, Rumania, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Greece. It guaranteed some rights and privileges to the minorities. They included the rights of citizenship, the right to use their own language, and the right to adopt their religion.

The League of Nations was given the power to supervise the minorities. The minority Commission of the League of Nations was

empowered to set up committees to look after the treaties signed in the Paris Peace Conference in 1919.

THE BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION IN RUSSIA (1917)

Its causes and effects

The Russian Revolution of 1917 changed the entire life in Russia and ushered in an era of progress and prosperity based on the socialistic pattern of life. Russia was regarded as the last child of the European civilization and it was the most back ward among the European countries. Politically, socially and economically Russia was a back ward country. Feudalism remained there for a long time even after the French Revolution.

The French Revolution and the Russian Revolution brought forth great changes in Europe and all over the world. The principles of these revolutions had immense effect for a long time. The slogan of the French Revolution, namely, liberty equality and fraternity had tremendous impact on the life of the people. Likewise, the Russian Revolution let loose the slogan 'Peace, land and bread' and it greatly affected the minds of the people. Democracy, republic and humanism got momentum after the French Revolution. Likewise on account of the Russian Revolution, communism became a popular dogma which resulted in the spread of communism and communist economy among nations.

It not only put an end to monarchy in Russia but also led to the establishment of a totalitarian government in Russia. In other words, the Tzar regime was replaced by the communist regime where the people existed for the welfare of the government.

The Russian Revolution took place in two stages. They were the February Revolution and the October Revolution. In the first stage, the Tzar regime was overthrown and the rule of the middle class was founded. It led to the establishment of provincial government, yet the provincial government under Krensky failed to solve the problems of the Russian society. Russia was still engaged in the First World War. Under the leadership of Lenin, the provincial government was overthrown and the proletarian dictatorship was founded. It was the famous October Revolution. It established a socialistic government in Russia and very soon Russia became the Soviet Russia.

Causes of the Russian Revolution

The Russian Revolution of 1917 happened due to a number of reasons. The revolution changed Russia into a Soviet Russia. The following were the important reasons of the Russian Revolution.

1. The Autocratic Rule of the Tzars

The Tzars were autocrats. The Tzars believed in the principles of autocracy, orthodoxy and naturalism. The Tzars were expansionists. They showed keen interest in the external affairs and especially in the expansion of Russia in the Baltic Sea, Black Sea and in Asia. Their main aim was to convert the Black Sea region as the Russian naval station and through Black Sea they wanted to control the Mediterranean Sea. The Russian aggressive foreign policy resulted in the Russian intervention in the Balkan affairs. The Russian Tzars showed interest in the gradual extermination of the sick man of Europe, namely Turkey. On account of the Tzars expansionist policy in the Balkans, Russia had to involve in the Greek War of Independence, Crimean War and the Second Russo-Turkish War.

Tzar Nicholas II, who was the last of Tzars, suppressed the liberty of the people like his father Tzar Alexander III. All the powers of the Government were vested in a single person. They never shared their powers with any representative body. The powers of the Tzars were unlimited. There was no parliament and there was no representative election. The people were not granted franchise even in the 19th and the 20th centuries.

The Orthodox Christianity was the State religion in Russia. The Orthodox Christianity was governed by the Holy Synod. The members of the Holy Synod were nominated by the Tzar. Thus the Tzar had the power to control the Holy Synod. The Tzar was the Pope of the Orthodox Christianity in Russia.

The Russian empire consisted people of different culture, language and religion. The Russians were the majority. On the pretext of nationalism, unification went on. The Russian culture was imposed on the minorities. It suppressed the liberty and the feelings of many.

Thus, under the rule of the Tzars the principles of autocracy, orthodoxy and nationalism dominated the Russian politics.

2. Inefficiency of Tzar Nicholas II

Tzar Nicholas II of the Roman dynasty ascended the throne in 1894 at the age of 26. He ascended the throne in the midst of pomp and pleasure. He reflected the policy of his father. He was ignorant and oppressive. He was really an heir of father's policy. His period of ascendancy marked the out coming problems of the Tzar regime. Yet he never cared for the difficulties. He was adamant. He was a good husband and a good father but a bad ruler. During his rule, the Tzarina ruled with an upper hand. His period was a critical period. He never realized the tone of the problem. The Russo Japanese war and the Revolution of 1905 broke out during his reign.

But he never learnt a lesson out of it. He involved Russia in the First World War when Russia was backward and poor. This inefficiency of Tzar Nicholas II was partly responsible for the fall of Tzar Regime.

3. Influence of Rasputin

Rasputin was a Siberian monk. He established influence in the Russian court on account of miraculously saving the life of Alesis, the son and heir to the throne of Tzar Nicholas II. He not only wielded his influence over the royal couple but also interfered in the administration of the nation. He spoiled the Russian regime. Ultimately he was killed by a member of the royal family. The murder of Rasputin enraged the Tzar and Tzarina. It only resulted in more oppressive rule. Instead of curing the oppression, the death Rasputin increased it. The Tzar and Tzarina acted madly. It only added fuel to the fire. The demands of the people for reforms were unheard. They were ill-treated and suppressed.

5. The Economic Condition of the Peasants

The economic and social condition of the peasants in the rural areas was pathetic. Feudalism remained in Russia even in the 19th century. The peasants were landless and they worked as bonded labourers. The peasants were sold along with the lands. Tzar Alexander II took pity on them and by a royal edict he abolished Serfdom in 1862. But it did not bring forth anticipated changes in the economic and social condition of the peasants. Really they were not liberated. But they remained as tillers of soil. They were poor and illiterate. They did not get economic liberty. The landed aristocrats kept the wealth of the nations. Most of the peasants were landless. They got freedom from land but not from the ill-treatment of the rich. Some of the peasants had lands but they were unable to compete with the landed aristocracy and hence they sold their lands and settled in the

urban areas. The poor economic condition of the peasants led to large scale migration to the urban areas.

6. The Condition of the Proletariat of the Towns

Russian was the last child of the European civilization and the Industrial Revolution finally erupt into the country. The industrial revolution created a new class in the society, the working class or the proletariat. The poor peasants migrated from the rural areas and settled in the urban areas. It increased the ranks of the workers as proletariat. Availability of large number of workers led to the exploitation of the capitalists. The workers were paid low wages and they worked in unprotected areas. Women and children were employed and were paid low wages. The working hours were increased so as to maximize the profit. On the whole, the working condition of the proletariat was not satisfactory. When they wanted to raise their voice by forming trade unions, they were suppressed. Their voice was unheard and suppressed, yet the discontent grew unabated leading to the outbreak of the revolution.

6. Revolutionary Propaganda

The Russian Revolution was greatly due to revolutionary propaganda. Like the French thinkers responsible for laying the path of the revolution in France, the revolutionary propagandists set in the minds of the Russians towards a revolution. Among the great thinkers, the notables were Karl Marx, Leo Tolstoy, Maxim Gorky and Turgenev.

Karl Marx

Karl Marx was a giant thinker and a voracious reader. He was a German Jew and he studied in the University of Jena. He was expelled from Germany for his revolutionary ideas. He got asylum in England where he

was patronised by his friend Engels. Both Marx and Engels worked together and Marx exposed his political philosophy through his monumental works, *Das Capital* and *Communist Manifesto*.

Das Capital of Karl Marx contains in itself the economic philosophy. It sets in a new economic system, namely the socialistic economy. It sets aside the capitalistic economy as false and exploiting. The socialistic economy is ushered in as the real cure for the human society.

The Marxian philosophy had a tremendous impact on the minds of the Russians; it seemed to be the right solution for the economic and social evils of the Russian society and state.

Turgenev 1817-1883

Turgenev studied in the Universities of Moscow, Petersburg and Berlin. He started his literary work as a poet. He had contacts with revolutionaries. When he became novelist, he reflected the revolutionary ideas. Most of his characters were revolutionaries. The most important novels of his were *Sportsman sketches*, *Father and Son*, *Virgin Soil* and *Rudin*.

The novel *Father and Son* depicts the life of Nihilist youth in Russia. *Virgin Soil* depicts how the youngsters spread the populist doctrines to the people. *Rudin* exposes the progressive ideas of the youth of Russia.

Leo Tolstoy 1828-1910

Leo Tolstoy was the most popular among the Russian writers. He was a literary genius. In addition, he was disciplinarian, philosopher and a humanist. Leo Tolstoy was the only Russian writer who attracted the attention of Mahatma Gandhi. Leo Tolstoy belonged to a rich family. He described the suppressive methods of the government and the old traditional

practices of the Russian church in his writings. It resulted in his excommunication from the Russian Orthodox Church.

Tales of Sebastopol, War and Peace, My Confession, Anna Karenna and the *Kingdom of God is Within You* are some of the notable works of Leo Tolstoy. *The kingdom of God is Within You* exposes the abuses of the Russian church leading to his ex-communication. The *Tales of Sebastopol* describes his experience in the Crimean War.

Maxim Gorky 1868-1936

Maxim Gorky was born in a peasant family. He was a famous story writer and through his stories he exposes the lives of the anti-social elements. *The Farmer People* are one of the notable stories of Maxim Gorky.

His later works reflect the lives of the revolutionaries and especially the Bolsheviks; in 1917 his famous novel *Mother* was published. It was used as propaganda for the Bolsheviks. He welcomed the Bolshevik revolution and after the revolution he settled in Italy. In 1928, he returned to Russia and lived under suspicious condition in 1936.

7. Rise of Political Parties

The reign of Tzar Nicholas II marked the spread of Industrial Revolution in Russia. Serga Witte, the Finance Minister under Tzar Nicholas II encouraged rapid industrial growth in Russia. The patronage of Serga Witte resulted in the rise of liberalism and socialism. The industrial workers demanded new reforms and better deal for the workers. The government's pro industrial policy led to the rise of many political parties. The important among them were social Democrats, Social Revolutionary Party, Liberal Party and Conservative Party.

George Plekhanov was responsible for the formation of social Democratic Party in 1898. It was the first organisation of the socialists. The social Democrats had a split. It split into Menshevik or the Moderates and Bolsheviks or the Radicals. The Mensheviks mostly belonged to the urban areas. The Bolsheviks were led by Lenin at the time of the Russian Revolution. Mensheviks were led by Kerensky.

In 1901 the social revolutionary party was formed. The party members were mostly dissatisfied peasants. It started as an extremist and revolutionary movement. It believed in political murder and arson. It had no deep rooted sympathy among the people of Russia.

The Liberal party was founded in 1903. It emerged as a middle class party. It demanded political reforms and it never advocated revolutionary changes.

The conservative party was the organization of the landed aristocracy. They were opposed to changes, reforms and revolutions. The main aim of the party was to stem the tide of the social democrats and the liberal party.

18. The Russo-Japanese War 1904-1905

The Anglo-Japanese alliance was formed in 1902. Encouraged by the alliance, Japan opened fire against Russia in 1904. The Russo-Japanese war was between a giant and a dwarf. In the war the giant European country was defeated by a dwarf - an Asian country. The war exposed the military weakness of the Russians. It was a blow to the Russian militarism and autocracy.

The failure of Russia in the external policy reflected in the internal policy. The war led to the outbreak of a constitutional movement in 1905.

Political unrest, uprisings and murder became widespread after the war. There was political uncertainty and unrest leading to the opposition of the autocratic Tzar regime in 1905.

The Revolution of 1905

Father Gapon led the discontented workers in a procession on 22nd January 1905. The procession was fired at and many people died. It was a Sunday, well known as bloody Sunday. It resulted in the assassination in February 1905 of Grand Duke Serge, an uncle of Tzar Nicholas II. In the meantime, the social Democrats formed the first Soviet in St. Petersburg to direct a strike against the Tzar Regime. The Liberal party demanded parliamentary form of government and universal suffrage. As the Tzar government was unable to subdue the situation, it issued the famous October Manifesto on 30th October 1905. The October Manifesto granted right to speech, association to faith, establishment of a parliament called Duma and limited franchise.

The reforms of the October Manifestoes did not satisfy the people. It divided the Liberals. The Tzar again resorted to reactionary principles. He considerably curtailed the legislative powers of the Duma. The Tzar failed to learn a lesson. He also established a second chamber to reduce the power of the Duma. In May 1906 the first Duma was elected and summoned. The social Democrats boycotted the election and the Liberals formed the majority in the Duma. It demanded responsible ministry. So the Tzar dissolved the Duma and on 1st March 1907 the Second was elected. The Second Duma was more radical than the First. It demanded responsible ministry. Again the Tzar dissolved it. The Third Duma was reduced to consultative body. The Fourth Duma functioned between 1912 and 1916. The Duma demanded reforms and formed a provincial government in 1917.

10. The First World War

The First World War was a spark for the outbreak of the Russian Revolution. Russia met with failure after failure in the First World War. The failure in the First World War created apathy against the government of the Tzar. The transport system collapsed and there was a heavy shortage of food stuff. In 1916 all the able bodied youth were recruited for the army and there was heavy shortage of man power. It resulted in the closure of industries and fall in the production of agriculture. In 1917 the wounded soldiers returned home. The list of names of dead soldiers was placed in the public places. The public demanded 'Peace, land and bread'. The Tzar regime was unable to meet the situation. The workers formed Soviets and struck work. Thus the failure of Russia in the First World War prepared the ground for the outbreak of the Russian Revolution of 1917.

February Revolution

The month of February in the Russian calendar was the month of March in the Christian calendar. Hence the first revolution that broke out in Russia in the month of March was famously known as the February Revolution.

There was general panic in Russia in 1916. Rasputin was killed in 1916. The death of Rasputin did not reduce the tyranny of the Tzar. On 8th March 1917 strikes were organized by the Bolsheviks at St. Petersburg. The Russian army was sent against them to tackle the situation. But the troops joined the rebels. It clearly sounded the fall of Tzar Regime.

On 12th March, the Duma established a new constitutional arrangement. A provincial government was established under Prince George Lvov. Paul Milkinov and Alexander Kerensky were the other important

ministers. A constituent Assembly was created to draft a new constitution. The ministers under Tzar Nicholas II were arrested. On 15th March 1917 the Tzar abdicated the throne thus ending the first stage of the revolution.

II work of the Provincial Government

The provincial government headed by Prince George Lvov was very liberal. It granted social and legal equality to all Russians. But the new government did not want to give up the policy of continuing the First World War. It wanted to prosecute the war vigorously. On the otherhand Petrograd Soviet demanded peace and withdrawal of Russia from the First World War. There was a sharp difference between the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks. The Bolsheviks were the dominating factor in the Petrograd Soviet. The Petrograd Soviet not only demanded peace but also insisted on controlling the army. It specially demanded in establishing elected committees in the army in order to control the aggressive policy of the army officers.

The division of the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks was carefully noted by the German government, it wanted the withdrawal of Russia from the Eastern Front in the First World War. The Russian withdrawal would reduce the war burden on Germany. So the German government allowed Lenin and Zinoviev to pass through Germany to Russia. These Bolshevik leaders were in exile in Switzerland. The arrival of Lenin created more problems for the provincial government. On 20th July, 1917 Prince George Lvov resigned and he was succeeded by Kerensky as the head of the Provincial government.

The Bolshevik Revolution

The Bolshevik Revolution of Russia took place in October-November of 1917. The Bolshevik revolution was led by Lenin who

remained in exile a few months ago. The provincial government under Kerensky faced many problems. The defeat of Russia in the First World War assumed an important proportion. The Russians were turned out of the Russian involvement in the war. There was heavy shortage of food. The Bolsheviks demanded for 'Peace, Land and Bread'. It created a clarion call. The provincial government was unable to suppress the Bolsheviks. Besides it was opposed by Mensheviks for its inactive.

At this juncture there was a quarrel between Kerensky and the general of the Russian army. The quarrel led to the downfall of Kerensky. Lenin staged massive revolution in October-November 1917 Kerensky was unable to solve the situation. He fled away from Russia and Lenin grasped power. He founded the rule of the proletariat and the Soviet Violent Revolution was brought to an end.

Characteristics of the Bolshevik Revolution

The Bolshevik revolution of October- November 1917 had its significant characteristics.

First, the Bolshevik Revolution was a violent social revolution. It established the rule of the proletariat. The communist rule or the rule of the proletariat was established for the first time in history.

Secondly, the Bolsheviks demanded 'Peace, Land and Bread'. The landed aristocracy, capitalists and top military officers were mercilessly massacred. Their property and lands were confiscated and distributed among the workers and the peasants. Thirdly, the Bolshevik Revolution established a reign of terror. All opposition was suppressed by Cheka, a Revolutionary tribunal.

Fourthly, Tzar and his family members were executed in 1918.

Finally, the communist philosophy began to spread abroad. Germany and later the allies after the fall of Germany took steps to contain communism in the European continent.

Reasons for the Victory of the Bolsheviks

The February Revolution was the first stage of revolution and it led to the establishment of a provincial government. The provincial government lasted between February and October and it fell before the Bolshevik revolution led by Lenin in October -November 1917. The victory of Lenin or the Bolshevik revolution was due to some valid reasons as follows:

1. The provincial government was unable to face the situation. There was shortage of food and loss of peace. The people were indignant of war and loss of life. Under such circumstances it was a wise thing for the provincial government to stop the war and work for the promotion of peace and prosperity of Russia.

2. The downfall of the Provincial government and the success of the Bolsheviks were due to the transport of Lenin from Switzerland to Russia.

3. The leadership of Lenin was an incomparable reason for the Bolshevik victory. He was the man behind the Bolshevik victory. He guided the Bolshevik rising and successfully captured power from the hands of the Provincial government. The Bolsheviks were minority when the Bolshevik revolution took place. But the brain of Lenin made it majority. He suppressed all the oppositions against the Bolsheviks.

5. The Bolsheviks made a right estimate of the strength and weakness of the provincial government. The provincial government had a minority composed of all political parties. It had no real support of the people. The provincial government wanted to tackle the revolution as well as to continue the war efforts. The burden was too much for it. It was well utilized by the Bolsheviks.

5. The success of the Bolshevik revolution was due to the Red army and Cheka. The Red Army was led by Trotsky. He suppressed all opposition without mercy. Cheka was the Revolutionary Tribunal behind the success of the Bolshevik revolution.

6. The provincial government faced problem after problem which was too much for a new government.

Results of the Bolshevik Revolution

The Bolshevik Revolution was the mightiest revolution in the world. It established far-reaching results. The revolution established a total change in Russia. The Russian way of life was changed after 1917. There were social, economic, political and cultural changes on account of the Russian Revolution.

1. The Bolshevik Revolution brought an end to the rule of the Tzar. The Romanov dynasty ruled for 300 years. Tzar Nicholas II was the last ruler of the dynasty. He abdicated in 1917 and he and his family members were shot dead in 1918 after the Bolshevik revolution.
2. The Bolshevik revolution put an end to the old regime and it also ended all old political institutions. The Duma, the parliament of Russia, the multiparty system that arose in Russia after the Industrial Revolution, was put to an end to by the Bolshevik revolution.

3. The Bolshevik revolution established totalitarian government in Russia. The after years of the First World War witnessed the rise of totalitarian governments. The first totalitarian government was the Russian government.
4. The Russian revolution established the government of the proletariat. The first working class government was founded in Russia after the Bolshevik revolution. The Bolsheviks were not only interested in the establishment of the proletariat government, but they also worked for the spread of communism elsewhere. They established Communist International for the spread of communism in the world. The dream of Karl Marx was brought into existence by the Bolshevik revolution.
5. The spread of communism led to the containment of communism in the European continent in the inter-war period. The rise of communism led to the rise of Nazism in Germany and Fascism in Italy. Italy and Germany were keen in controlling the growth of communism in their countries. Besides, Fascism and Nazism also established totalitarian government in their respective countries.
6. The growth of communism also created yet another problem in the international relations. During the Second World War Russia fought along with the Allies. Immediately after the fall of the Axis power there was a political vacuum. Russia began to spread communism by occupation. It was controlled by the U.S.A. It led to the chapter of the Cold War.
7. Bolsheviks in accordance with the Marxian political philosophy tried to end class struggle. So the working **class** alone was let free and all

other classes of community were massacred. Landed aristocracy, capitalists and rich were massacred without mercy. Thousands were killed. Many escaped to foreign countries their lands and properties were confiscated.

8. The rule of the Soviet was founded. The Russian parliament had only one party and that was the Communist party. Multi party systems were abolished in Russia. Very soon **Russia** became a Soviet Russia which was called the Union of Soviet Socialistic Republics.

9. The religion in Russia and the Orthodox Christianity were regarded unnecessary. Orthodox Christianity was no more the state religion. The churches were converted into temples of Reason and Communist office. Religion was prohibited in Russia.

10.The Russian economy was totally changed. The capitalistic economy was given up and the Marxian economy was brought into practice. Labour alone was regarded as the only factor of production. It led to the foundation of socialistic economy.

11. New economic trials were conducted one after another. At first the New Economic Policy was introduced. In order to improve the economy of the country, Stalin introduced Five Year Plans. Finally, the nature of the Russian culture underwent a total change. The life style and education of the people were modeled on the socialistic pattern. Inhuman punishments were granted to political prisoners. Usually they were sent to concentration camps.