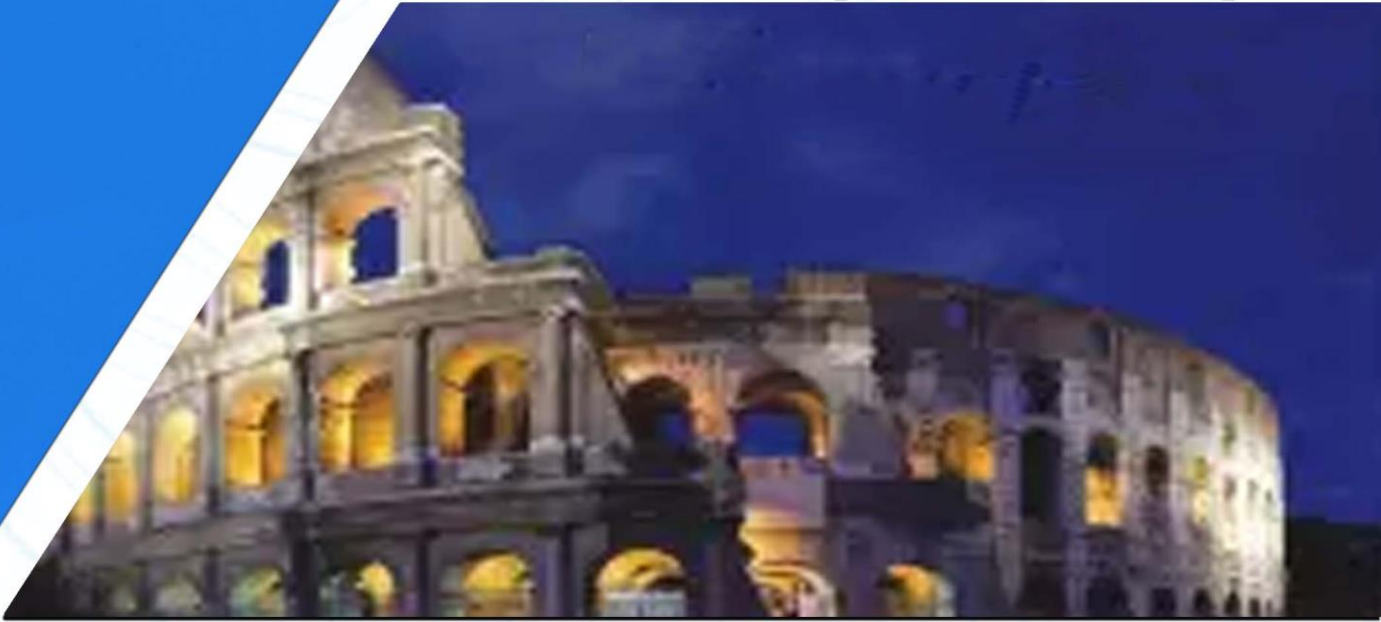




INSTITUTE
OF DISTANCE
EDUCATION **IDE**
Rajiv Gandhi University

BAHIS302 WORLD HISTORY (1500-1950) - I



BA (HISTORY)

5TH SEMESTER

Rajiv Gandhi University
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Revised Edition 2021

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E-28, Sector-8, Noida - 201301 (UP)

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About the University

Rajiv Gandhi University (formerly Arunachal University) is a premier institution for higher education in the state of Arunachal Pradesh and has completed twenty-five years of its existence. Late Smt. Indira Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India, laid the foundation stone of the university on 4th February, 1984 at Rono Hills, where the present campus is located.

Ever since its inception, the university has been trying to achieve excellence and fulfill the objectives as envisaged in the University Act. The university received academic recognition under Section 2(f) from the University Grants Commission on 28th March, 1985 and started functioning from 1st April, 1985. It got financial recognition under section 12-B of the UGC on 25th March, 1994. Since then Rajiv Gandhi University, (then Arunachal University) has carved a niche for itself in the educational scenario of the country following its selection as a University with potential for excellence by a high-level expert committee of the University Grants Commission from among universities in India.

The University was converted into a Central University with effect from 9th April, 2007 as per notification of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

The University is located atop Rono Hills on a picturesque tableland of 302 acres overlooking the river Dikrong. It is 6.5 km from the National Highway 52-A and 25 km from Itanagar, the State capital. The campus is linked with the National Highway by the Dikrong bridge.

The teaching and research programmes of the University are designed with a view to play a positive role in the socio-economic and cultural development of the State. The University offers Undergraduate, Post-graduate, M.Phil and Ph.D. programmes. The Department of Education also offers the B.Ed. programme.

There are fifteen colleges affiliated to the University. The University has been extending educational facilities to students from the neighbouring states, particularly Assam. The strength of students in different departments of the University and in affiliated colleges has been steadily increasing.

The faculty members have been actively engaged in research activities with financial support from UGC and other funding agencies. Since inception, a number of proposals on research projects have been sanctioned by various funding agencies to the University. Various departments have organized numerous seminars, workshops and conferences. Many faculty members have participated in national and international conferences and seminars held within the country and abroad. Eminent scholars and distinguished personalities have visited the University and delivered lectures on various disciplines.

The academic year 2000-2001 was a year of consolidation for the University. The switch over from the annual to the semester system took off smoothly and the performance of the students registered a marked improvement. Various syllabi designed by Boards of Post-graduate Studies (BPGS) have been implemented. VSAT facility installed by the ERNET India, New Delhi under the UGC-Infonet program, provides Internet access.

In spite of infrastructural constraints, the University has been maintaining its academic excellence. The University has strictly adhered to the academic calendar, conducted the examinations and declared the results on time. The students from the University have found placements not only in State and Central Government Services, but also in various institutions, industries and organizations. Many students have emerged successful in the National Eligibility Test (NET).

Since inception, the University has made significant progress in teaching, research, innovations in curriculum development and developing infrastructure.

SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

World History (1500-1950)

Syllabi	Mapping in Book
Unit I- Rise of Modern World. a. Fall of Constantinople. b. Renaissance and Reformation.	(Pages 3-34)
Unit II- Industrial Revolution a. Causes b. Effects.	(Pages 35-54)
Unit III- French Revolution and its Aftermath. a. Causes b. Significance.	(Pages 55-77)
Unit IV- Napoleon. a. Napoleon as a Reformer. b. Congress of Vienna.	(Pages 78-105)
Unit V- Rise of Nation States. a. Germany. b. Italy. c. Congress of Berlin.	(Pages 106-130)

INTRODUCTION

The history of the world is the history of humanity from the earliest times to the present, in all places on earth, beginning with the Palaeolithic Era. It excludes non-human natural history and geological history, except insofar as the natural world substantially affects human lives. World history encompasses the study of written records, from ancient times forward, plus additional knowledge gained from other sources, such as archaeology. Modern history, or the modern era, describes the historical timeline after the Middle Ages. Modern history can be further broken down into the *early modern period* and the *late modern period* after the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution. *Contemporary history* describes the span of historic events that are immediately relevant to the present time. The modern era began approximately in the 16th century. Many major events caused Europe to change around the turn of the 16th century, starting with the Fall of Constantinople in 1453, the fall of Muslim Spain and the discovery of the Americas in 1492, and Martin Luther's Protestant Reformation in 1517. In England, the Modern period is often dated to the start of the Tudor period, with the victory of Henry VII over Richard III at the Battle of Bosworth in 1485. Early modern European history is usually seen to span from the turn of the 15th century, through the Age of Reason and Age of Enlightenment in the 17th and 18th centuries, until the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in the late 18th century.

According to several historians, the Modern period of history starts at the beginning of the 19th century, specifically with the Treaty of Vienna in 1815. That treaty ended a period spanning between the ruin of the Byzantine Roman Empire and the end of the Napoleonic Empire. It also saw the maturation of the world capitalist system. From another angle, it saw the growth of most of the modern ideas and attitudes of human beings spanning the Reformation, the Renaissance, the Enlightenment, and nationalism.

This book, *World History (1500–1950)*, is divided into five units. The book follows the self-instructional mode wherein each unit begins with an Introduction to the unit followed by the Objectives of the topic. Check Your Progress questions are provided at regular intervals to test the student's understanding of the topics. A Summary, Key Terms and a set of Questions and Exercises are provided at the end of each unit. Answers to Check Your Progress have also been provided which would help the students assess their progress.

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UNIT 1 RISE OF THE MODERN WORLD

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Structure

Introduction
 Unit Objectives
 Fall of Constantinople
 The Byzantine Empire and its Culture
 Impact of the Fall of Constantinople
 Decline of Feudalism
 Rise of Capitalism
 Renaissance and Reformation
 Reformation
 Summary
 Key Terms
 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
 Questions and Exercises
 Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

The European society witnessed tremendous changes during the 15th and 16th century AD. The beginning of Renaissance developed enquiring spirit and scientific outlook among the Europeans. The Reformation movement challenged the medieval religious set up. It was against the Orthodox Church and the abuses of the Pope. It gave birth to a new religious order, i.e., Protestantism. The age of 'Enlightenment' brought people out of a state of 'ignorance' and encouraged them to question the existing systems and work towards intellectual, cultural and architectural advancement. Putting an end to the Medieval period, the Renaissance marked the transition from Middle Age to the Modern Age. The main cause of Renaissance was the fall of Constantinople.

The term 'Renaissance' is a French word and means 'rebirth'. It was used to describe the cultural movement that began in Italy in the 14th century and spread across Europe by the 16th and the 17th centuries. The movement was characterized by a revival of the classical sources in the sphere of learning. Linear perspective emerged in painting and there was reform in the educational system as well.

The emergence of capitalism and along with it the rise of the new middle class—the bourgeoisie—transformed the European cultural climate. There was a rise of great rivalry in the market as members of this capitalist class that controlled the means of production sought to outdo each other in producing goods that were cheaper and better than the other. As a consequence, it became necessary to have greater knowledge, a deeper understanding of the processes of life at large, rather than a having a restricted outlook. This became a fertile ground for the emergence of Renaissance, a cultural movement. Renaissance is, therefore, deeply entwined with the rise and growth of the market economy, capitalism and the bourgeoisie. The age of humanism, as Renaissance is often termed, coupled with deep emphasis on economic expansion, totally upturned

Self-Instructional

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the hitherto practiced and preached ideas of the Catholic Church. The medieval philosophy upheld in Western Europe laid all agency in the Lord. A just social order was considered beyond bounds in this world. However, the enterprising middle class wrested all agency and emerged as the masters of their own destinies relying on their own capabilities and enterprise. Hence, God was displaced and man became the nucleus of the newly emergent order. This change gained currency throughout Europe and soon the humanist philosophy came to be known as Renaissance or 'rebirth'. This 'rebirth', in fact, signified an intellectual awakening. The movement began in Italy and soon encompassed the whole of Europe. It was marked by the revival of classical style in the artistic sphere with humanists seeking to imitate the genius of Romans and Greeks. There emerged a greater engagement with scientific discoveries of the past and an effort to carry them forward.

The humanist movement received a shot in the arm in the middle of 15th century when Johann Gutenberg discovered printing in Germany. Another stalwart during the early years of Renaissance was Dante Alighieri (1265–1321), a Florentine poet. Coming at an age when the medieval beliefs were on the decline and the humanist movement was just gathering force, Dante became a defining figure. His *Divine Comedy*, written in Italian, was hugely acclaimed. That he chose to write a literary treatise in his native language highlighted an emerging trend, i.e., the growing national consciousness amongst the humanist writers of the 14th and 15th centuries. While works on science still used Latin as the medium of discourse, literary works relied on native languages.

The literary pieces of the humanist writers were distinctly different from the bygone times. The subject of focus shifted from the sacred and grandiose to the secular and everyday life. The common man replaced the traditional knight as the hero. Some of the most revered names that belonged to this age were Francesco Petrarca and Giovanni Boccaccio in Italy, Francois Rabelais in France, Ulrich von Hutten in Germany, Erasmus of Rotterdam in the Netherlands, Miguel Cervantes in Spain and William Shakespeare in England.

Art also reflected the humanist ideal of celebration of the individual and the world around him. Therefore, paintings and sculptures were marked by realism that celebrated man both in body and spirit. Famous names amongst the artists are Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Raphael, Titian, Velasquez, and Rembrandt amongst others.

The third dimension of Renaissance was its scientific vigour. Great discoveries were made and with emphasis on empiricism the seed of many of the modern natural sciences was sown. Valuable contributions were made by Galileo in astronomy and mechanics apart from natural sciences. Other major contributions were by Cardano in natural sciences, Leonardo da Vinci in mechanics, Copernicus in astronomy, Francis Bacon and Giordano Bruno in the materialist perspective on nature and Vesalius and Harvey in anatomy and physiology.

The political thought of the humanists demonstrated a rejection of the Catholic Church and the subservience to God that it embodied. They sought to overthrow the feudal setup of the Church where non adherence to a law was seen as a sin against God. Instead they believed in the ability of the state to maintain law and order and consequently upheld centralized state control.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Assess the impact of the fall of Constantinople
- Analyse the decline of feudalism and the rise of capitalism
- Explain the causes responsible for the rise of Renaissance
- Analyse the impact of Renaissance on art, literature and science
- Describe the Reformation Movement

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FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE

A new period in the history of Western civilization began in the 7th century, when it became clear that there would no longer be a single empire ruling over all the territories bordering on the Mediterranean. By about AD 700, in place of a united Roman Empire, there were three successor civilizations that stood as rivals of each other on different Mediterranean shores: the Byzantine, the Islamic, and the Western Christian. Each of these had its own language and distinctive form of life. The Byzantine civilization, which descended directly from the eastern Roman Empire, was Greek-speaking and dedicated to combining Roman governmental traditions with intense pursuit of the Christian faith. The Islamic civilization was based in the Arab world and inspired the government as well as culture by the idealism of a dynamic new religion. Western Christian civilization in comparison to others was a laggard. It was the least economically advanced and faced organizational weaknesses in both government and religion. But it did have some base of unity in Christianity and the Latin language, and would soon begin to find greater political and religious cohesiveness. For some four or five hundred years, the West lived in the shadow of Constantinople and Mecca. Scholars are only now beginning to recognize the full measure of Byzantine and Islamic accomplishments. These greatly merit our attention both for their own sakes and because they influenced western European development in many direct and indirect ways.

The Byzantine Empire and its Culture

Once dismissed by historian Gibbon as ‘a tedious and uniform tale of weakness and misery,’ the story of Byzantine civilization is today recognized as the most interesting and impressive one. It is true that the Byzantine Empire was in many respects not very innovative; it was also continually beset by grave external threats and internal weaknesses. Nonetheless, it managed to survive for a millennium. In fact, the empire did not just survive; it frequently prospered and greatly influenced the world around it. Among many other achievements, it helped preserve ancient Greek thought, created magnificent works of art, and brought the Christian culture to pagan people, above all the Slavs. Simply stated, it was one of the most enduring and influential empires the world has ever known.

It is impossible to date the beginning of Byzantine history with any precision because the Byzantine Empire was the uninterrupted successor of the Roman state. For this reason, different historians prefer different beginnings. Some argue that ‘Byzantine’ characteristics already emerged in Roman history as a result of the easternizing policy

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of Diocletian while others say that Byzantine history began when King Constantine moved his capital from Rome to Constantinople, the city which subsequently became the center of the Byzantine world. (The old name for the site on which Constantinople was built was Byzantium, from which we get the adjective Byzantine); it would be more accurate but cumbersome to say Constantinopolitine. Diocletian and Constantine, however, continued to rule a united Roman Empire.

Justinian's reign was clearly an important turning point in the redirection of the Byzantine civilization because it saw the crystallization of new forms of thought and art that can be considered more 'Byzanthan Roman.' But this still remains a matter of debate. Some scholars emphasize these newer forms, while others state that Justinian continued to speak Latin and dreamt of restoring old Rome. Only after AD 610 did a new dynasty emerge that came from the east, spoke Greek, and maintained a fully Eastern or properly 'Byzantine' policy. Although arguments can be made for the early Byzantine history with Diocletian, Constantine or Justinian, we will begin here with the accession in AD 610 of Emperor Heraclius.

It is also convenient to begin in AD 610 because from then until 1071 the main lines of Byzantine military and political history were determined by resistance against successive waves of invasions from the East. When Heraclius came to the throne, the very existence of the Byzantine Empire was being challenged by the Persians, who had conquered almost all of the empire's Asian territories. As a symbol of their triumph, the Persians in AD 614 even carried off the relic believed to be part of the original cross from Jerusalem. Through enormous effort, Heraclius rallied Byzantine strength and turned, the tide, routing the Persians and retrieving the cross in AD 627.

Once Persia was subjugated, Heraclius ruled in relative peace till AD 641. However, in the last few years of his rule, new armies began invading the Byzantine territory, swarming out of hitherto placid Arabia. Interestingly during this period, the Arabs were becoming blustering, taking advantage of the exhausted Byzantine power and inspired by the new religion of Islam. To establish themselves as the only Mediterranean power, the Arabs took to the sea. By AD 650, they had captured most of the Byzantine territories, which the Persians had occupied briefly in the early 7th century, conquered all of Persia, and were making inroads towards the west, across North Africa. This was possible as the Arab fleets secured bases along the coasts of Asia Minor and then proceeded to install a loose blockade around Constantinople. In AD 677, they attacked Constantinople, but failed. In AD 717, they made renewed attempt to conquer the city by means of a concerted land and sea operation.

The End of the Byzantine Empire

The Arab threat to Constantinople in AD 717 was a new low for Byzantine power. Emperor Leo (AD 717-741) countered the Arab threat with the help of a secret incendiary device known as 'Greek fire' and military strength and was able to defeat them on sea and as well as land. Leo's victory is significant for the European history, not just because it saw the Byzantine Empire rule for several more centuries, but also because it saved the West from immediate onslaught of the Islamic power. Had the Arabs taken Constantinople there would have been little to stop them from sweeping through the rest of Europe.

Over the next few decades, the Byzantines were able to reclaim most of its lost territories along Asia Minor. This region, along with Greece, became the seat of the Byzantine Empire for the next three hundred years. Thereafter, there was a truce between

the Byzantines and the Islamic power until they were able to take the offensive against a decaying Islamic power in the second half of the 10th century. In that period—the greatest in Byzantine history—Byzantine troops recaptured most of Syria.

In the 11th century, however, the Byzantine Empire faced its worst defeat in the hands of the Seljuk Turks and lost most of its gains. In AD 1071, the Turks annihilated a Byzantine troop at Manzikert in Asia Minor, a victory that granted them the passage to capture the rest of the eastern province. Constantinople was now thrown back, more or less, as it had been in the days of Heraclius and Leo.

After the battle at Manzikert, the Byzantine Empire lost its glory, though it managed to survive. The phase marked the beginning of the end of the Byzantine fortunes. Another reason for this was that from 1071 till the fall of the empire in 1453, the rise of Western Europe unbalanced the power equation. Till now, the West had been far too weak to present any major challenge to Byzantium. But the state of affairs turned different in the 11th century. In 1071, the same year that saw the victory of the Seljuk Turks over the Byzantines in Asia Minor, westerners known as Normans, expelled the Byzantines from their last holdings in southern Italy.

Despite this, in 1095, Byzantine emperor Alexius Comnenus sought help from the West against the Turks. This was a big mistake. His call ignited the desire among the Crusaders to attack the empire. During the first Crusade, the Westerners helped Byzantine win back Asia Minor, but they also carved out territories for themselves in Syria, which the Byzantines considered to be their own. With time frictions mounted and westerners viewed Constantinople as ideal for conquest. In 1204, they finally conquered it. Crusaders, who should have been intent on conquering Jerusalem conquered Constantinople instead and sacked the city with ruthless ferocity. By 1261, the Byzantine state was an empire in name and a reminiscent of past glories. After 1261, it eked out a reduced existence in parts of Greece until 1453, when powerful Turkish successors to the Seljuk Turks, the Ottomans, completed the Crusaders' work of destruction by conquering the last vestiges of the empire and taking Constantinople—now Istanbul.

That Constantinople was finally taken was no surprise. However, the main reason for giving a thought is that the Byzantine state survived for so many centuries in the face of so many different hostile forces. This becomes all the more greater when it is recognized that the internal political history of the empire was exceedingly tumultuous. Since Byzantine rulers followed their late-Roman predecessors in claiming the powers of divinely appointed absolute monarchs, there was no way of opposing them other than by intrigue and violence. Hence, Byzantine history was marked by repeated palace revolts; mutilations and murders. Byzantine politics became so famous for their behind-the-scenes complexity that we still use the word 'Byzantine' to refer to highly complex and devious backstage machinations. Fortunately, for the empire some very able rulers did emerge from time-to-time to wield their unrestrained powers with efficiency, and even more fortunately, bureaucratic machinery always kept running during times of palace upheaval.

Efficient bureaucratic government indeed was one of the major elements of Byzantine success and longevity. The Byzantines could count on having an adequate supply of manpower for their bureaucracy because Byzantine civilization preserved and encouraged the practice of education for the laity. This was one of the major differences between the Byzantine East and the early Latin West. Right from about 600 to about 1200 there was practically no literate laity in Western Christendom, while literacy in the Byzantine East was the basis of governmental accomplishment. Bureaucrats helped supervise education and religion and presided over all forms of economic endeavour.

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Urban officials in Constantinople, for example, regulated prices and wages, maintained systems of licensing, controlled exports, and enforced the observance of the Sabbath. What is more, they usually did this with comparative efficiency and did not stifle business initiative. Bureaucratic methods too helped regulate the army and navy, the courts, and the diplomatic service, endowing them with organizational strengths incomparable for their age.

Another explanation for Byzantine endurance was the comparatively sound economic base of the state until the 11th century. As historian, Sir Steven Runciman, said, 'If Byzantium owed her strength and security to the efficiency of her services, it was her trade that enabled her to pay for them.' While long-distance trade and urban life all but disappeared in the West for hundreds of years, commerce and cities continued to flourish in the Byzantine East. Above all, in the 9th and 10th centuries, Constantinople was a vital trade emporium for Far Eastern luxury goods and Western raw materials. The empire also nurtured and protected its own industries, most notably that of silk-making, and it was renowned until the 11th century for its stable gold and silver coinage. Among its urban centres was not only Constantinople, which at times may have had a population of close to a million, but also in certain periods Antioch, and up until the end of Byzantine history the bustling cities of Thessalonica and Trebizond.

Historians emphasize Byzantine trade and industry because these were so advanced for the time and provided most of the surplus wealth which supported the state. But agriculture was the heart of the Byzantine economy as it was of all pre-modern ones. The story of Byzantine agricultural history is one of struggle of small peasants to stay free of the encroachments of large estates owned by wealthy aristocrats and monasteries. Until the 11th century, the free peasantry just managed to maintain its existence with the help of state legislation, but after 1025 the aristocracy gained power in the government and began to transform the peasants into impoverished tenants. This had many unfortunate results, not the least of which was that the peasants became less interested in resisting the enemy. The defeat at Manzikert was the inevitable result. The destruction of the free peasantry was accompanied and followed in the last centuries of Byzantine history by foreign domination of Byzantine trade. Primarily, the Italian cities of Venice and Genoa established trading out-posts and privileges within Byzantine realms after 1204, which channeled off much of the wealth on which the state had previously relied. In this way, the empire was defeated by the Venetians from within before it was destroyed by the Turks from outside.

So far, we have spoken about military campaigns, the government, and economics as if they were at the centre of Byzantine survival. Seen from hindsight they were, but what the Byzantines themselves cared most about was religion. Remarkable as it might seem, Byzantines fought over perplexing religious questions as vehemently as we today might argue about politics and sports—indeed more vehemently because the Byzantines were often willing to fight and even die over some words in a religious creed. The intense preoccupation with questions of doctrine is well illustrated by the report of an early Byzantine writer who said that when he asked a baker for the price of bread, the answer came back, 'the Father is greater than the Son,' and when he asked whether his bath was ready, was told that 'the Son proceeds from nothing.' Understandably, such zealotry could harm the state greatly during times of religious dissension, but endow it with a powerful sense of confidence and mission during times of religious concord.

Religious practices

Byzantine religious dissensions were greatly complicated by the fact that the emperors took an active role in them. Because the emperors carried great power in the life of the Church—emperors were sometimes deemed by churchmen to be ‘similar to God’—they exerted great influence in religious debates. Nonetheless, especially in the face of provincial separatism, rulers could never force all their subjects to believe what they did. Only after the loss of many eastern provinces and the refinement of doctrinal formulae did religious peace seem near in the 8th century. But then it was shattered for another century by what is known as the Iconoclastic Controversy.

The Iconoclasts were those who wished to prohibit the worship of icons—that is, images of Christ and the saints. Since the Iconoclastic movement was initiated by Emperor Leo the Isaurian, and subsequently directed with even greater energy by his son Constantine V (AD 740-775), historians have discerned in it different motives. One was certainly theological. The worship of images seemed to the Iconoclasts to smack of paganism. They believed that nothing made by human beings should be worshiped by them, that Christ was so divine that he could not be conceived of in terms of human art, and that the prohibition of worshipping ‘graven images’ in the Ten Commandments (Exodus 20:4) placed the matter beyond dispute.

In addition to these theological points, there were probably other considerations. Since Leo the Isaurian was the emperor who saved Constantinople from the onslaught of Islam, and since Muslims zealously shunned images on the grounds that they were ‘the work of Satan’ (Koran, V. 92), it has been argued that Leo’s Iconoclastic policy was an attempt to answer one of Islam’s greatest criticisms of Christianity and, thereby, deprive Islam of some of its appeal. There may also have been certain internal political and financial motives. By proclaiming a radical new religious movement the emperors may have wished to reassert their control over the Church and combat the growing strength of monasteries. In the event, the monasteries did rally behind the cause of images and as a result were bitterly persecuted by Constantine V, who took the opportunity to appropriate much monastic wealth.

The Iconoclastic controversy was resolved in the 9th century by a return to the status quo, namely the worship of images, but the century of turmoil over the issue had some profound results. One was the destruction by imperial order of a large amount of religious art. Before the eighth century, Byzantine religious art that survives today comes mostly from places like Italy or Palestine, which were beyond the easy reach of the Iconoclastic emperors. When we see how great this art is, we can only lament the destruction of the rest. A second consequence of the controversy was the opening of a serious religious breach between the East and West. The pope, who until the 8th century had usually been a close ally of the Byzantines, could not accept Iconoclasm for many reasons. The most important of these was that extreme Iconoclasm tended to question the cult of saints, and the claims of papal primacy were based on an assumed descent from St. Peter. Accordingly, the 8th century popes combated Byzantine Iconoclasm and turned to the Frankish kings for support. This ‘about-face of the papacy’ was both a major step in the worsening of East-West relations and a landmark in the history of Western Europe.

Those were some consequences of Iconoclasm’s temporary victory; a major consequence of its defeat was the reassertion of some major traits of Byzantine religiosity, which from the 9th century until the end of Byzantine history remained predominant.

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One of these was the re-emphasis of a faith in traditionalism. Even when Byzantines were experimenting with religious matters, they consistently stated that they were only restating or developing the implications of tradition.

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Now, after centuries of turmoil, they abandoned experimenting almost entirely and reaffirmed tradition more than ever. As one opponent of Iconoclasm said, 'If an angel or an emperor announces to you a gospel other than the one you have received, close your ears.' This view gave strength to Byzantine religion internally by ending controversy and heresy, and helped it gain new adherents in the 9th and 10th centuries. However, it also inhibited free speculation not just in religion but also in related intellectual matters.

Allied to this development was the triumph of Byzantine contemplative piety. Supporters defended the use of icons not on the grounds that they were meant to be worshiped for themselves but because they helped lead the mind from the material to the immaterial. The emphasis on contemplation as a road to religious enlightenment, thereafter, became the hallmark of Byzantine spirituality. While westerners did not by any means reject such a path, the typical Western saint was an activist who saw sin as a vice and sought salvation through good works. Byzantine theologians on the other hand saw sin more as ignorance and believed that salvation was to be found in illumination. This led to a certain religious passivity and mysticism in Eastern Christianity which makes it seem different from Western varieties up to the present time.

Literature, art and architecture

Since religion was so dominant in Byzantine life, certain secular aspects of Byzantine civilization often go unnoticed, but there are good reasons why some of these should not be forgotten. One is Byzantine cultivation of the classics. Commitment to Christianity by no means inhibited the Byzantines from revering their ancient Greek inheritance. Byzantine schools based their instruction on classical Greek literature to the degree that educated people could quote Homer more extensively than we today can quote Shakespeare. Byzantine scholars studied and commented on the philosophy of Plato and Aristotle, and Byzantine writers imitated the prose of Thucydides. Such dedicated classicism both enriched Byzantine intellectual and literary life, which is too often dismissed entirely by modern thinkers because it generally lacked originality, and helped preserve the Greek classics for later ages. The bulk of classical Greek literature that we have today survives only because it was copied by Byzantine scribes.

Byzantine classicism was a product of an educational system for the laity which extended to the education of women as well as men. Given the attitudes and practices in the contemporary Christian West and Islam, Byzantine commitment to female education was truly unusual. Girls from aristocratic or prosperous families did not go to schools but were relatively well educated at home by private tutors. We are told, for example, of one Byzantine woman who could discourse like Plato or Pythagoras. The most famous Byzantine woman intellectual was the Princess Anna Comnena, who described the deeds of her father Alexius in an urbane biography in which she freely cited Homer and the ancient tragedians. In addition to such literary figures there were women doctors in the Byzantine Empire.

Byzantine achievements in the realms of architecture and art are more familiar. The finest example of Byzantine architecture was the Church of Santa Sophia (Holy Wisdom), built at enormous cost in the 6th century. Although built before the date taken

here as the beginning of Byzantine history, it was typically Byzantine in both its style and subsequent influence. Though designed by architects of Hellenic descent, it was vastly different from any Greek temple. Its purpose was not to express human pride in the power of the individual, but to symbolize the inward and spiritual character of the Christian religion. For this reason the architects gave little attention to the external appearance of the building. Nothing but plain brick covered with plaster was used for the exterior walls; there were no marble facings, graceful columns, or sculptured entablatures. The interior, however, was decorated with richly coloured mosaics, gold leaf, coloured marble columns, and bits of tinted glass set on edge to refract the rays of sunlight after the fashion of sparkling gems. To emphasize a sense of the miraculous, the building was constructed in such a way that no light appeared to come from the outside at all but to be manufactured within.

The structural design of Santa Sophia was something altogether new in the history of architecture. Its central feature was the application of the principle of the dome to a building of square shape. The church was designed, first of all, in the form of a cross, and then over the central square was to be erected a magnificent dome, which would dominate the entire structure. The main problem was how to fit the round circumference of the dome to the square area it was supposed to cover. The solution consisted in having four great arches spring from pillars at the four corners of the central square. The rim of the dome was then made to rest on the keystones of the arches with the curved triangular spaces between the arches filled in with masonry. The result was an architectural framework of marvelous strength, which at the same time made possible a style of imposing grandeur and even some delicacy of treatment. The great dome of Santa Sophia has a diameter of 107 ft and rises to a height of nearly 180 ft from the floor. So many windows are placed around its rim that the dome appears to have no support at all but to be suspended in mid-air.

As in architecture, so in art the Byzantines profoundly altered the earlier Greek classical style. Byzantines excelled in ivory carving, manuscript illumination, jewelry-making, and, above all, the creation of mosaics—that is, designs of pictures produced by fitting together small pieces of coloured glass or stone. Human figures in these mosaics were usually distorted and elongated in a very unclassical fashion to create the impression of intense piety or extreme majesty. Most Byzantine art is marked by highly abstract, formal, and jewel-like qualities. For this reason many consider Byzantine artistic culture to be a model of timeless perfection. Modern poet W. B. Yeats expressed this point of view most eloquently when he wrote in his *Sailing to Byzantium*, ‘of artificial birds made by Byzantine goldsmiths . . . tosing / To lords and ladies of Byzantium / Of what is past, or passing, or to come.’

Probably the single greatest testimony to the vitality of Byzantine civilization at its height was the conversion of many Slavic people, especially, those of Russia. According to the legend, which has a basic kernel of fact, a Russian ruler named Vladimir decided around 988 to abandon the paganism of his ancestors. Accordingly, he sent emissaries to report on the religious practices of Islam, Roman Catholicism and Byzantine Christianity. When they returned to tell him that only among the Byzantines did God seem to ‘dwell among men,’ he promptly agreed to be baptized by a Byzantine missionary. The event was momentous because Russia, thereupon, became a cultural province of Byzantium. Since then until the 20th century Russia remained a bastion of the Eastern Orthodox religion.

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Impact of the Fall of Constantinople

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The impact of the fall Constantinople in 1453 made the Russians feel that they were chosen to carry on both the faith and the imperial mission of the fallen Byzantine Empire. Thus, their ruler took the title of Tsar—which simply means Caesar—and Russians asserted that Moscow was ‘the third Rome’. ‘Two Homes have fallen,’ said a Russian spokesman, ‘the third is still standing, and a fourth there shall not be.’ Such ideology helps explain in part the late growth of Russian imperialism.

The fall of Byzantine led to the blockade of trade route to the eastern world from Europe, so Europe had to suffer. The inland trade was greatly affected and that led to the misery of the European states. The Silk Route saga was going to be altered by now.

Now Byzantine was in the hands of Muslims who had an upper hand. From then onwards Europe and Middle East would be in the domination of Muslims from Ottoman Empire.

The impact of the conquest of Byzantine would be greatly felt on the high seas also. Europe had began sea exploration searching for new routes where they would search for new colonies as well. By now, instead of trade taking place on land, sea routes were being discovered. Vasco Da Gama, Columbus, Magellan and scores of others had set off for finding new sea routes and they not only found them but also found new continents.

Unfortunately, just at the time when relations between Constantinople and Russia were solidifying, relations with the West were deteriorating to a point of no return. After the skirmishes of the Iconoclastic period, relations between Eastern and Western Christians remained tense, partly because Constantinople resented Western claims (initiated by Charlemagne in 800) of creating a rival empire, but most of all because cultural and religious differences between the two were growing. From the Byzantine point of view, westerners were uncouth and ignorant, while to western European eyes Byzantines were effeminate and prone to heresy. Once the West started to revive, it began to take the offensive against a weakened East in theory and practice. In 1054 extreme papal claims of primacy over the Eastern Church provoked a religious schism which since then has never been healed. Thereafter, the Crusade drove home the dividing wedge.

After the fall of Constantinople in AD 1204, Byzantine hatred of westerners became understandably intense. ‘Between us and them,’ one Byzantine wrote, ‘there is now a deep chasm: we do not have a single thought in common.’ Westerners called easterners ‘the dregs of the dregs . . . unworthy of the sun’s light,’ while easterners called the westerners the children of darkness, alluding to the fact that the sun sets in the West. The beneficiaries of this hatred were the Turks, who not only conquered Constantinople in 1453, but soon after conquered most of southeastern Europe up to Vienna.

Decline of Feudalism

During the early Middle Ages, at the close of the 5th century, the tribes which invaded the Roman Empire seized a large part of its territory. Initially, the land was common property, but soon tribal chieftains began to acquire people’s property and a monarchical form of government appeared. Large tracts of land came into the hands of the church, which now became a strong supporter of the monarchy. The kings distributed the land among their retinue, first for life, and later converted it to hereditary tenure. Those given

land were obliged to render military services to the king. The land was, as earlier, cultivated by individual farmers known as serfs. The serfs were dependent on their new masters, who imposed manifold duties on them. The plots held on these conditions were called 'feuds' and their owners were called 'feudals', hence the name 'feudalism'. In these arrangements, there were also some elements surviving from the Roman period linked with the conversion to Christianity. The settled inhabitants of Western Europe and the invaders underwent a long and slow process of mutual adjustment leading to widely varying social and political combinations which is described as feudalism. Feudal institutions were the arrangements—personal, territorial, and governmental—that made survival possible under the new system that replaced the centralized Roman administration.

Feudalism and feudal practice did not extend uniformly to the whole of Europe. Northern France and the 'low countries' were the most thoroughly feudalized areas, Germany much less so. Some pieces of land never became fiefs but remained fully owned private property of the owners. They were called *allods*. Feudal practices varied from place to place, and developed and altered with the passage of time.

Feudal society was strictly divided into classes, i.e., nobility, clergy and peasantry, and in the later Middle Ages into burgesses. Private jurisdiction in this system was based upon local customs, and the landholding system was dependent upon the fief or fee. Feudalism was based on contracts made among nobles, and although it was intimately connected with the manorial system, it must be considered distinct from it. Although some men held their land allodially, they were exceptions rather than the rule. In a feudal society, the ownership of all land vested in the king who theoretically occupied the apex of an imaginary pyramid. Immediately below him were his vassals, a hierarchy of nobles, who held fiefs directly from the king and were called tenants-in-chief. Thus, the most important nobles held land directly from the king, and the lesser lords from them, down to the seigneur who held a single manor. The system was local and agricultural, and its base was the manorial system. Under the manorial system, the peasant-labourers or serfs, held land they worked on from the seigneur, who granted them the use of the land and his protection in return for personal services (especially on the demesne, the land he retained for his own use) and for dues generally in kind. In course of time, many lords preferred cash payments so that they could purchase the goods that the manor could not produce. In such a system, a personal relationship was formed between the lord and the vassal. Gradually, the system of subinfeudation evolved, by which the vassal might in his turn become an overlord, granting part of his fief to one who then became his vassal.

Originally, the fief had to be renewed on the death of either party. However, with the advent of hereditary succession and primogeniture, renewal of the fief by or to, the heir of the deceased, became customary, and gradually, the fief became hereditary. Since the system rested on the unsettled conditions of the times, and thus on the need of the lord for armed warriors and the need of the vassal for protection, the nobility was essentially a military class, with the knight as the typical warrior. Since equipping mounted fighters was expensive, the lord could not create his armed force without the obligation of the vassal to supply a stipulated number of armed men. The gradations of nobility were, therefore, based on both military service and landholding. At the bottom of the social scale was the squire, originally the servant of the knight. Above the knight were classes that varied in different countries—counts, dukes, earls, barons. In addition to military service, the vassal owed other dues and services that varied with local custom.

The church also played a great role in shaping feudalism. The church hierarchy paralleled the feudal hierarchy. The church owned much land held by monasteries, church

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dignitaries and by the churches themselves. Most of this land, given by nobles as a bequest or gift, carried feudal benefits. Thus, clerical land, like lay land, assumed a feudal aspect.

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The feudal economy was a natural economy, i.e., a 'subsistence economy'. The peasants produced mainly for their own consumption and rarely exchanged commodities. The feudal lords likewise, rarely resorted to trade, except for luxury goods, because everything they needed was produced by self-labour. Agricultural methods were primitive in the beginning, though towards the later feudal age, techniques of growing grain and vegetables as well as that of making wine and butter were improved. However, towns gradually began to expand under the feudal system, so that exchange and trade flourished. In the Middle Ages, most of the goods in the towns were produced by small craftsmen. Gradually, production expanded with the growth of trade.

M. M. Postan classified scholars working on feudalism into those who stress the political or military features of the feudal order, and those who relate the feudal order to its economy. In the military interpretation, the essence of feudalism was in the fief, a knightly estate, which fulfilled the military needs of the state and the society. Here, the concentration of landed property was in the hands of feudal lords, and the political, administrative and judicial authority was vested in the landed estate. The humbler ranks of society were subordinated to the higher ranks.

In the political interpretation, feudalism is described as a system wherein administrative and judicial functions of the government were fragmented, and as a rule vested in a feudal lordship. Feudal societies so fragmented, are accordingly assumed to have risen on the ruins of states and empires, and owed their existence to the inability of the state to fulfill its functions.

Marc Bloch described the fundamental features of European feudalism as 'subject peasantry; widespread use of service tenement (i.e., fief) instead of a salary which was out of question; supremacy of a class of specialized warriors; ties of obedience and protection which bind man to man and, within the warrior class, assume the distinctive form called vassalage; fragmentation of authority, leading inevitably to disorder; and in the midst of all this, the survival of other forms of association, family and state, of which the latter, during the second feudal age, was to acquire renewed strength.' This description stresses the subjugation of the peasantry to coercive forms of extraction of a part of their surplus. It suggests that money was relatively less used and emphasizes the importance of the warrior class and warfare as also the value attached to the maintenance of a hierarchy of status in society.

In the economic interpretation, Marx and Marxists defined feudalism as a political and social order appropriate to natural economy, in which land is the main source of income and the only embodiment of wealth. In such a system, goods were acquired by barter, gifts or booty. The allegiance of the upper classes was secured by grants of land, and labour was extracted by extra-economic coercion rather than wage contract; hence the view of feudal villeinage and servility as by-products of a natural economy. Marx used the term 'feudalism' to describe a whole social order whose main feature was domination of the rest of the society, mainly peasants, by a military landowning aristocracy. The essence of the feudal mode of production in the Marxist sense is the exploitative relationship between landowners and subordinate peasants. In this, the surplus beyond subsistence of the peasant, whether in direct labour or in rent in kind or in money, is transferred under coercive sanction to the landowner. The feudal mode of production, according to Marx, was one in which the direct producer was not separated

from the means of production. Thus, feudalism rests on a solid base of petty production. Since the dominant class, the nobility, did not perform any economic function production, the form of surplus appropriation was extra-economic or political. The basic characteristic of feudalism was the political domination of the peasant producers. Maurice Dobb defined feudalism as a system under which economic status and authority were associated with land tenure and the direct producer (who was himself the holder of some land) was under obligation, based on law or customary right, to devote a certain quota of his labour or his produce for the benefit of his feudal superior. Thus, as a system of socio-economic relations, it was virtually identical to that of serfdom but also included direct labour service and tribute or feudal rent in produce or money. Thus, serfdom is an essential condition of feudalism.

Rodney Hilton stated that the basic feature of a feudal society was its agrarian character and petty production based on the peasant family. However, the surplus produced by the peasantry was appropriated by a class of landlords who did not fulfill any economic function. The peasantry was politically and juridically dependent on the landlord in several ways.

Closely related to this model of feudalism is the model defining it as a manorial order. According to it, a typical feudal system is one in which the large estate functions not only as a unit of ownership and power, but also as one of productions, hence its regime of dependent cultivation and its accompanying traits—enforced labour, description of tenants to the soil. According to Perry Anderson, the feudal mode of production was dominated by land and a natural economy, in which neither labour nor its products were commodities. Agrarian property was privately controlled by a class of feudal lords who extracted a surplus from the peasants by politico-legal relations of compulsion which were exercised both on the manorial demesne and on the peasant's land. This situation led to a juridical amalgamation of economic exploitation with political authority. But political sovereignty was never concentrated in a single centre. While the peasant was subjected to the jurisdiction of his lord, the lord too held his estate as a fief, being subordinate to his feudal superior and providing military assistance in times of war. The chain of such dependent tenures linked to military service extended to the highest peak—the monarch. The functions of the state were disintegrated in a vertical allocation downwards, while the political and economic relations at each level were integrated. This parcelization of sovereignty was constitutive of the whole mode of production.

The military school model defines feudal societies as those which meet other military needs solely or mainly by knightly services and derives all the other features of social order from the fief. This definition applies to a period far too short to cover the entire stretch of the feudal age anywhere in Europe. The political model is equally restrictive geographically and chronologically because it defines feudalism as an order in which the estate replaced the State. Thus in Europe, such feudalism would be confined to a century or two following the dissolution of the Carolingian Empire, (AD 751-987) and would not be found in most parts of Europe. However, this transition to the new mode of production took time.

Crises of the 14th and the 15th Centuries

As a consequence of the crisis of feudal rents, the lords tried to impose a variety of new obligations, thus transgressing the ideology of paternalism and protection by which feudal rents were legitimized in the first place. The late medieval rebellions were, thus directed not against the lordship itself, but against the abuse of lord's power. The causes of the

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crisis of feudalism, was purely coercive and extra economic nature of feudal benefits was exposed. Since the 13th century, with the growing monetization of social relations, the legitimization of feudal relationships in terms of military and political hierarchy of subordination was weakened. But it was only in the 14th and 15th centuries that the feudal ideology of paternalism was finally destroyed. One of the features of peasant rebellions was that they were marked by a 'negative class-consciousness'. Basically, these movements were not rebellions by the entire peasantry but were combinations of rich peasants voicing their protests against restrictions and the small marginal peasants protesting against the regulation of wages. These peasant movements included not just peasants but also various other groups that were essential for the functioning of the peasant society like artisans, small traders and wage labourers.

The social organization of agricultural production varied everywhere in Europe. In Western Europe, the demesne was the largest because denser population required the relative efficiency of larger units. In Central Europe, the effects of economic recession led to desertions of marginal land—Wustungen, and were due to enclosures as well as to abandonment. Further east, in Brandenburg and Poland where population density was thinner and where lords collectively owned much less land than peasants, the lords soon acquired all the lands deserted due to the sudden demographic collapse. This step would be very profitable to them in the 16th century. It altered the social structure of Eastern Europe and was also very important for the development of Western Europe. In England, the manor was the typical unit for organizing production. During the 13th century, demesne farming developed in a very big way. Labour services were also intensified and the difference between the free peasants and the dependent peasants, i.e., villeins, increased. With the depopulation of Europe and the subsequent rise in wages, production by wage labour became unprofitable. Since there was a vast decline in the prices of food grains, commercial production lost its profitability. There was severe decline in demesne cultivation by the landlords. Land was now leased out in family-sized units and not in big units. There was also a decline in labour services.

In France too, there was a decline in commercial production by the landlords. There was a rise in rented farms with tenants. As there were no demesnes left, there was no serfdom or labour service. The French nobility was unable to deal with the widespread rural rebellion in France, and it facilitated the consolidation of State power. During the 14th and the 15th centuries, the French monarchy supported by the lesser nobles and the peasants, to a great extent stopped the big nobles from levying dues which conflicted with centralized taxation.

In Spain, the 14th and the 15th centuries marked the peak of aristocratic power. Owing to the re-conquest of the country from the Arabs, land was granted to nobles, and big estates of over 5000 sq km came into existence. With depopulation caused by epidemics, the vacant land was devoted to sheep farming. The big sheep owners belonged to an organization called 'Mesta'. The depopulation of the country did not bring about any benefits to the peasantry.

In the Mediterranean region, a system of long-term leases called Metayage developed. Metayage is a form of share cropping in which the landlord invested capital and shared the cost of production. The landlord was thus brought into closer collaboration with the peasant, and the production process. In Italy this system was called the Mezzadria system.

In Eastern Europe, the nobility solved the problem of declining rents by intensifying the labour services and in the 15th century the nobility increased its political power over

the peasants in order to dominate them economically. In Eastern Europe, where the settlement was more recent, the village structure was also more homogeneous and conducive to control. In East Germany, during periods of depopulation, vacant land was appropriated by the lords and the peasantry was coerced into cultivating it as serfs. The nobles gave a subsidy to the state and were in turn granted rights to enslave the peasants. In this way, the area under the demesnes was expanded and labour obligations on the peasantry also increased.

From 15th century onwards, there was also a growth in the export of grain from Eastern Europe by the merchants of the Hanseatic League. The nobility increased demesne production and thus its share in this grain trade. The development of the state on the other hand, was linked to the nobility's attempt to find free access to the sea. In the Baltic region the expansion in agricultural exports and demesne production was also linked to the enserfment of the peasantry. In Lithuania, there was a scramble for land and peasants by the nobles. In Denmark, serfdom was linked to dairy products. In Russia, the development of serfdom was linked more to the demands of the internal market than to the export trade in grain. During the 16th and the 17th centuries, there was a further intensification of the grain trade and the development of the 'second serfdom' which Engels talked of. The agrarian crisis of the 14th and 15th centuries thus, had different implications on different regions of Europe.

The very large demesnes in non-marginal arable lands of Western Europe were transformed into smaller landholdings giving rise to medium-sized peasantry on arable lands. There was simultaneously, a beginning of enclosures of the less arable land (which would be the basis of expanded animal husbandry), and the concentration of property into large estates (which would serve as grain export areas) in Western Europe.

Rise of Capitalism

In Western Europe, with the decline in demesne production, serfdom and labour rents disappeared from the peasantry. The 14th and 15th centuries saw the rise of substantial peasant farms, owing to depopulation and vacant holdings. It led to the emergence of the middle level peasants in both England and France. In England, the consolidation of peasant holdings weakened the role of the village community. The latter had enjoyed the right to decide about crops and production, and was an impediment in the transition to capitalism. The changed demographic situation affected both the composition of the peasantry as well as the structure of the peasant family. In England, the vacant lands weakened the family structure as peasants moved from one place to another, in search of holdings. In France, the problem of shortage of labour led to consolidation of patriarchal lineages. The peasant economy that developed in the 14th and 15th centuries was more self-sufficient than the manorial economy based on demesne production that existed in the 13th century. In Eastern Europe, where there was a seigniorial reaction, the peasantry was re-enslaved rather than freed of labour obligations. Michael Postan sees the 15th century as a period of regression from the development of the 14th century, a setback that was overcome later. The English merchant class responded to the recession of trade by adopting a policy of regulation and restriction, impeding the entry of new recruits into commerce and attempting to share out the available trade. Eugen Kosminsky viewed the collapse as a part of the liquidation of feudalism, hence a necessary step towards the development of a capitalist economy. So, it was not the depopulation but the liquidation of the manorial economy, the commutation and diminution of feudal rent which improved the condition of the peasant. At the same time, the expansion of simple

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commercial production, prepared the way for capitalist relations. The landowner or lord of the manor prospered when the State was the weakest.

According to Fernand Braudel, the territorial state, the rival of the city state, showed itself more capable of meeting the costs of modern war and its rise was an irreversible phenomenon. The 16th century saw the rise of Louis IX in France, Henry VII in England, and Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon in Spain. By means of financial mechanisms, they created a civil and armed bureaucracy, strong enough to tax, and thus finance a still stronger bureaucratic structure. Marc Bloch says that from this time onwards, the state began to acquire that essential element of its financial supremacy, which was greater than that of any individual or community.

Feudalism gave way to capitalism but it was never a smooth transfer. It took around two more centuries before feudalism finally gave way to capitalism. There were changes in and around feudalism as an economic and administrative system. The farmers had started growing cash crops and land was being enclosed for commercialization of agriculture. The Agricultural revolution had changed as instead of production for consumption the production for trade had started. There was growth of towns all around in the European states and thus businesses, commercial enterprises, trading depots had started coming up. The presence of factory system mostly in England had provided the base to industrial growth. Reformation movement also brought stimulus in the thinking as Protestants were much in favour of capital flow and investments so that businesses would grow; according to Max Weber, it was the period which led to the growth of capitalism in Europe.

RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION

Renaissance means rebirth or renewal. As a cultural movement, its origin goes back to 14th century, and by the 16th century it had spread through entire Europe. In the context of Europe it marked a historic phase—the transition of Europe from the medieval to the modern age. Europe in the past had been under the domination of the Greeks and later the Romans. With the decline of the Roman Empire, Europe fell into the ‘Dark Ages’. This was an age when feudalism was the order of the day and the Catholic Church had an all pervading control on the society. False beliefs and blind faith perpetrated by the Church as well as a feudal set up led to the complete fragmentation of the society.

Renaissance proved to be the vital connect between the medieval times and the modern age. As an intellectual and cultural revival, it altered the history of Europe. And while, all spheres of everyday life from religion to politics, science and literature witnessed change, it was most expressly manifest in the artistic sphere. It was the genius of men like Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo that gave birth to notions of realism in art, depiction of human emotions and concept of the ‘Renaissance man’.

Causes of Renaissance

The reasons that led to the beginning of Renaissance were as follows:

- 1. Turkey’s capture of Constantinople:** Constantinople was of vital importance as it was the centre of classical learning in the eastern Roman Empire. In 1453, when the Turks seized control of Constantinople, there was a shift in the seat of classical learning. Greek scholars carried along with them rare manuscripts to the new centre of learning—Italy. Therefore, classical learning now flourished in Italy.

Check Your Progress

1. Who were the Iconoclasts?
2. What was the impact of the fall of Constantinople?
3. Fill in the blanks.
 - (a) The _____ also played a great role in shaping feudalism.
 - (b) The _____ economy was a natural economy.

Self-Instructional

2. **Decline of feudalism:** With the emergence of monarchy in England, France and Spain and the birth of nation states, feudalism as perpetrated by the church through imposition of taxes was fast losing ground. These rulers kept the forces of feudalism in check and around AD 1300 feudalism was on its way out.
3. **Growth of towns:** Renaissance was marked by enterprise. Italy saw the spawning of large cities as trade and commerce flourished. Free from feudal overlords, the traders and craftsmen settled in the cities which became the new centres for learning. This spirit of enterprise and expansion ushered in Renaissance.
4. **The Crusades:** The Crusades or the holy wars were the prolonged conflict between Christians and Muslims for control over Jerusalem, the holy city. They also played a crucial role in transforming the European society.
5. **The spirit of enquiry:** With the decline of the church and a rejection of age old beliefs, ideas of realism in art, empiricism in science and humanism in general gathered force. These new ideas that stressed on reason and observation ushered in progress in science. Humanism ensured that man was now revered as body and form.
6. **Invention of printing press and other discoveries:** There was gradual educational reform, emergence of universities and rise of printing press that led to the spread of education. Germany got its first printing press in 1455 while England got the same in 1477 due to the efforts of William Caxton. Other important discoveries included gunpowder and progress in shipbuilding, mariner's compass and maps that were essential for purposes of navigation.
7. **Encouragement to art and learning:** Art and learning found new patrons from amongst monarchs to merchants. Cultural activities were promoted through schools and universities set up by families of patrons. The humanist thinkers devoted themselves to the recovery of the relics of ancient Greek and Latin works of literature, oratory and history. Their interest in literary and historical treatises set them apart from a host of medieval scholars whose areas of interest were chiefly Greek and Arab works on natural sciences, philosophy and mathematics.
 - (a) Religion was not discarded in Renaissance but marked by a subtle shift in the way it was perceived by the intellectuals. Christianity found expression in art and many religious works of art were commissioned by the church as well. A fresh engagement began with Greek Christian texts including the Greek New Testament, when they were recovered from Byzantium. This exchange, promoted by Lorenzo Valla and Erasmus, was one of the contributions to the reformation drive by the Protestants.
 - (b) The Renaissance engaged with the classics and used their ideas but only to promote an essentially secular society. Divergent views come from a group of scholars like Rodney Stark, who believe that the source of Renaissance was Italian city states which were therefore, of more importance than the movement itself. Moreover, these city states amalgamated a centralized state, church and capitalist culture successfully. It was the progress ushered in by the capitalism of Italian city states that paved way for the genesis of Renaissance. Quite contrastingly, other European states like France and Spain were monarchies while other parts of Europe were under the control of the church.

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8. New trade route between east and the west: With trade flourishing, new trade routes opened between western and eastern Europe. Long distance trade became a crucial factor in the emergence of Renaissance. The Greek scholars were displaced to Italy following the invasion of Constantinople by Turkey. In 1498, Vasco da Gama discovered the sea route to India via the Cape of Good Hope. As new vistas opened before the traders and travellers, Renaissance spread from Italy to other parts of Europe. Trade also grew between Europe and the Middle East from the Italian cities of Naples, Genoa and Venice.

The Age of Discovery

The discovery of new trade routes and the explorations by travellers helped Renaissance spread far and wide. With Greek and Roman trade centres situated close to the Mediterranean, there was greater exchange with the outside world. Of the many explorations undertaken, Marco Polo's is very notable. He travelled from Venice to China and Japan, brought back accounts of the prosperous and wealthy eastern parts of the world. The advent of science, new inventions and discoveries, the progress in navigational skills and the accounts of travellers inspired others to undertake such journeys.

The Portuguese explorers

The earliest patrons of explorers were the Portuguese and the Spanish. The Portuguese prince Henry, earned the title of 'Navigator' because of his immense interest in and promotion of navigation. With the aid of newly developed navigational tools such as the mariner's compass and astrolabe, his sailors explored as far as the West African coast. Other Portuguese sailors like Bartolomeu Dias and Vasco da Gama explored the Cape of Good Hope, the former in 1487 and the latter making greater progress in 1498 reaching Calicut. The discovery of Brazil in 1500 by Cabral was another feather in the cap for the Portuguese. They travelled far and wide reaching to the Far East, exploring China, Japan, Indonesia and Ceylon. Ferdinand Magellan (AD 1480–1521) who lends his name to the Strait of Magellan was also from Portugal. He sailed around the Atlantic Ocean to reach the Pacific, his entry point into Pacific being termed as the Strait of Magellan.

Other explorations led to the discovery of America, that got its name from an Italian explorer, Amerigo Vespucci. An Italian sailor, Christopher Columbus' (AD 1451–1506) voyage along the Atlantic Ocean was patronized by Spain.

Origin of Renaissance in Italy

Renaissance spread across Europe in different phases. Initially, Italy was the stronghold of the movement following the Turkish invasion of Constantinople. As new trade routes were discovered, Italy benefited due to its strategic location between Western Europe and Middle East. Traders from across the world converged here and this enabled plenty of exchange. Cultural activities patronized the Pope, headquartered at Rome, and other wealthy Italian merchants. The arrival of Greek scholars from Constantinople added to the intellectual movement that was already gathering steam. The 16th century saw Renaissance at its peak with Italy producing some of the greatest literary and artistic geniuses.

Renaissance brought about a shift in the artistic style from the medieval ages. Religion gave way to the celebration of the human race. The spirit of Renaissance and its ideals found expression in its paintings. Renaissance marked a revival of the classical style but gracefully and aesthetically incorporated human passion interweaving it with religious themes. One of the most renowned Renaissance artists was Leonardo da Vinci (AD 1452–1519), a skilled musician, architect, engineer, mathematician apart from being a painter. One of his masterpiece is Mona Lisa. Mona Lisa is the embodiment of the painter's ideal woman. She is painted against the natural backdrop.

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Fig. 1.1 Mona Lisa

The Last Supper is yet another masterpiece that depicts the calmness of Christ in comparison to the reactions of his disciples when he shares with them his knowledge of the fact that one from amongst them would betray him.



Fig. 1.2 Last Supper

Michelangelo Buonarroti (AD 1475–1564), a skilful sculptor apart from being an architect and painter, was deeply interested in the study of the human form. His sculptures were a celebration of the magnificence and grace of human body. His Statue of David, the Pieta, Day and Night and Moses are most acclaimed.

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Fig. 1.3 Michelangelo's David

Raphael (AD 1483–1520), a contemporary of Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci, was widely celebrated for his work *Madonna and Child*.



Fig. 1.4 Madonna and Child

Renaissance and Literature

Literature underwent a transformation with Renaissance. Humanist writers engaged in classical literature which in turn gave shape to a whole new corpus of work. New European languages gained prominence as writers like Dante and Petrarch transformed the literary scene. Dante's *Divine Comedy*, an Italian epic about a journey into the other world and Petrarch's *Sonnets to Laura* gave humanism a new direction. Other writers of the age were Ariosto who composed *Orlando Furioso* and Tasso who is famous for his work *Jerusalem Delivered*.

Renaissance and Science

There was a stress on reason and observation during Renaissance. As science advanced and made new progress every day, people shunned the dogmatic beliefs that had hitherto restricted their lives. Reason was supreme and everything was to be governed by a rationale. Prominent scientists were:

1. Roger Bacon (AD 1214–1294), who discovered uses of gunpowder and magnifying lenses. He also anticipated an improvement in ships with them becoming oar less and carriage that need not be horse drawn.
2. Copernicus (AD 1473–1543), a Polish priest, faced much flak for suggesting that the sun and not the earth was the centre of the universe and that the earth and other heavenly bodies revolved around it. His discovery was in contention to the belief held by the church. He also suggested that the earth rotated about its axis.
3. Galileo (AD 1564–1642), apart from being the inventor of telescope and studying the movement of heavenly bodies, also proved the Copernican theory correct through his experiments and mathematical calculations.
4. Johannes Kepler (AD 1571–1630) discovered that the earth and the planets revolve around the sun in an elliptical orbit and not in a circular one as earlier believed.
5. Newton, a British scientist, is famous for his theory of gravitation and laws of motion.
6. Halley theorized the appearance of comets at regular periods.
7. There was great progress in the field of medicine.
8. Vesalius, a physician, wrote *De Humani Corporis Fabrica*, a study of anatomy.

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Other Effects of Renaissance

With the opening of new trade routes, the hub of trade shifted from the Mediterranean region of Italy and Turkey to the Atlantic regions of England and Portugal gradually. As these places flourished, there began a quest for expansion. This led to the rise of colonialism as the Western world exploited its colonies in Africa, Asia and America by procuring cheap goods from there and selling its finished products to them at high prices. So helpless were these colonies eventually due to the imperialist agenda of their masters that they succumbed to the Western culture. The discovery of America brought with it the plantation culture where slaves were employed to work on cotton, sugarcane and tobacco plantations and were treated ruthlessly. With the mercantile theory propounding that wealth was determined by the amount of gold or silver a nation possessed, the colonizers launched into action the quest for acquiring more and more gold and silver by emphasizing on exports and taking payment for all the sales they made in these precious metals.

With the diverse changes that Renaissance ushered in, the European society was transformed forever. Humanity came to be celebrated and rationalism replaced unquestioning reverence to the divine. Catholic Church that had until now exercised unbridled control fast began to lose its grip. The intellectual revolution sought to overthrow the corrupt practices of the Church and this set in motion a reform movement that split the Christians into Catholics and Protestants called Reformation.

Reformation

Capitalist countries were amongst the first to break away from the Catholic Church. They subjugated their churches to the control of their rulers thereby depriving the church of the supremacy that it had long enjoyed. Moreover, they altered religious discourse in a manner that served the interests of the rising middle class.

A prominent supporter of Reformation was John Calvin. In keeping with the spirit of the times, he supported the ills perpetuated by capitalism like slavery and

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colonial expansion. Soon Protestantism became the new religion of all the capitalist countries as they shrugged off the authority of the pope and the supremacy of the church in favour of the economic interests of the bourgeoisie. Protestantism spread through the teachings of Martin Luther King in Germany who upheld princely rule and gave rise to the Lutheran Church and also through the teachings of Zwingli from Switzerland. His teachings were largely oriented towards the economic interest of the bourgeois class.

Meaning of Reformation

Reformation, the term, means an effort to bring about a change. In the context of European history, it emerged in the 16th century as a movement against the increasing corruption within the Catholic Church, the evil practises and rites and rituals that it imposed upon the people in order to maintain its supremacy. Those who protested against the malpractices of the Catholic Church and sought reform came to be known as Protestants and eventually Protestantism became a branch of Christianity.

The Reformation movement saw the setting up of new protestant churches in opposition to the rigid ecclesiastical order of the Catholic Church. To reclaim ground that they had lost, the Jesuit order amongst the Catholics soon launched Counter Reformation and ensured that the southern part of Europe, including Poland remained Catholic. The northern part of Europe except for Ireland and parts of Britain converted to Protestantism, while the centre became the battleground between the two sects. The new denominations that arose included Anglicans in England who were the largest group, the Lutherans in Germany and Scandinavia and the Reformed Churches in Germany, Switzerland, the Netherlands and Scotland.

The Causes of the Reformation

The causes of the Reformation were as follows:

- 1. Influence of the Renaissance:** The Renaissance had brought about remarkable changes in the European society. With the intellectual awakening, cultural changes, rise of humanism and generation of spirit of enquiry, there was irreverence for authority and meaningless dogmas that were upheld by the church. The scientific and geographical advancements, the crusades, the emergence of printing press and educational reforms all brought about a change in the perception of people.
- 2. Corruption in the church:** Classical studies were not banished by the Catholic Church. The Church was aware of all richness and value that these texts contained that would help men transcend their own mental boundaries. There were apprehensions from certain quarters about pagan associations plaguing the minds of the youth but by and large these were dismissed. Origen, St. Clement of Alexandria, St. Gregory of Nazianzen, St. Basil, and St. Jerome were among a few of the Catholics who encouraged their followers to engage with classical texts leading to the early efforts to bring together the religious and the secular, i.e., classical culture and Christian beliefs. The fall of the Roman Empire and the proceeding Dark Ages saw a changing scenario when classical studies were relegated to Britain, Ireland and the western Isles. The Carolingian reform resurrected these dying classics and gave them a new lease of life in the continent. Soon compilations of classics emerged in schools and colleges; however the glory days of classical literature were gone. The reform now was directed towards philosophy and not as it had been in the 12th century, when it was directed towards

classics supported by men like John of Salisbury. Consequently, classical languages like Greek and Latin started disappearing from the school curriculum in Western Europe. There was now a thrust of rationality and logic amongst the scholars rather than beauty of expression and literary grace. The neglect was confined not just to the languages but also to monuments and other architecture. As a result there was widespread decline.

Scholasticism suffered as the successors of St. Thomas and St. Bonaventure lacked the ingenuity to hold the interests of the scholars who chose to now engage themselves in other intellectual pursuits. Religion had been reduced to mere formalism in the absence of learned teachers. The world order was now slowly undergoing transformation as religion was fast losing its sway and making way for more secular order. With religion and philosophy not being on a pedestal anymore, it was but natural to make a return to the classics and salvage what one could. There was a decline in the social order, a corruption of men, and intoxication of power as seen through the examples of tyrants like Agnellus of Pisa, the Visconti and Francesco Sforza of Milan, Ferrante of Naples, and the de Medici of Florence. It went against the Christian notion of morality and justice. So seeped were they in the temporal pleasures that it was but natural that Pagan Rome and the literary masterpieces that it produced would be more suited to their tastes rather than the piety enjoined upon people by the Catholic Church. Therefore, Reformation was a movement to overthrow the limitations that the Catholic Church had imposed upon the people.

The decline of Italy and Rome aroused deep anger in Petrarch. He believed that the absence of Popes from Avignon was a cause of the downfall. Encouraged by nationalist feelings, he supported Cola di Rienzi, when in 1347 the latter announced the formation of Roman republic. He sought to protect the remaining pagan monuments and to bring alive the relics of the past to arouse nationalist sentiments among his fellow countrymen. Virgil was his inspiration in poetry. Most of his writing were in Italian but he incorporated in them the ideals of Renaissance, the celebration of beauty as opposed to the self-restraint practised in the middle ages. While his work *Africa* is a glorification of ancient Rome and full of nationalist zeal, Petrarch has received great acclaim for the *Canzoni* or his love songs. Petrarch, however, did not see religion and paganism in conflict. He may have attacked the church at times in his nationalist fervour but he never sought a confrontation with religion and rather believed in confrontation. His disciple, Boccaccio (1313–1375), too reverted to the classics and had even acquired knowledge of Greek but unlike Petrarch he chose paganism over Christianity. His works, including the famous *Decameron*, betray the pagan in him. His harsh criticism of the clergy, accusing them of hypocrisy, put his followers in conflict with the religious minded. Yet he did not do this to promote paganism in the garb of promoting literature. He still believed in Christianity and in the later years of his life realized the mistakes he had made and bequeathed his library to the monks whom he had earlier taken pleasure in reviling.

- 3. Influence of economic changes:** The flourishing trade and commerce changed the outlook of the people during Renaissance. The educated middle class began to question the authority that the church exercised over the common man. New trade routes were discovered, and as exports grew, the wealth of the mercantile class increased manifold. With irreverence towards the church on the rise, it was a matter of time that the humanist and the scholars of religion came at loggerheads.

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The corruption in the church made the humanist advocate not only a revival of the classics but went a step ahead to call for a revival of paganism itself. On the other hand, the scholastics were determined to wipe out all pagan influences in Christian learning. Though a middle path was possible for revival of culture, those who supported this were far too few. They aimed at harmonizing religion and culture by respecting the place that the Church had given to the classics in its own domain. However, they could not bring about the two warring sections to reconciliation. The humanists took the opportunity to shed the yoke that Christianity had required them to carry in the form of piety and restraint. Laurentius Valla (1405-57) in his work, *De Voluptate*, preached excesses that were in direct conflict with the teachings of the Church. He advocated indulgence and gratification of sensual desires as against self-restraint. His epicurean theory was accompanied by a rejection of the Pope and his authority. If this was not enough, Beccadelli went a step ahead and entirely devoted himself in the production of distasteful work against the Church.

Others who unleashed polemic against the church were the likes of Poggio Bracciolini—who wrote *Facetiae*—and Fileflo. These men undermined Renaissance as a cultural movement and reduced it to a glorification of paganism to triumph over the church. Morality was now in shreds and these works were lapped up in Florence, Venice and Siena. In the later stages, a number of schools though bearing Christian names betrayed pagan influence. However, most of the times, it was not suspected as a rejection of religion but rather just their sophistry. What was apparent although was that Christianity was losing its followers. There were also a number of renowned people who made no effort to hide their leanings towards paganism. They were Carlo Marsuppini, Chancellor of Florence, Gemistos Plethon, who propounded the Platonic philosophy, Marsilio Ficino, Rinaldo degli Albizzi, and the members of the Roman Academy (1460), under the leadership of Pomponius Laetus. It was the moral degeneration of the age that prevented the suppression of these ideas in Italy.

4. **Efforts of intellectuals:** The spirit of enquiry had its first victim in the form of the church. Guided by empiricism and scientific ideas, people no longer adhered to the blind faith that religion required. Reformation initially targeted the weeding out the corruption in the Catholic Church. The sale of clerical offices, simony, was evidence enough of the malpractices of the church. The ecclesiastical hierarchy with Pope at the apex was full of wrongdoings according to them. The successors of Martin Luther, John Wycliffe and Jan Hus were also involved in the reforms. Reformation as a movement started on 31 October 1517, in Wittenberg, Saxony at the castle church. Martin Luther's 'Ninety Five Theses on the Power and Efficacy of Indulgence' was unveiled which dissected the church's policies on indulgences, its ideas on worship of Mary, obligatory celibacy, following saints and power of the Pope as the head of the hierarchy of the priests. While Luther found many supporters for his cause, soon differences arose between them, leading to the rise of factions in Protestantism. For example, Zwingli distanced himself from Lutheran movement and later John Calvin also split, leading to divergent movements within the reformist movement. Several churches like the Lutheran, the reformed, the puritan and the Presbyterian emerged within Protestantism, though all traced their origins to the German churches. In England, the offshoot of Protestantism was Anglicanism. The rise of Reformation was met with Counter Reformation movement in the Catholic Church.

The Counter Reformation

With the Reformation movement targeting the Roman Catholic Church and enlisting support of the middle class, it became necessary for the Catholic Church to take measures to salvage itself. Hence was launched Counter Reformation. A council was summoned at Trent, Italy, in circa 1545–1563 by Pope Paul III. The council was to reform the Catholic Church without altering its fundamental tenets. The Church was to be reformed in a way to make its teachings compatible with the changing society. This marked the birth of several Catholic organizations that aimed to do their bit to revive Catholicism.

SUMMARY

- It is impossible to date the beginning of Byzantine history with any precision because the Byzantine Empire was the uninterrupted successor of the Roman state.
- Some argue that 'Byzantine' characteristics already emerged in Roman history as a result of the easternizing policy of Diocletian, and others that Byzantine history began when Constantine moved his capital from Rome to Constantinople, the city which subsequently became the centre of the Byzantine world. (The old name for the site on which Constantinople was built was Byzantium, from which we get the adjective Byzantine); it would be more accurate but cumbersome to say Constantinopolitine. Diocletian and Constantine, however, continued to rule a united Roman Empire.
- It is also convenient to begin in 610 because from then until 1071 the main lines of Byzantine military and political history were determined by resistance against successive waves of invasions from the East.
- Once Persia was subjugated, Heraclius ruled in relative peace till 641.
- Interestingly during this period, the Arabs were becoming blustering, taking advantage of the exhausted Byzantine power and inspired by the new religion of Islam. To establish themselves as the only Mediterranean power, the Arabs took to the sea. The Arab threat to Constantinople in AD 717 was a new low for Byzantine power.
- The Byzantines were able to reclaim most of its lost territories along Asia Minor.
- After the battle at Manzikert, the Byzantine Empire lost its glory though it managed to survive.
- In 1095, Byzantine emperor Alexius Comnenus sought help from the West against the Turks. This was a big mistake.
- Jerusalem conquered Constantinople instead and sacked the city with ruthless ferocity.

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- Efficient bureaucratic government indeed was one of the major elements of Byzantine success and longevity.
- The Iconoclasts were those who wished to prohibit the worship of icons—that is, images of Christ and the saints.
- Since Leo the Isaurian was the emperor who saved Constantinople from the onslaught of Islam, and since Muslims zealously shunned images on the grounds that they were ‘the work of Satan’ (Koran, V. 92), it has been argued that Leo’s Iconoclastic policy was an attempt to answer one of Islam’s greatest criticisms of Christianity and thereby deprive Islam of some of its appeal.
- The Iconoclastic controversy was resolved in the 9th century by a return to the status quo, namely the worship of images, but the century of turmoil over the issue had some profound results.
- Byzantine classicism was a product of an educational system for the laity which extended to the education of women as well as men.
- As in architecture, so in art the Byzantines profoundly altered the earlier Greek classical style.
- The impact of the fall Constantinople in 1453 made the Russians feel that they were chosen to carry on both the faith and the imperial mission of the fallen Byzantine Empire.
- Now Byzantine was in the hands of Muslims, they had upper hand now. From then onwards the Europe and Middle East would be in the domination of Muslims from Ottoman Empire.
- Feudal institutions were the arrangements—personal, territorial, and governmental—that made survival possible under the new system that replaced the centralized Roman administration. Towns gradually began to expand under the feudal system, so that exchange and trade flourished.
- As a consequence of the crisis of feudal rents, the lords tried to impose a variety of new obligations, thus transgressing the ideology of paternalism and protection by which feudal rents were legitimized in the first place.
- The English merchant class responded to the recession of trade by adopting a policy of regulation and restriction, impeding the entry of new recruits into commerce and attempting to share out the available trade.
- Renaissance means rebirth or renewal. As a cultural movement, its origin goes back to 14th century, and by the 16th century it had spread through the whole of Europe.
- Renaissance spread across Europe in different phases. Initially Italy was the stronghold of the movement following the Turkish invasion of Constantinople. The discovery of new trade routes and the explorations by travellers helped Renaissance spread far and wide.
- Capitalist countries were amongst the first to break away from the Catholic Church. They subjugated their churches to the control of their rulers thereby; depriving the church of the supremacy that it had long enjoyed.
- The causes for the rise of Reformation were: (a) Influence of the Renaissance (b) Corruption in the Church (c) Influence of economic changes (d) Efforts of Intellectuals. Reformation, the term, means an effort to bring about a change.

- Those who protested against the malpractices of the Catholic Church and sought reform came to be known as Protestants and eventually Protestantism became a branch of Christianity.
- With the intellectual awakening, cultural changes, rise of humanism and generation of spirit of enquiry, there was irreverence for authority and meaningless dogmas that were upheld by the church. Religion had been reduced to mere formalism in the absence of learned teachers.
- The decline of Italy and Rome aroused deep anger in Petrarch. He believed that the absence of Popes from Avignon was a cause of the downfall.
- The flourishing trade and commerce changed the outlook of the people during Renaissance.
- With the Reformation movement targeting the Roman Catholic Church and enlisting support of the middle class, it became necessary for the Catholic Church to take measures to salvage itself.
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KEY TERMS

- **Slavs:** They are an Indo-European ethno-linguistic group who speak the various Slavic languages of the larger Balto-Slavic linguistic group.
- **Iconoclastic controversy:** This took place between the mid-8th century and the mid-9th century in the Byzantine Christian Church over the question of whether or not Christians should continue to revere icons.
- **Scribe:** It refers to a person who copies out documents, especially one employed to do this before printing was invented.
- **Entablatures:** It is the upper part of a classical building supported by columns or a colonnade, comprising the architrave, frieze, and cornice.
- **Feudalism:** It is a political and economic system of Europe from the 9th to about the 15th century, based on the holding of all land in fief or fee and the resulting relation of lord to vassal and characterized by homage, legal and military service of tenants and forfeiture.
- **Villein:** In medieval England, it referred to a feudal tenant entirely subject to a lord or manor to whom he paid dues and services in return for land.
- **Demesne:** It refers to a piece of land attached to a manor and retained by the owner for their own use.
- **Metayage system:** It is the cultivation of land for a proprietor by one who receives a proportion of the produce, as a kind of sharecropping.
- **Capitalism:** It is an economic system whereby the 14th and 15th centuries witnessed the rise of substantial peasant farms as a result of the peasantry becoming free from serfdom and labour rents.
- **Renaissance:** It means rebirth or renewal; as a cultural movement, its origin goes back to 14th century, and by the 16th century it had spread through the whole of Europe.
- **Reformation:** It was a religious movement of the 16th century that began as an attempt to reform the Roman Catholic Church.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The Iconoclasts were those who wished to prohibit the worship of icons—that is, images of Christ and the saints.
2. The impact of the fall of Constantinople in 1453 made the Russians feel that they were chosen to carry on both the faith and the imperial mission of the fallen Byzantine Empire. Thus, their ruler took the title of Tsar—which simply means Caesar—and Russians asserted that Moscow was 'the third Rome'.
3. (a) Church; (b) feudal
4. (a) Literature; (b) Renaissance

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Enumerate the various effects of the fall of Constantinople.
2. What were the weaknesses which led to the downfall of the Byzantine Empire?
3. Define feudalism.
4. How do you view the Byzantine Empire as the seat of Christendom after the fall of Roman Empire?
5. How is the growth of capitalism linked to the decline of feudalism?
6. Write a short note on the origin of Renaissance in Italy.
7. What were the causes of the Reformation movement?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss in detail the clash between Islamic forces and Byzantine.
2. Describe feudalism as an important medieval administrative and economic unit.
3. What are the various theories of decline of feudalism? How would you describe the growth of trade and commerce as an important factor of decline?
4. What is the transition phase in the history of feudalism? Was the transformation from feudalism to capitalism direct? Explain its various aspects.
5. Describe the recent theories for the rise of capitalism.
6. Identify the factors that led to the beginning of Renaissance. What was the impact of Renaissance on art, literature and science?
7. What were the causes of the Reformation Movement? What was Counter Reformation?

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UNIT II INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Structure

- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Industrial Revolution:
 - Causes and Effects
 - Scientific and Technological Background of Revolution
 - Effects of Industrial Revolution
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

The European society witnessed tremendous changes during the 15th and 16th century AD. The beginning of Renaissance developed enquiring spirit and scientific outlook among the Europeans. The Reformation movement challenged the medieval religious set up. It was against the Orthodox Church and the abuses of the Pope. It gave birth to a new religious order, i.e., Protestantism. The age of ‘Enlightenment’ brought people out of a state of ‘ignorance’ and encouraged them to question the existing systems and work towards intellectual, cultural and architectural advancement. Putting an end to the Medieval period, the Renaissance marked the transition from Middle Age to the Modern Age. The main cause of Renaissance was the fall of Constantinople.

The emergence of capitalism and along with it the rise of the new middle class—the bourgeoisie—transformed the European cultural climate. There was a rise of great rivalry in the market as members of this capitalist class that controlled the means of production sought to outdo each other in producing goods that were cheaper and better than the other. As a consequence, it became necessary to have greater knowledge, a deeper understanding of the processes of life at large, rather than a having a restricted outlook. This became a fertile ground for the emergence of Renaissance, a cultural movement. Renaissance is, therefore, deeply entwined with the rise and growth of the market economy, capitalism and the bourgeoisie. The age of humanism, as Renaissance is often termed, coupled with deep emphasis on economic expansion, totally upturned

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the hitherto practiced and preached ideas of the Catholic Church. The medieval philosophy upheld in Western Europe laid all agency in the Lord. A just social order was considered beyond bounds in this world. However, the enterprising middle class wrested all agency and emerged as the masters of their own destinies relying on their own capabilities and enterprise. Hence, God was displaced and man became the nucleus of the newly emergent order. This change gained currency throughout Europe and soon the humanist philosophy came to be known as Renaissance or 'rebirth'. This 'rebirth', in fact, signified an intellectual awakening. The movement began in Italy and soon encompassed the whole of Europe. It was marked by the revival of classical style in the artistic sphere with humanists seeking to imitate the genius of Romans and Greeks. There emerged a greater engagement with scientific discoveries of the past and an effort to carry them forward.

The humanist movement received a shot in the arm in the middle of 15th century when Johann Gutenberg discovered printing in Germany. Another stalwart during the early years of Renaissance was Dante Alighieri (1265–1321), a Florentine poet. Coming at an age when the medieval beliefs were on the decline and the humanist movement was just gathering force, Dante became a defining figure. His *Divine Comedy*, written in Italian, was hugely acclaimed. That he chose to write a literary treatise in his native language highlighted an emerging trend, i.e., the growing national consciousness amongst the humanist writers of the 14th and 15th centuries. While works on science still used Latin as the medium of discourse, literary works relied on native languages.

The political thought of the humanists demonstrated a rejection of the Catholic Church and the subservience to God that it embodied. They sought to overthrow the feudal setup of the Church where non adherence to a law was seen as a sin against God. Instead they believed in the ability of the state to maintain law and order and consequently upheld centralized state control.

The scientific revolution changed the socio-economic conditions in the European countries. The revolution resulted in permanent changes in the political conditions, and gave rise to the Industrial Revolution, which ultimately changed the economic conditions as well. This unit will describe the rise of the Modern world.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

Evaluate the causes and effects of the Industrial Revolution

Discuss the scientific and technological background of the Industrial Revolution

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: CAUSES AND EFFECTS

Industrial Revolution is a term that was first used by Louis-Auguste Blanqui in 1837 and it was then widely adopted following a series of lectures entitled ‘Industrial Revolution of the 18th Century in England’ by Arnold Toynbee delivered in 1882. The First Industrial Revolution, as it is more commonly called, spanned the period between the late 18th and early 19th century. Many historians cite the period between 1780 and 1830 as the time when Britain witnessed the most rapid industrialization activity, while other historians define other periods. In addition, a number of historians have argued that industrialization occurred much earlier than 1780 and was not exactly a revolution per se but rather an example of gradual evolution. A number of studies using econometric techniques illustrate that the slow production rates coupled with low national incomes would indicate that ‘industrial evolution’ rather than ‘Industrial Revolution’ was a more appropriate term to describe the process. Other writers identified that there was a piecemeal development in processes associated with industrial innovation and in organizational structures. Clear evidence now exists that industrialization was not the exclusive domain/province of Britain but included developments both in Asia and Europe.

There was a great deal of migration of European artisans and professional people into Britain during the period between the 15th and 17th century bringing their superior skills and technological methods. There was an evidence of exchange and transfer of ideas, skills and technologies between Britain and Europe for many centuries before the First Industrial Revolution. For example, the Dutch made significant contributions to the technologies associated with the drainage system in the Fens in the mid-17th century and later made significant improvements to water mills. Dutch and Flemish refugees played an important role in creating the foundations of the development of cotton, silk and other textile trades in England. France also made major contributions to the blast furnace technology as did the Germans in improving the smelting and refining of non-ferrous ores. The French were the leaders in science during the 18th century and again made many contributions to the new industries associated with chemicals, for example, dyeing and bleaching. The exchange was certainly not just one way, for instance, Britain helped Belgium and France to modernize much of their industry but most of the transfer of technology and effort from Britain was aimed at the US. It is interesting to note that a number of Parliamentary Acts during the 19th century prohibited the emigration of workers into mainland Europe as well as placing restrictions on the export of machinery, spare parts, design plans and expertise. These Acts most certainly limited and constrained the exchange of technology and technical knowhow between Britain and the Continent. This aspect again reflects and reinforces the secretive and protectionist nature and practices of British companies.

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During the First Industrial Revolution, Britain witnessed a massive set of transformations in such areas as agriculture, demographic trends, manufacturing and transportation. These and other changes had a profound effect on the cultural, economic and social climate of the country. For example, Table 1.1 shows the dramatic growth in population between 1760 and 1901.

Table 1.1 Dramatic Growth in Population Between 1760 and 1901

Year	Population England and Wales	Population Scotland	Total population Britain
1760	6,736,000 (estimated)	-	8,000,000 (estimated)
1801	8,892,000 (1st census)	1,608,420	10,500,000
1851	17,927,609	2,888,742	21,000,000
1901	32,527,843	4,472,103	37,000,000

Another important transition occurred from around 1760 when the basis of the labour economy changed from one based on manual/physical labour to one increasingly based on machines. In addition, the tradesperson replaced the craftsperson and the applied scientist replaced the amateur inventor. One consequence of the Industrial Revolution was that for the operation of the new machines, largely unskilled labour were used. Skilled workers found themselves lowered in status and in less demand and companies increasingly employed women and children to keep costs down. The production of coal rose from 2.5 million tonnes in 1700 to 10 million tonnes in 1800. Three important technologies can be identified that formed the foundations of the First Industrial Revolution, namely:

1. Iron production
2. Steam engine
3. Textiles

The steam engine had been discovered before the Industrial Revolution and was subsequently improved by Watt and others after 1778. The steam engine was initially adapted and used to provide power for a whole series of machines and, as a result, was in many ways the most important ‘enabling technology’ of the time. It made the major contribution to the First Industrial Revolution. Steam driven machines (Figure 1.5) were gradually improved, and adapted for wider uses such as in the production of textiles and the mining of iron and tin. This evolution continued to enable the operation of more complex machinery, such as machine tools, lathes and farm machinery. The development and refinement of machine tools by such individuals as Henry Maudslay and Joseph Whitworth played a key role in the later phase of the First Industrial Revolution as machine tool technology enabled standardized manufacturing machines to be fabricated.

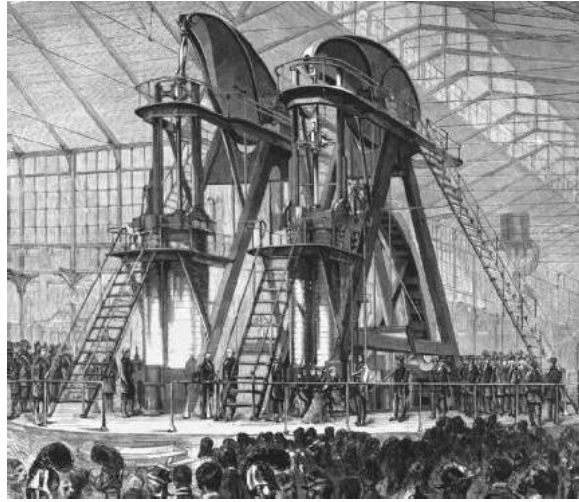


Fig. 1.5 Steam Driven Machines during Industrial Revolution

The movement of manufactured goods and services was also greatly assisted and facilitated by improvements to the national transport system that included better roads and the development of an extensive network of canals, (from about 1773) and railways (from 1825). To illustrate the rapid growth of inland navigation systems, i.e., canals and rivers, in 1750 there were around 1,000 miles of inland navigation and by 1850 this had increased to 4,250 miles excluding a significant mileage that existed in Ireland.

As the national economy increased and technological advances accelerated and gained momentum, the First Industrial Revolution converged around 1850 into the second period of Industrial Revolution or evolution. After 1850, the rapid development of steam driven transport systems such as shipping and railways (Figure 1.6) opened up new markets both in Britain and across the world. Later in the 19th century, the newer technologies associated with electrical generation, the internal combustion engine and the industrial processes related to chemicals etc., further accelerated and spread the growth of industrial and international trade.



Fig. 1.6 Steam Driven Railways

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By 1850, Britain was the acknowledged workshop and the leading industrial power of the world producing over half the world's coal, cotton and iron. Imported food and essential raw materials for the manufacturing processes were paid for by the export of manufactured products as well as the export of a developing service sector, including financial, insurance and shipping services (Figure 1.7). The country possessed the world's most powerful navy and mercantile fleet and this not only helped to maintain the empire, but also provided the means to export its manufactured commodities. Sadly, the transportation of slaves to the new world until the trade was abolished in 1807, also contributed to Britain's wealth, particularly to the city ports of Bristol and Liverpool.

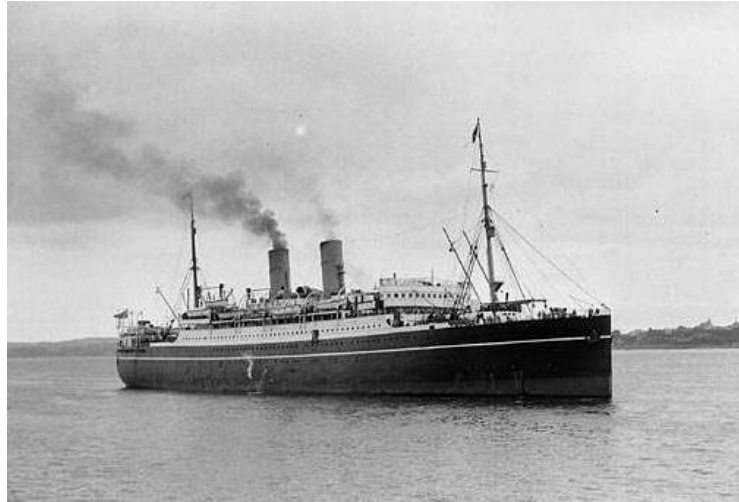


Fig. 1.7 A Steam Ship

Structure and the Organization of Industry

For understanding the structure and the organization of industry in the late 18th and 19th centuries, it is appropriate to consider other factors, which according to some writers undermined this country's manufacturing performance and ultimately contributed to Britain's economic and industrial decline. Many of these factors again highlight the lack of an effective and comprehensive technical and commercial education system as well as the continuing negative attitude towards competitiveness, entrepreneurialism and practical and technical activities. The following is a list of some of these factors:

- The sizes of companies which were relatively small and in the majority of cases family owned
- Management and organizational structures dogged by amateurism, complacency and indifference
- Fierce and destructive competition within rival companies
- Incompetent and ineffective sales and marketing especially overseas, and an unwillingness to develop marketing and sales strategies and tactics to match and satisfy customer needs
- The inabilities of company staff particularly the marketing team, if they existed, to learn and converse in foreign languages
- The widespread use of indirect selling and marketing overseas by agencies and agents

- The relatively late adoption, (after 1851), of a distinctive or ‘brand’ or product mark when compared with other competitors; exceptions were in the china/pottery industries, such as Spode and Wedgwood
- Reluctance to develop rigorous patenting techniques, when compared with the USA, Belgium and Germany, and thus highlighting the tendency for English businesses to be protectionist and secretive
- ‘The gentrification’, (Wiener’s expression), of the first and subsequent generations of successful business people who quickly adopted the mores of the upper classes
- The reluctance to adopt and invest in new manufacturing techniques and technologies and hence develop new products
- The reluctance to replace obsolete equipment and invest in new plant
- Basic hostility towards technical education especially outside the traditional apprenticeship schemes even though these were fast disappearing
- The relatively few scientists and technologists employed in industry, and also shortages of qualified foremen, supervisors and technicians
- Low wages and status amongst workers as a result of no regulation or effective legislation that forced wages and conditions of work down; also, employers were hostile to the creation and membership of unions

Shortcomings of Family Businesses

Many manufacturing companies were family businesses and relatively small when compared with similar business enterprises overseas. In particular, industries involved in the production of cotton, linen, and silk were dominated by families. Small and larger manufacturing enterprises including engineering were also family owned and operated in such diverse industries as brewing, cutlery, and pottery alongside thousands of workshops producing specialized products and artifacts, particularly around Birmingham and Manchester. These families had major apprehension about manufacturing techniques and they were generally reluctant to cooperate and form associations with other similar based manufacturers, and this again was in stark contrast with companies in Europe. This secretive attitude was also evident in the way companies would avoid or be reluctant to register and patent their products for fear of plagiarism. This attitude impeded further development of a company’s products and restricted its product range. As a result, this constrained the future growth of the company thus maintaining the overall profile of small companies in Britain. Many businesses on the continent and the US took the opposite approach and many became very large with worldwide brands and product differentiation, which ultimately gave them a competitive edge over England towards the end of the 19th century. In fact, this reluctance and propensity for secrecy about their industrial processes eventually became counterproductive for rivals as continental countries began to develop and manage technology in more systematic ways compared with England.

The relatively small size of the companies also had a negative impact on marketing and sales activities, especially abroad. The home market was very buoyant and effective sales and marketing were relatively easy. This contributed to the culture of complacency and indifference; however, the overseas sales were very different and soon highlighted weaknesses in the techniques adopted by England companies. Because companies were relatively small, they were inevitably reluctant to invest in dedicated sales teams based overseas, instead preferring to use agents and agencies who also worked on behalf of

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other companies; thus, no loyalty and commitment existed with these agents and often there were issues of conflict of interests. As competition increased from continental countries and the US, these weaknesses were shown up. The US and Germany developed networks of sales organizations dispensing with agencies and agents. The inability and resistance to learn and speak the languages of overseas customers, the reluctance to carry out market research to assess customer needs and the continued use of sales/marketing agents, all contributed to the loss of market share from the mid-19th century.

Another factor that reflected weak management was the poor relationships that existed between workers and managers coupled with the opposition to unions and union membership. Commercial, business and management education was virtually non-existent during most of the 19th century and was even less developed than technical education.

One fascinating factor that reflects the basic hostility towards industry and technical education is explored by historian Wiener and others, namely the influence of class and social stratification. In Britain, there had always been reluctance among the gentry and upper classes to send their sons into industry, preferring rather to see them enter banking or merchants' offices. What is particularly interesting is the manner in which the first generation of successful industrialists behaved towards the education of their children. They invested their fortunes in massive country estates and did all possible to be recognized, accepted and assimilated into the upper echelons of English society. This most certainly included sending their sons to Eton or other public schools. Upon graduating, they entered the family business lacking the necessary experiences, knowledge, skills and the techniques associated with the industrial processes, technological and scientific concepts and management of the business. Even more interesting is that many did not return to the business but went into what was perceived as the more cultured and dignified environments of law, politics, religion and the other learned professions. The same negative view of technical/practical activities gradually permeated to the middle classes who readily adopted the mores of the upper classes and developed a distinct set of prejudices towards practical and technical pursuits, science, mathematics and technology. These negative attitudes still exist today. One only has to see the current problems with recruiting people in these subjects into colleges and universities. These deeply held attitudes and prejudices most certainly demonstrate the destructive effect of class attitudes and negative perceptions that persist even today in some quarters of society.

Most company managers were reluctant to adapt and innovate and invested little in new plant and equipment. Having been the first industrial nation was ultimately a contributing factor in England's decline, fuelled by degrees of complacency and arrogance. This created a culture of resistance to move with the times and overall industry failed to invest in new plant and equipment, develop new products and processes based on advancing scientific and technological ideas, and bring in scientifically and technologically qualified people. In the majority of cases, companies refused to recruit highly qualified people even though very few existed and many would often argue that a 'practical' person was preferred over a so-called 'theoretical one'. Companies also invested little in research and development. This reluctance to embrace new industrial and managerial practices continued well into the 20th century. One classic case was the hostility towards the introduction of scientific management techniques. This approach was developed with great success in the US, but employers in Britain resisted its introduction, arguing strongly that workers were human beings and not machines and that there was no place for scientific routines or procedures in industrial and commercial businesses.

Nature of Technical Change

Technology was a critical element in the Industrial Revolution, though by no means, the only element. The fundamental technical developments associated with the Industrial Revolution occurred in four areas:

- 1. Mechanical power:** It was derived first from the steam engine, which burned coal to heat water to create the steam that powered the engine, and later from engines that burned oil (internal combustion engines) or ran on electricity (often generated by burning coal).
- 2. Manufacturing:** It resulted in the shift from handmade to machine-made products, and from homemade to factory-made goods.
- 3. Transportation:** Horses, mules and oxen were replaced by railroads and steamships driven by steam engines, and by cars, trucks and eventually aeroplanes powered by oil.
- 4. Communications:** Messages carried by people were replaced by instantaneous communication over long distances via telegraph (Figure 1.8), telephone, and, much later, the Internet.



Fig. 1.8 Telegraph Machine

Alongside the Industrial Revolution was an agricultural revolution, which brought similar changes to agricultural practices—the introduction of technology to manual farming, new procedures that greatly increased the output of both farmers and their land—and resulted in new attitudes toward the relationship between ‘natural’ and ‘scientific’ farming. The combination of new systems and new technology was first introduced on English farms around 1700 and has over the years greatly increased the productivity of farmers and the land. The agricultural revolution has also changed humankind’s relationship to animals and food and, to some extent, to the basic process of eating. (*Source:* www.technicaleducationmatters.org)

Scientific and Technological Background of Revolution

Just as advances in technology significantly influenced the Industrial Revolution, the development of scientific ideas in turn influenced technology and made major contributions to the First and Second Industrial Revolutions. Indeed, until the advent of the scientific era, technological advances were almost exclusively based on craft and trade skills and experience, personified by the apprentice model where the skills were handed on very

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much on a personal and individualistic level. The secrets of the craft or trade were jealously guarded and often shrouded in mystery.

However the most significant technical advances during the second Industrial Revolution (1850s) were driven by science as well as by the demands made on technology.

One of the more intriguing aspects in writing this history is the identification of a number of perplexing and paradoxical issues, none more so than the interaction between science and technology and the role and teaching of these disciplines in the emerging education systems. This paradox has been highlighted by a number of influential writers. The belief which sadly continues today is that science is seen as being a more superior body of knowledge than technology as well as the subsequent application of scientific knowledge and ideas. This perception of precedence comprised two directly related aspects; firstly that science always precedes technology because the application could only happen after the scientific discovery was made, and secondly the view that science education was superior to technical education. Although the first assertion is valid, in most cases, it is not universally true. The application of existing technology can itself bring about the need for further and new scientific research and discovery. As existing technologies and machines are operated in different working situations the demands and limitations of the machinery and the underlying technologies often precipitate the need for more original scientific research. Therefore, the belief that science is always ahead of technology and therefore is superior is a false one as it is clearly a two-way iterative process, i.e., science technology. A classic example of how technology precedes and interacts with science can be seen in the development of the steam engine. As the use of the engine was diversified and applied in different situations, fundamental design and operating limitations were identified that required further basic scientific research and this in turn challenged and questioned the existing scientific theories and hypotheses. In this case of the steam engine, the discipline of thermodynamics was greatly enhanced and refined. Examples show that science and technology possess a synergistic relationship to one another and clearly feed off each other and that no one discipline is superior to the other.

However, it was this false belief that has been so damaging to the development of technical and applied education, namely that scientific education should take precedence over technical education. This assertion most certainly had a negative and retarding impact on the image and development of technical education during the 19th century—one can see these elements in play even today. The acceptance of this belief by politicians and decision-makers meant that the education policy at the time required the instruction of science to take precedence over the instruction of technical, applied and practical subjects. For example, Alexander Williamson, an influential figure in education and a professor of chemistry at King's College, reflected this belief in his evidence to the Devonshire Commission when he objected to the creation of technical schools rather than scientific institutions saying 'this does not give due priority to pure science'. This highly questionable belief and attitude was even held and articulated by some of the greatest advocates of technical education, including Lyon Play fair and Thomas Huxley, who both voiced similar views as Williamson.

What cannot be denied is that the period from 1750 to 1850, particularly the Victorian period, witnessed an exciting and productive time of intense research/innovation in practically every field of scientific exploration, namely, biological, chemical, mathematical, physical and technological. The Victorian period was particularly productive in adopting, expanding and transforming technologies in such areas as electricity, industrial

control engineering, lighting, photography, railways, steamships, telegraphy and telephony. Many of the individuals behind these great achievements never received formal education by attending universities or secondary schools; instead they were self-taught and/or possessed amazing creative abilities. This was the period of the First Industrial Revolution driven by steam. The Second Industrial Revolution from mid-18th century was driven by the chemical, communications and electrical technologies, which Britain did not fully capitalize on—Germany and America did. (*Source*: www.technicaleducationmatters.org)

Stages of Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution did not take place in all European countries simultaneously, nor is it possible to fix the exact timing when the industrial revolution commenced because it is a continuous process. In fact, the four industrial countries of Europe—England, France, Belgium and Germany, underwent industrialization at different periods and under different conditions.

However, it is admitted at all hands that the Industrial Revolution began in Britain sometime in the middle of 18th century and spread in other countries of continent in the next century and a half.

Thus, Industrial Revolution took place in France and Belgium sometimes in the first decade of the 19th century; while in Germany it began still later viz., in the seventies and eighties of the 19th century, even though it spread with extraordinary rapidity. Thus, broadly speaking, the Industrial Revolution passed through two stages. The first stage is represented by England and the second by the countries of the Continent.

Effects of Industrial Revolution

The working conditions in mines were horrible, to say the least. Furthermore, women and children were employed as they could be paid lower wages than adult male workers. Child labourers possessed another advantage—they could easily crawl through the narrow passages in mines. The situation in factories was not very different. The workers could not bargain for better conditions and payments, as there was an abundant supply of workers available in the form of displaced peasants and farmers. If one would protest, he would be fired. There was always someone else ready to replace him. Also, the capitalists were becoming richer by the day. Using their wealth, they were influencing the policies and laws of the government. This influence was naturally harmful to the labour class. This led to the organization of labour unions, and subsequently to the development of the concept of Socialism. The migration of such a huge population to cities resulted in the overcrowding of cities and development of slums. The pace of urbanization quickened to unprecedented levels. The migration also broke the social ties the worker (i.e., the former peasant or farmer) was used to in villages. This, along with the deplorable living conditions, caused many other problems like alcoholism, illicit relationships, loneliness, etc. This degraded the quality of life to a great extent.

The capitalists emerged from the hitherto middle class. The Industrial Revolution was an expression of their strength. Their power increased in leaps and bounds. They had the funds to influence the government. They acquired a stranglehold over politics which continues until date. Other customs like the importance of punctuality and taking appointments before meeting people, also started during this age.

The effects of the Industrial Revolution were visible all over the world. A capitalist had two main requirements for making windfall profits. One was cheap supply of raw materials, and the other was a ready market. Both of these were available in colonies.

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This led to the colonization of many lands in Asia, Africa and South America. The economies of the colonies were comprehensively subordinated to the mother nation. This resulted in a scramble for colonies amongst the great powers of that age. Although England was the strongest power, France, Holland, Portugal, Denmark and, later, Germany and Italy also entered the race. This race led to imperialism, culminating in the two World Wars. English exports were creating problems for the industrial development of other powers. To control this, tariffs were imposed on British goods, leading to tariff barriers. As a result of colonization, events in one part of the world started influencing events in other parts of the world as well. This is the simplest description of globalization.

The revolution also affected many other areas. For one, there were the problems of urbanization during the Industrial Revolution. There was a lot of migration of the workforce to the urban areas. The population distribution everywhere did not remain equal, like it was before. This led to the many problems we face even today, like pollution, space crunch, family division, child labour, etc. On the other hand, on a positive note, there were quite a few important inventions of the Industrial Revolution. Things like the locomotive, steam engine, cotton gin (Figure 1.9) and many more, were all a result of the revolution. Many of the inventions are in use even today, and many others paved the way for different other technological advancements that we get to enjoy in today's world.

The origin of many modern phenomena and problems can be traced back to the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution was primarily the economic dimension of the change from the middle age to the modern age.

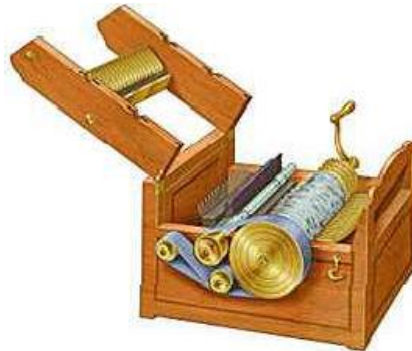


Fig. 1.9 Cotton Gin

Progress of Science and Technology

The First Industrial Revolution started with moderately primitive technological advances that were directed by individual capitalists. These technological advances were perhaps less significant than the principle of the division of labour in the factories that permitted initial capitalists to enhance production and to make it more dependable. The amount of capital required to get the early factories off the ground was not considerable. Entrepreneurs could more often than not raise the money from their own savings and by having access to friends and relatives. Industrialization, in this phase, makes some use of technology but modest use of science.

This phase of industrialization, thus, matches to the classic notion of the capitalist as a highly individualistic self-made man who relies on his/her own wits and risks his/her capital on the supposition that profits will be earned by meeting some social demand for specific commodities. In this initial type of capitalism, it is rational to suppose that progress

can be made best by permitting individuals the freedom to invest their savings and permitting the marketplace to balance supply and demand. If the classic entrepreneur or captain of industry does not succeed in reading the market correctly, he will fail. If he reads the market properly, he not only will be victorious, but will do good to society by offering goods that would not otherwise be accessible.

The fact that this unsophisticated formula could no longer be taken for granted by 1840 shows the complicated linkages between technological and capitalist development. Until then, the capital obligations for setting up some industries were so heavy that they were beyond the scope of several entrepreneurs. Capitalistic individualism became mainly rhetorical as enterprises became so intricate that corporations mainly replaced the former captains of industry and professional managers substituted owner bosses. Intense competition between the new individuals—the corporations—led to the need for massive investment in scientific research and progress. In some nations, technological competitiveness was thought to be too significant to be left in the hands of capitalist corporations. Governments, chiefly France and Germany, started to usurp the former role of the capitalist by investing in science centrally. In Germany, for example, quick industrialization was centrally supported, as it would later be in nations such as Sweden, Switzerland, Japan and, of course, the former Soviet Union.

SUMMARY

- a. Renaissance spread across Europe in different phases. Initially Italy was the stronghold of the movement following the Turkish invasion of Constantinople. The discovery of new trade routes and the explorations by travellers helped Renaissance spread far and wide.
- b. Capitalist countries were amongst the first to break away from the Catholic Church. They subjugated their churches to the control of their rulers thereby; depriving the church of the supremacy that it had long enjoyed.
- c. The causes for the rise of Reformation were: (a) Influence of the Renaissance (b) Corruption in the Church (c) Influence of economic changes (d) Efforts of Intellectuals. Reformation, the term, means an effort to bring about a change.
- d. The decline of Italy and Rome aroused deep anger in Petrarch. He believed that the absence of Popes from Avignon was a cause of the downfall.
 - The flourishing trade and commerce changed the outlook of the people during Renaissance.
 - With the Reformation movement targeting the Roman Catholic Church and enlisting support of the middle class, it became necessary for the Catholic Church to take measures to salvage itself.
 - The Industrial Revolution highlighted the essential need to develop a national system for elementary/secondary education and the equally important technical education system.
 - The First Industrial Revolution, as it is more commonly called, spanned the period between the late 18th and early 19th century.
 - There was an evidence of exchange and transfer of ideas, skills and technologies between Britain and Europe for many centuries before the first Industrial Revolution.

- The steam engine had been discovered before the Industrial Revolution and was subsequently improved by Watt and others after 1778. The steam engine was initially adapted and used to provide power for a whole series of machines and, as a result, was in many ways the most important ‘enabling technology’ of the time.
- Messages carried by people were replaced by instantaneous communication over long distances via telegraph, telephone, and, much later, the Internet.
- The Industrial Revolution passed through two stages. The first stage is represented by England and the second by the countries of the Continent.
- There was a lot of migration of the workforce to the urban areas. The population distribution everywhere did not remain equal, like it was before.
- In some nations, technological competitiveness was thought to be too significant to be left in the hands of capitalist corporations. Governments, chiefly France and Germany, started to usurp the former role of the capitalist by investing in science centrally.

KEY TERMS

- **Capitalism:** It is an economic system whereby the 14th and 15th centuries witnessed the rise of substantial peasant farms as a result of the peasantry becoming free from serfdom and labour rents.
 - **Renaissance:** It means rebirth or renewal; as a cultural movement, its origin goes back to 14th century, and by the 16th century it had spread through the whole of Europe.
 - **Reformation:** It was a religious movement of the 16th century that began as an attempt to reform the Roman Catholic Church.
 - **Migration:** It refers to the movement of large numbers of people one place to another.
 - **Machine tool:** It is a tool for cutting or shaping metal, wood, driven by a machine.

ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. The Iconoclasts were those who wished to prohibit the worship of icons—that is, images of Christ and the saints.
2. The impact of the fall of Constantinople in 1453 made the Russians feel that they were chosen to carry on both the faith and the imperial mission of the fallen Byzantine Empire. Thus, their ruler took the title of Tsar—which simply means Caesar—and Russians asserted that Moscow was ‘the third Rome’.
3. (a) Church; (b) feudal
4. (a) Literature; (b) Renaissance
5. (a) True (b) False
6. (a) railroads and steamships; (b) Agricultural
7. (a) True; (b) True

a. QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the effects of the Industrial Revolution?
2. How did science and technology progress during the Industrial Revolution?

Long-Answer Questions

1. How did the Industrial Revolution ‘evolve’? What role did the steam engine and coal play in the rapid spread of the Industrial Revolution across the European continent?
2. Discuss the structure and organization of the industry during the Industrial Revolution.
3. Describe the nature of technical change that occurred during the Industrial Revolution.
4. Analyse the scientific and technological background of the Industrial Revolution. Also, describe the stages in the Industrial Revolution.

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Self-Instructional

UNIT III FRENCH REVOLUTION AND ITS AFTERMATH

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Structure

Introduction
Unit Objectives
French Revolution: Causes and Significance
The Causes of the French Revolution
The Course of the French Revolution
 Aims of the New Constitution
Significance of the Revolution
Summary
Key Terms
Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
Questions and Exercises
Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

The outcome of the American Revolution and the War of Independence had a critical influence on the subsequent major political events of the world. Its immediate impact was witnessed in the European countries, especially in France. In addition to the influence of the American Revolution, there were many other factors that led to the French Revolution. The French people began to yearn for a revolution to overturn their corrupt and despotic government, just as they perceived the American colonies had done. For years, the French government had promoted the cause of the American Revolution. Thus, it was but natural for the French government to say nothing against the American model. It could not so readily demonize the secular and humanist model of the United States as it had the Protestant model of bygone years. The French hero Lafayette had fought for it, and the French architect L'Enfant was busy designing its capital on property donated by America's most prominent Roman Catholic family. The United States embodied the Enlightenment ideals that so many in France yearned for.

On 12 July 1789, Camille Desmoulins, the French journalist, provoked the people of Paris to arm themselves in fear that King Louis XVI was about to attack the city. Two days later, on 14 July 1789, the people of Paris attacked the fortress of the Bastille, murdered its governor and defenders as well as the city's magistrates. This brutal event was the commencement of elementary political changes in France and Europe that are now summed up as the outcomes of the French Revolution.

Self-Instructional

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The Revolution had far-reaching impact on all the social classes of France. The French Revolution was followed by and influenced by the rise of Napoleon to power. The reign of Napoleon, popularly known as the Napoleonic era, holds great significance in the history of France and the rest of the world. This era symbolized the finest display of commitment and love for the motherland.

Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain, the four powers which were instrumental in overthrowing Napoleon in a series of wars (the Napoleonic Wars), convened the Congress of Vienna at Vienna from September 1814 to June 1815. The Vienna Congress was drafted to restore peace in Europe and realign the social and political order to prevent imperialism within Europe. But the Congress was shaped with conservative political and social views. What it achieved politically was to reinstate balance of power and legitimacy. Socially, the Congress stopped most revolts and uprisings. From 1815 to 1848, the Congress of Vienna was successful in ensuring peace and order in the region.

Metternich, the chief minister of autocratic Austria and the country's representative at the Congress, wanted to contain France. To ensure that France remains politically and militarily weak, the Congress of Vienna purposely surrounded the country by stronger nations. Metternich also wanted legitimate governments in these countries. Hence, the Bourbons of France, Spain, and Naples were restored, so were the ruling dynasties in Holland, Sardinia, Tuscany, and Modena. Russia, Austria, Prussia, and England formed a Concert of Europe that promised and gave each other support if revolutions broke out. The Quadruple Alliance of Russia, Austria, Prussia and England agreed to defend the status quo against any threat to the balance of power. Spain revolted in 1820 and the revolution was suppressed by the French troops. Also in 1820, Austrian troops were ordered to stop the revolution of Naples.

In this unit, you will read about the causes of the French Revolution and its course, aims of the new constitution and achievements and significance of the French Revolution. It will also describe Napoleon as a reformer and the events that took place in the Congress of Vienna.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the causes and course of the French Revolution
- Assess the achievements and significance of the French Revolution
- Discuss Napoleon's early life and career
- Describe the defence of national convention and his early victories

FRENCH REVOLUTION: CAUSES AND SIGNIFICANCE

This section will discuss the causes, course, aims and significance of the French Revolution.

Self-Instructional

The Causes of the French Revolution

In the summer of 1788, crops were destroyed after a bad harvest in many areas and this was followed by a remarkably harsh winter. The peasants revolted in a number of states in the autumn and winter of that year and it continued until 1789. The peasants, who were in despair due to hunger and poverty, plundered the granaries and distributed the corn among themselves; the grain dealers were driven to sell their grain at affordable prices or at 'fair prices'. There were agitations in many towns due to scarcity of bread. Though the authorities suppressed the revolt using force, it kept flaring up here and there. The people were troubled excessively by bad harvests and natural calamities and this did not happen for the first time. Earlier, the authorities had succeeded in curbing the widespread discontent but this was not possible in the years 1788–89.

These vital historical factors paved the way for the French Revolution that year. France was one of the richest and the most powerful nations of Europe, though it faced difficulties in its economy mostly relating to the equitability of taxation. The French people in general enjoyed more political freedom and a lower degree of autocratic punishment than any of their fellow Europeans. Yet Louis XVI (Figure 2.1), his ministers and the French nobles all over France became infamous. This was mainly because the peasants were crippled by the heavy taxes imposed on them and the middle classes were oppressed in order to find wealthy aristocrats and their way of life.



Fig. 2.1 Louis XVI, The King of France at the Time of French Revolution

The rigidity of the 'Ancien Regime' in France may have also been partly responsible for its decline. The merchants, tradesmen, wealthy farmers and wage earners whose numbers were growing and the intellectuals who were motivated by the ideas of Enlightenment philosophers posed a great challenge to the aristocrats. As the revolution progressed, power was transferred from the royalty and the well-born to the more-authorized political bodies like legislative assemblies. But the differences of opinion among the formerly-allied republican groups became the cause for a great deal of hostility and bloodshed. An increasing number of French citizens had absorbed the ideas of 'equality' and 'freedom of the individual', which were put forward by Voltaire, Dennis Diderot, Turgot and other philosophers and the social theorists of the Enlightenment. The American Revolution established the fact that it was possible to implement the Enlightenment ideas of how a government should be run. Many of the French began to show their antagonism towards the undemocratic outlook of their own government. They pressed for freedom, defied the Roman Catholic Church and condemned the privileges of the nobles.

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The year of 1787–89 was also marked by industrial and commercial exigencies. Many peasants were deprived of the opportunities of augmenting their income by working in manufacturing units during winter or by migrating to the towns to take up temporary construction work or other means of livelihood. Poppers and tramps milled around the towns and highways. Similar setbacks had occurred earlier in manufacturing units, constructional work and trade. A spirit of discord prevailed in every part of the land between the years 1788–89 and there was a persistent talk of the need for an imminent change of a great magnitude. Assuredly, one can say that neither the grave situation in industry and commerce, nor the bad harvest of 1788 were the contributory factors behind the revolutionary crisis, which developed in France during this period. They only helped to trigger off a crisis that had deep-seated roots.

The most significant fact which led to the nationwide conflict with the prevailing order was the fact that the present feudal authoritarian social patterns were no longer in tune with the country's economic, social and political stage of development. The so-called 'Third Estate' made up the 99 per cent of the French population while elite classes comprising the aristocrats and clergy formed the remaining. Nonetheless, the entire nation was controlled by these numerically negligible elite classes. These aristocrats who thrived on the sweat of peasants depended totally on the treasury. They played no part in the production and were the chief well-spring of support for the king. The 'Third Estate' did not represent a heterogeneous class. It comprised the peasants, who made up a major part of the population and the economically powerful middle class, who yearned for political power. The peasants were the hard-pressed slaves of a system, which exploited and persecuted them with endless demands that served to fill the pockets of the landowners, the clergy and the monarch. In conclusion, one may say that these towns were poor—the poverty-stricken workers and the artisans were stripped of any rights and were forced to lead a life of abjection. They did not share common goals and interests. However, they were united in their decision to reassemble the representatives of different classes who yearned for political rights and for a reformation in the prevailing system so that they could oppose the elite classes.

The middle classes, the peasants and the labour force were opposed to the reign of the autocratic kings and to the feudal social system. The prevailing social structure was uncongenial to the welfare of their class and the development of the country's economy. Whether the members of the 'Third Estate' knew it or not, the country was now ready for historical advancement. There was definitely going to be a sea change from feudalism to capitalisms and at that period, it symbolized a more advanced and liberal form of society. Finally, when one analyses the situation, one finds that the dangerous class conflicts of that time were indeed ushering in a change. The authorities could not possibly put a stop or even control the growing trend of popular unrest because class conflicts were a deep and complicated part of the current social structure. Hence, the historical French Revolution became unavoidable.

The causes of the French Revolution can be listed as follows:

- **Economic factors:** In the 1780s, King Louis XVI of France faced a financial crisis. The poverty-stricken sections of the population were afflicted by hunger and malnutrition. France was already facing a spate of bad harvest and a rise in food prices. The inadequate system of transportation, which impeded the shipment of bulk foods from the rural areas to the large population centers, only worsened the situation. All these factors added greatly to the destabilization

of the French society during the years that led to the French Revolution. Many wars fought by the earlier rulers and the financial pressure caused by the participation of France in the American Revolutionary War resulted in the near bankruptcy for France. The national debt was equivalent to nearly two billion lives. The enormous war debt, which was a burden on the society, was made worse when France lost its colonies in North America. When Great Britain began to dominate the commercial scene, France was unable to cope with national debt due to its incompetent and outdated financial system.

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- **Masses against the government monarchy:** Majority of the people felt that they were being distanced from the King and that he did not care about the difficulties faced by middle class. In theory, King Louis the XVI was an absolute monarch; however, in practice, he hesitated to take decisions and backed away whenever he was confronted. Though he did cut down on the expenditures of the government, his rivals in the parliament foiled his efforts to pass the much needed reforms. Those who resisted Louis's policies further threatened his royal authority by handing out pamphlets, which condemned the government and its officials and thus incited the public to rise up against the king.
- **Intellectual upliftment:** Many other factors involving resentments and aspirations were given focus by the rise of Enlightenment ideals. The people hated royal autocracy. The peasants, labourers and the bourgeoisie were bitter towards the traditional seigniorial rights, which were enjoyed by the nobles. They resented the Church's sway over public administration and institutions. They aspired for the freedom of religion. The poorer rural clergy hated the aristocratic bishops. The people aspired for social, political and economic equality and yearned for people's government. They hated Queen Marie-Antoinette (Figure 2.2), who was wrongly blamed of being a spendthrift and a spy for the Austrians. There was anger against the King for dismissing Jacques Neckar, among others, who were seen as representatives of the people.



Fig. 2.2 Marie-Antoinette, Queen of France, in Coronation Robes by Jean-Baptiste Gautier-Dagoty, 1775

The Course of the French Revolution

There were several events during the course of the French Revolution. In fact, each of these events was strongly linked.

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1. States General of 1789

The common masses of the city and the countryside were making it evident that they could not and were not ready to live the life they had lived in the past. The leaders of the country, the King and the privileged lot also showed that they could not rule the country as they had done so far. The state treasury was in a mess. The Kings and the first Two Estates had been extravagant in their expenditure and the state treasury was facing a grave financial crunch. The empire now found itself without the means to meet its immediate needs. After a number of futile ventures to improve the affairs, the King was forced to convene the States General—the assembly of representatives of the Three Estates, which had not met in France for 175 years. The States General was divided into three estates namely—the clergy or the First Estate, the nobility or the Second Estate and the rest of France or the Third Estate. Against a setting of growing popular discontent in many parts of the country in the spring of 1789 and extensive social insurgence, the States General was opened on May 5 at Versailles. With the help of the States General, King Louis XVI and his retinue of nobles hoped to win back the confidence of the public, to suppress the rebellion and to get the necessary finance to fill the state treasury. In contrast, the Third Estate hoped for a number of things from the States General. It hoped for important political changes in the country through its assembly. From the beginning, there was a difference of opinion in the States General between the Third Estate and the gentry as to how to conduct the meeting and the method of voting.

The representatives of Third Estate called a National Assembly on 17 June and asked the representatives of the other ranks to join them in their undertaking. The National Assembly now became the chief representative and legislative organ of the French people, after the daring decision taken by them. Nevertheless, the King backed by his nobles declined to accept this step. On 20 June, orders were given for the entrance to the palace, where the assembly was going on to be locked. But the deputies to the National Assembly were not in favour of obeying the orders of the King. Finding an almost empty, vast room earlier used a tennis court and encouraged to carry on by the cheering crowds of common people, they reopened their assembly there. At that unforgettable meeting in the Tennis Court on 20 June, the deputies of the National Assembly affirmed that until a constitution had been drafted and endorsed, they would neither disperse, nor suspend their work on any account.

The last time the States General had met in 1614, each estate held one vote and any two could overrule the third. The parliament of France was afraid that the government would try to gerrymander (i.e., change the size and borders of an area for voting in order to give an unfair advantage to one party in an election) the assembly by manipulating the results. Therefore, they felt the need to arrange the estates as it had been in 1614. The practices of the local assemblies differed from the 1614 rules in which each member had one vote and the Third Estate membership was doubled. Elections were held in the spring of 1789. Only the French born or naturalized males of the Third Estate of at least 25 years of age, who lived where the voting was to take place and who paid taxes, were required to vote.

2. The National Assembly: 1789–1791

The following events were the highlights of the National Assembly held at that time:

- 20 June 1789: National Assembly members take Tennis Court Oath, pledging to create new constitution
- July 14: Mob of Parisian citizens storms Bastille prison and confiscates weapons
- July 20: Rural violence of great fear breaks out; peasants lash out at feudal landlords for several weeks
- August 4: August decrees release peasants and farmers from feudal contracts
- August 26: Declaration of the rights of man and of the citizen issued
- October 5: Parisian women march to Versailles in response to food crisis
- February 1790: Government confiscates church property
- July 12: Civil Constitution of the clergy issued

3. Tennis Court Oath

Three days after the delegates from the Third Estate (now the National Assembly) broke away from the States General, they found themselves locked out of the usual meeting hall and assembled on a nearby tennis court instead. Except for one, every one of the members took the Tennis Court Oath (Figure 2.3), which stated in plain words that they would never be destroyed until they had succeeded in creating a new national constitution. As soon as King Louis XVI heard about the formation of the National Assembly, he held a gathering and tried to threaten to the Third Estate to surrender. The assembly that had grown too strong forced the King to accept it. The Parisians received word of the rebellion and revolutionary energy flowed through the city. Influenced by the National Assembly, the commoners rebelled against the rising prices. Fearing violence, the King got the troops to surround his Versailles palace.

The National Assembly was forced to relocate to a tennis court on 20 June, since Louis XVI and the Second Estate stopped the delegates from meeting and also because of some misunderstanding about one another's intentions. There they took the Tennis Court Oath affirming that it would not stop its proceedings until a new constitution had been drafted for France. Louis began to recognize their validity on 27 June when he did not succeed in dispersing the delegates. The assembly renamed itself the National Constituent Assembly on 9 July and began to work as a governing body and a constitution drafter. Even after this day, it is commonly referred to as the National Assembly or alternatively 'Constituent the States General' of 1789. It convened on 5 May 1789 but it reached a deadlock in his deliberations on 6 May 1789. Therefore, the representatives of the Third Estate trying to make the whole body effective met separately from 11th May as the *Communs*. On 12 June, the Communs invited their other estates to join them. Some members of the first estate did join them the next day. On 17 June, the Communs declared themselves the National Assembly by a vote of 490 to 90. The parish priest, who belonged to the First Estate and was almost as wealthy as the Third Estate as compared to bishops who were closer in wealth to the second estate, joined the Assembly on 19 June.

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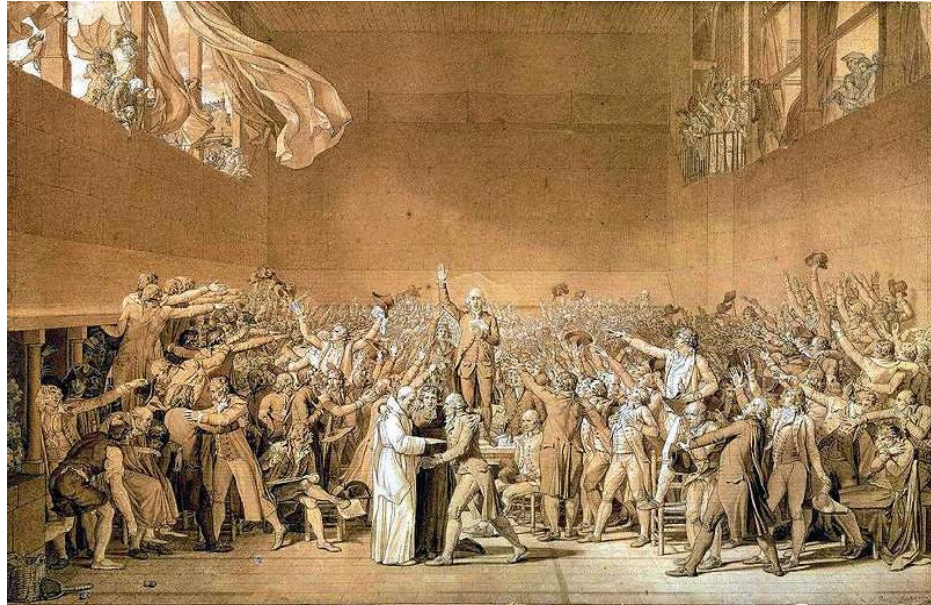


Fig. 2.3 Tennis Court Oath

4. The Storming of the Bastille

On 9 July, the National Assembly proclaimed itself a constituent assembly thus emphasizing its duty to usher in a new social order and draw up its constitutional foundation. The King had no desire to accept the decisions of the National Assembly. But he was forced to conform it despite serious misgivings. Troops who were loyal to the King began to assemble in Versailles and Paris, while the people and the deputies followed with fear. The actions of the King and his supporters were construed as a threat to the National Assembly. On 12 July, it was announced that the King had sacked Necker, who was esteemed to be the sole defender of change in the government. The people came to know that troops were being assembled in Paris. The counter-revolutionary forces were strong enough to show them the government's determination to begin an attack. The streets and squares of the city were filled with people who were in a rage. Clashes with the King's troops broke out in a number of places and the shots that were heard only added fuel to fire. The people of Paris instinctively rose to fight. The alarm was sounded early on the morning of 13 July and poor people of Paris armed with all kinds of weapons came out into the streets. The troops were forced to desert one district after another as the revolutionaries progressed and, the rebels grew from hour to hour. The people captured arms shops and armories and seized tens of thousands of guns. By the morning of 15 July most of the capital had already been captured by the rebels. But the eight towers of the guarded Bastille prison still appeared undisturbed. Seized with revolutionary fervour, the people got ready to attack this terrible fortress. Capturing the Bastille with its moats, drawbridges, large prison and cannon seemed a difficult task. But this was nothing for the revolutionaries. The artillery men opened fire and broke the chains of one of the drawbridges. The people marching forward courageously stormed their way in (Figure 2.4). The commander of the prison was killed, his men gave up and The Bastille fell.

The fall of The Bastille on 14 July was a great victory for the revolutionaries. That fateful day marked the beginning of the French Republic. From that day onwards, the strong-minded revolutionaries, the people, warred against their former masters. In the following months, it was their performance that made victory possible.



Fig. 2.4 Storming of Bastille

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Unable to face the rage of the people, the King was forced to step down. On July 17, he came to Paris with the members of the Constituent Assembly to officially recognize the victory of the revolutionaries. Events in Paris were followed by revolutionary outbreaks throughout France. All over the country, government officials were stripped of their former official post and new city councils were elected. The revolutionary army came to be known as the National Guard. The peasants who heard of the storming of the Bastille took up arms, broke into the residences of their hated masters and destroyed them. In some places, they took over the fields and wood of their masters and divided it among themselves. They refused to pay taxes and to carry out their day to day tax. The peasants who had been abused and persecuted by their masters now rose against them. Peasant agitation and violence spread all over France.

Louis XVI once again sacked Jacques Necker, the Director General of Finance. He was blamed for the failure of the States General. Necker was a well-known figure and when people heard of his dismissal, enmities flared up again. Due to the rising tension, there was a rush for weapons and on 13 July 1789, the rebels raided the Paris town hall in search of weapons. There, they found few weapons but plenty of gun powder. The next day realizing that the Bastille accommodated a large armory, the citizens on the side of the National Assembly attacked the Bastille. Though the weapons were useful, the storming of the Bastille was more symbolic than it was necessary for the revolutionary cause. The revolutionaries faced little but instant threat. But they were such a huge threatening number that they were capable of passive force. The revolutionaries, by storming the Bastille gained a symbolic victory over the Ancien Dynasty and conveyed the message that they were not to be taken lightly.

5. Structure in the Summer of 1789

The National Constituent Assembly became the most able government of France after the Bastille was attacked on July 14. Francois Mignet, the historian, said that the entire power was in the hands of the National Constituent Assembly to the extent that it was relied upon corporations and it was obeyed by the National Guards. The people were no longer willing to obey the King and so royal power had to a certain extent ceased and the Assembly had to work on its own.

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During the election period, the number of deputies of the Estates-General increased. By mid-July 1789, the Assembly had a total number of 1177 deputies comprising of nobles, the clergy and the representatives of the Third Estate. According to an American historian Timothy Tackett's *Becoming a Revolutionary*, there were a total of 1177 deputies in the Assembly by mid-July 1789. Among them, there were 278 nobles, 295 Clergy and 604 represented the Third Estate. For the entire duration of the Assembly, a total of 1315 deputies were certified, with 330 for the Clergy, 322 nobles and 663 deputies of the Third Estate. In his research, it was found that Second Estate comprised chiefly of men from the military while the Third Estate was led by the people from the legal profession.

The most prominent figures of the Assembly known as the 'Right' were: Jacques Antoine Marie de Cazales who represented the aristocracy and the abbey Jean-Sifrein Maury who was a representative of the church. Pierre Victor, Baron Malouet, Trophime-Gerard, Marquis de Lally-Tollendal, Stanislas Marie Adelaide, Comte de Claire Mont-Tonniere and Jean Joseph Mounier—the royal democrats along with Jacques Necker, aimed at shaping the government of France on the model of the British constitution with a house of lords and a house of commons.

The National party was sympathetic to the extensive needs of the common people though it supported the interests of the middle classes and was all for the revolution and a democracy. Leaders like Mirabeau, the Marquis de Lafayette, Jean-Sylvain Bailly played a very important role in the revolution. There were also extremists like Adrian Dupont, Antoine Pierre Joseph Marie Barnave and Alexander Lameth who were more progressive in their ideals than that which the revolution had reached; Lameth's brother Charles was one of them. One cannot forget the contribution made by abbey Emmanuel Joseph Sieyes, for he was the first person to suggest a constitution.

6. Declaration of the Rights of Man

The revolution initially gained significant victories because both the people and the bourgeoisie were united in their goals. The bourgeois were young and advanced and determined to fight against feudal autocracy. It did not fear the people and surged ahead shoulder to shoulder. 'The declaration of the rights of man' adopted by the Constituent Assembly on 26 August 1789 was a clear proof of the people's thirst for a new form of government. The declaration consisted of 17 articles. The first articles declared that men are born free and will remain thus all through their lives. This proclamation of freedom and equal rights was indeed revolutionary since most countries of the world followed autocracy.

The right to property was also proclaimed as a divine and basic right. The declaration of rights (Figure 2.5) also showed that the property of the bourgeois and the peasants were to be protected from violations by the land owners. It also affirmed that it would be preserved for all times.

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Fig. 2.5 The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen of 26 August 1789

This declaration was a limitation for the bourgeois since it proclaimed that this freedom was based on inequality of property. Nevertheless, it seemed to forecast the end of dictatorship.

7. The Wealthy Bourgeoisie Coming to Power

However, the power soon came to be in the hands of the big bourgeoisie only and, neither the Third Estate, nor even the whole of the bourgeoisie were able to enjoy the fruits of victory. Count Honore de Mirabeau was one of the most authoritative leaders in the Constituent Assembly. Marquis de Lafayette took the command of the National Guards and became the prominent leader in the Constituent Assembly. The representative of the big bourgeoisie in the Constituent Assembly introduced laws that insisted on a system of electoral qualifications and these only served to divide the country into ‘active’ and ‘passive’ citizens. The active citizens, only males who possessed property and who could pay taxes on a different scale could vote and be elected. Hence, out of 26 million people, only about 43,00,000 were eligible for political rights.

The big bourgeoisie thus distanced itself from the Third Estate and was soon to legalize its power. But the Constituent Assembly brought in a number of laws of revolutionary significance. The administrative structure of France was revamped, class divisions were removed and aristocratic titles were abolished. In a decree of 2 November 1789, all church property and lands were declared ‘National property’ and were put up for sale. Registration of births, deaths etc., were given to the state. Various other laws were introduced and it removed all the constraints, which had been restricting commercial and industrial initiatives.

These laws were introduced to serve the interests of the common man and the Bourgeoisie who had been the motivating force behind them. But for the Bourgeoisie, it meant that there were still tasks to be carried out by Bourgeois revolution. The big Bourgeoisie however after they came to power to promote their own selfish interests soon began to oppose any progress in the revolution. The commoners and the bourgeoisie, who were in the favour of democracy, began to wonder about the progress of the revolution. The peasants wanted to put an end to all feudal practices and labour services and they insisted that land be given to them. In 1789, between August 4 and 11, serfdom

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was abolished by the Constituent Assembly but this was only on paper because it related only to a few aspects of the peasants' personal liberty. The agrarian system also remained unsolved. In 1790, the peasants openly rebelled refusing to pay their former claims and taxes to their masters. The urban poor became poorer and commerce came to a standstill because orders for luxury goods had stopped with the emigration of the nobles. To add to this misery, Paris and other towns experienced food shortages.

The poor people of France went to Versailles on October 5 and 6, 1789 to protest against the shortage of bread and high prices. They forcibly entered the apartment of Queen Marie Antoinette. The King and the Constituent Assembly shifted from Versailles to Paris since the people demanded it.

The Constituent Assembly on 21 October 1789 passed a law to use armed force to put down the demonstrations. Workers Unions and strikes were prohibited by the passing of Le Chapelier's law on 14 June 1789. But the rising discontent could not be quelled by the big bourgeoisie.



Fig. 2.6 Maximilien Robespierre



Fig. 2.7 Jean-Paul Marat

Revolutionaries like Maximilien Robespierre (Figure 2.6) and Jean-Paul Marat (Figure 2.7) revealed to the people the true nature of the big bourgeoisie who were anti-democratic in their policies. The counter revolutionary group was not willing to accept defeat. Marie Antoinette encouraged European Monarchs to launch a military attack on France.

8. The Varennes Crisis

The King and Queen who disguised themselves and tried to flee abroad in June 1791 were caught in the small town of Varennes and were brought back to Paris. The French people, who were all for the revolution and yet trusted their King, could not accept this deceit of his and so more people began to opt for a republican form of government.

However, the Constituent Assembly continuing to support the king gave out a false report saying he was kidnapped and Louis was given back his earlier powers. The democratic circles in Paris were furious. A serious agitation for a republic began in a number of political clubs. On 17 July, a huge peaceful demonstration against the monarchy took place on Champ-de-Mars. The assembly ordered squads of the national guards under the command of La Fayette to be sent to disperse the crowd. They opened fire and a large number of people were wounded and killed. This carnage signalled an open split in the ranks of the Third Estate. The big bourgeoisie began to defend itself by using arms against the people. Conservative elements in the assembly were now busy in counter-revolutionary action. On the eve of the massacre on Champ-de-Mars, there was a split among the Jacobins. The right wing gathered around La Fayette. The other leaders of the big bourgeoisie walked out of the club and set up a new club—the Feuillants.

The most influential club Jacobins split on the eve of the massacre and the right wing was headed by La Fayette. A new club—the Feuillants—was set up by the other leaders of the big bourgeoisie. Robespierre and Brissot took over the leadership of Jacobins intending to put an end to the revolution. A constitution drafted by the assembly, which made provisions for constitutional monarchy and instituted anti-democratic electoral qualifications, was signed by the King on 13 September. The Constituent Assembly was dissolved on 30 September.

9. The Overthrow of the Monarchy

A new legislative assembly elected only by ‘active citizens’ came to power on 1 October 1791 and power was in the hands of only the Feuillants. A war against Austria was declared on 20 April 1792 by France. The war seemed to be an answer to Louis XVI and his courtiers who hoped that foreign invasion would help save the ‘shaky monarchy’. The war had also been planned by the European monarchs in order to suppress the revolution in France. Robespierre and Marat who were not in favour of the war pointed out that it was imperative to quell the revolution at home before dealing with it elsewhere. Brissot and his supporter known as the Girondins favoured the war and a clash erupted between the supporters of Robespierre and the Girondins. The Girondins were asked to take over power in March 1792 by the King. The Girondins made use of the power to hasten the war for quick easy victories. But the French were defeated and Feuillants came to power. Victories by the revolutionary army were totally opposed by La Fayette and his generals. The armies of Austria and Prussia were able to defeat the French army as they were secretly helped by Queen Marie-Antoinette who informed them of the plans of the French army. At this critical hour, people rose to their defence of the homeland. Robespierre, Marat and Danton said that it was important to conduct it in a

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revolutionary manner. The Jacobins, the main support of the revolution, pointed out that there was no possibility of any progress if treachery at home was not dealt with. A state of emergency was declared on 11 June by a law passed by the legislative assembly. The people wholeheartedly enlisted this decree since they were eager to bar the way to the interventionist. The battle hymn, the Marseillaise, was sung and also became popular during this period. It was during this revolution that people learnt that the legislative assembly and the government were incapable of dealing with treachery. Plots and criminal conspiracies were conspired in the courts and they became treacherous only because the people rose against them. People of Paris and the Provinces demanded the overthrow of Louis XVI from July onwards. The sound of bells together with the canon shots was once again heard on the night of 9 August. The army marched into Tuileries. Though the Swiss guards opened fire, the people forcibly made their way into the palace. The imprisonment of King Louis the XVI and the dismissal of his ministers on 10 August 1792 heralded the collapse of the French monarchy and the provincial executive council. Consequently, a new government comprising mainly of Girondins was established. New elections for the next national convention were announced.

10. The Struggle between the Jacobins and Girondins

The 10 August 1792 uprising brought in new developments. Power was transferred to the Girondins from the Feuillants both in the legislative assembly and the government. The commercial, industrial and landowning bourgeoisie from the provinces were represented by the Girondins and their leaders Brissot, Roland, Vergniaud and others. Though this group was against feudal aristocracy, once they came to power they believed that the main ideal of the revolution had been achieved and soon began to represent the conservative force. In the meantime, the Jacobins who comprised of that section of the people, whose demands had not been satisfied, were still not united in their ideals. While the various classes and class groups of this block did not have the same aims, they resolved to defend the revolution and further its progress until all the demands had been fully satisfied. Content with the results that had been achieved the Girondins sought to check the revolutionary tide.

Amidst celebration of the victory over the Prussians and their withdrawal the day before the battle at Valmy, the opening session of the convention was held on 2 September 1792. The King was tried before the convention. The trial which should have lasted until January 1793 became an arena for struggle between the Girondins and the Jacobins. Louis XVI was sent to the guillotine on 21 January 1793 despite the saving efforts of the Girondins. The counter-revolutionary coalition was joined by England, Spain, Holland and a number of German and Italian states and Russia. France found that all of Europe was against it. Emboldened by the victory at Valmy, the French advanced into Belgium after driving out the interventionist. But the French began to retreat after General Dumouriez joined the enemy camp by plotting with the Girondins and betraying France. France was once again invaded by the interventionist.

11. The Uprising of 31 May–2 June, 1793

An acute food shortage was faced by France due to the long war. The war had led to material damage and loss of life. France was cut off from other countries and the economy of the country was in a mess. To counteract hunger and poverty, the government had to curtail prices and had a firm hold on speculation. Agitators such as Jacques Roux, Varlet voiced the interests of the urban poor. In the villages, the peasantry still bound by feudal duties and taxes began to protest against these grievances.

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The Girondins turned a 'deaf ear' and a 'blind eye' to the people's plight. They concentrated all their energies on their struggle with the Jacobins. They were neither interested in the suffering of the people, nor in the situation at the war front. An armed rebellion against the Girondins was organized by the Jacobins and the agitators. The Jacobins were in power once again after the mob in Paris drove out 29 Girondin deputies out of the convention.

Aims of the New Constitution

The course of the French Revolution was based on the main aims of establishing a government which is a 'welfare state'. The same was the aim of the constitution, which was worked out by the Constituent Assembly.

National Convention (1792–1795)

To provide a new constitution to the country, the deputies elected the Convention Nationale (National Convention) on 10 August 1791 after monarchy was abolished. After verifying powers the 371 deputies who met at the Tuileries Palace, Paris, on 20 September 1792, called themselves the National Convention. The abolition of kingship in France was announced by the Convention. After the establishment of the republic was announced, it was said that from then on all public acts would bear the date of the first year of the French Republic.

The battle between the Montagnards and the Girondins, the two opposing revolutionary groups, dominated the first phase of the Convention. The Montagnards wanted to give the lower classes more political power. The Girondins who wanted a republican government by the bourgeoisie also wanted to reduce the powers of Paris over the revolution. They also rejected the anti-revolutionary European coalition. The revolutionaries expelled the Girondins from the convention. The second phase of the convention (June 1793–July 1794) was controlled by the Montagnards. The war and the revolts in the country resulted in a revolutionary government with autocratic powers. As a result, the constitution approved by the convention on 24 January 1793 was neither put into action, nor could it pass any act. It could only approve the suggestions made by the committee. Counter acting the committee's progressive procedures many members of the Convention participated in ousting Robespierre—prominent member of the committee. The moderate deputies of La Plaine now held the balance of power. The Montagnards having been expelled the Girondins were recalled to the assembly. The replacement of the constitution in place of the bourgeoisie-dominated directory 1795–99 was accepted by the convention in August 1795. The last meeting of the convention was held on 26 October 1795. Philippe-Jacques Ruhl, the eldest deputy, presided over the first meeting of the convention in 20 September 1792. But a majority of deputies elected Jerome Petion de Villeneuve first president after the convention was constituted. According to the regulations of the Committee, the president's term of office was 15 days. Though he could not hold office for two consecutive terms, he was eligible to be re-elected after an interval of 15 days.

The elections were normally conducted in the session held in the evening and the president was expected to chair the next meeting though at times he was expected to officiate immediately. The president was just a figurehead for there was more emphasis on his post than his authority. Thus, he was reduced to being just a presiding officer at the meetings of the convention for a short term. The tentative suspension of the King was announced by the legislative assembly when the Parisians attacked Tuileries demanding the abolition of monarchy. It also decreed that the national convention be

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convened to draw up a constitution. Twenty-five year old landed French men who had been living in France for a year were to be elected as deputies to the convention. The National Convention was the first French assembly to have had elections by universal voting with no class distinction. The convention lowered the age limit of voting to 21 and the fixed the eligibility of standing for elections at 25 years. A decision was also taken to date all documents from the year of the French Republic. But the convention was fated to last for 3 years and a new constitution was to be set up only when peace reigned. The convention took over the executive power though it was only a law making body. This confusion of powers helped in empowering the revolutionary government, which was very active during the 'Reign of Terror'.

The sessions of the convention were held in the Hall of the Tuileries, in the hall Manege and finally in the huge Hall of Spectacles. There were 749 deputies in the convention, but only a section arrived in France. Many could not attend the sessions due to a number of reasons and this made it difficult to find out the number of deputies present at a given date. On an average, only 250 voted during the Reign of Terror. The members of the Convention were drawn from all classes of society, but the most number of members were from the legal profession. Seventy-five members had sat in the Constituent Assembly and 183 sat in the Legislative Assembly.

According to the rules laid down by the convention, its president was elected every fortnight and re-election was allowed after a fortnight. The sessions of the convention were normally held in the morning. But sessions were frequent even in the evening and it extended late into the night. In some exceptional circumstances, it was a permanent session and they sat for several days without interruption. For the purposes of both legislation and administration, the convention used committees. Powers were widely extended and regulated by a series of laws. These committees-public safety, general security and education were the most famous. The work of the convention was extensive in all branches of public affairs. France was saved from a Civil War and invasion from foreign powers by the assembly. The system of public education (Museum, Ecole Polytechnique, Ecole Normale Superieure, Ecole des Langues orientales, Conservatoire) and institutions of great importance (Grand Livre de la dette publique) was established by the assembly. In addition to these, some major changes were carried out in the land sale-purchase rules.

Working Towards a Constitution

Abolition of Feudalism to the Civil Constitution of the Clergy: Feudalism was eradicated by the National Constituent Assembly on 4 August 1789. A declaration of the rights of the man and of the citizen was published by the assembly on 24 August. But the declaration contained only a statement of principles. It did not read like a constitution with legal effect. Besides functioning as a legislature, the Assembly acted as a body to write out a new constitution and it was primarily summoned to find a solution to deal with financial crisis, but it started attending to other matters and ended up in increasing the fiscal deficit.

The Revolution and the Church

The aftermath of revolution saw power changing hands in a colossal way. Under the Ancien Regime, Roman Catholic Church enjoyed a lot of power. It owned 10 per cent of the land belonging to the Kingdom, and it was not levied any tax by the government. Huguenots, the Protestants minorities, did not approve of the Roman Catholics having so much power and wealth. As the Catholic Church did not favour them, they wanted a

Non-Catholic regime. Great Enlightenment thinkers, notably Voltaire, made this resentment grow in strength by defaming the Church and making the French Monarchy shaky. Due to this, the church lost much of its power during the opening of Estates General in May 1789. The church, composing the First Estate with 1,30,000 of clergy members, voted to join the National Assembly created by the Third Estate in June 1789. Thus, it destroyed the Estate General as a governing body. Social and economic reforms were started by the National Assembly and on 4 August 1789. It brought out a legislature that abolished the Church's authority to impose tithes. On 7 August 1789, in an attempt to overcome the financial crisis, the Assembly announced that the property of the church was at the disposal of the nation. The new currency the Assignats was duly backed up by the property and the nation took the overall responsibility of the Church, like paying the clergy members and caring for the poor, the sick and the orphans. In two years, the Assembly brought down the value of the Assignats by 25 per cent by selling the lands to the highest bidders.

Constitutional Crisis

The Tuileries palace was attacked by the revolutionaries, who were aided and abetted by a new insurrectionary commune. The Swiss guards who were on duty to protect the King were murdered en masse. The royal family was taken prisoners and a session was convened by some unimportant members of the National Assembly and the monarchy was suspended. The deputies, mostly Jacobins, were only present. Now, the National government, or whatever that was left of it, depended on the Revolutionary commune. The commune took law and order in their hands and sent gangs of ruffians to the prisons to conduct token trials and butcher the prisoners. They also sent a circular letter to the cities to follow their example. The Assembly was almost powerless to stop this anarchy and the reign of terror prevailed until mid-September 1792. The Convention met on September 20 with a new constitution and became the actual government of France. On September 21, France was declared a Republic with the abolition of monarchy. So, September 21 has been adopted as the Republic Day of France.

Significance of the Revolution

The influence of the French Revolution was felt all through the Western world. Almost 20,00,000 army men were killed in the wars of the French Revolution.

The most significant impact of the Revolution was that the nobility was replaced by the bourgeoisie as the dominant political class. This assertion is challenged in the present-day analysis, but it is clear the men of property in spite of social background benefited from the Revolution. Women, not considering their rank, did not profit much from the Revolution and continued to be restricted to the private sphere.

In economic terms, the peasants profited from the end of the last remains of feudalism. But the confusion of the Revolution impeded the industrialization of France.

The major inheritance of the Revolution was in the sphere of politics. The Revolution encouraged the doctrine that the people were the chief source of political power in the state and resulted in the active involvement of the citizens in politics. The Revolution brought about a massive growth of the power of government and gave it superior control over everyday life of its citizens. The Revolution also led to the rise of two major political ideologies—liberalism and nationalism.

The most tangible results of the French Revolution were almost certainly achieved in 1789–91, when land was set free from traditional burdens and the old communal

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society was wrapped up. This 'abolition of feudalism' encouraged individualism and egalitarianism but almost certainly retarded the growth of a capitalist economy. Although only wealthy peasants were able to pay for the land confiscated from the Church and the expatriate nobility, France emerged increasingly as a land of peasant proprietors. The bourgeoisie that acquired social preponderance during the Directory and the Consulate was chiefly comprised of officials and landed proprietors, and though the war enabled some entrepreneurs and contractors to make fortunes, it hindered economic development. The great reforms of 1789–91 however established a durable administrative and legal system, and much of the revolutionaries' work in humanizing the law itself was afterward incorporated in the Napoleonic Code.

Politically, the Revolution was more important than successful. Since 1789, the French government has been either parliamentary, or constitutional, or based on the plebiscitary system that Napoleon inherited and developed. However, between 1789 and 1799, democracy failed. Recurrent elections bred apathy, and filling offices by recommendation became everyday event, even before Napoleon made it organized. The Jacobins' fraternal and Jacobin controlled community ended in 1794, the direct democracy of the sans-culottes was squashed in 1795, and the republic expired in 1804; however, as principles they carried on to motivate French politics and keep right and left, church and state, far at a distance.

The Revolution nonetheless freed the state from its medieval past, releasing such unparalleled power that the revolutionaries could defy the rest of Europe. Furthermore, that power acknowledged no self-control: in 1793 unity was imposed on the nation by the Terror. Europe and the world have ever since been learning what violations of liberty can issue from the ideas of national autonomy and the will of the people.

Historians extensively regard the Revolution as one of the most significant events in human history, and the end of the early modern period, which started around 1500, is usually attributed to the onset of the French Revolution in 1789. The Revolution is, actually, repeatedly seen as marking the 'dawn of the modern era'. In France itself, the Revolution enduringly crippled the power of the aristocracy and depleted the wealth of the Church, though the two institutions survived in spite of the damage they sustained. After the disintegration of the First Empire in 1815, the French public lost the rights and freedoms earned since the Revolution, but they kept in mind the concept of the participatory politics, which characterized the period, with one historian commenting: 'Thousands of men and even many women gained first-hand experience in the political arena: they talked, read and listened in new ways; they voted; they joined new organizations; and they marched for their political goals. Revolution became a tradition, and republicanism an enduring option.'

Some historians debate that the French people underwent a deep-seated transformation in self-identity, evidenced by the abolition of privileges and their substitution by rights as well as the growing decline in social esteem that highlighted the law of equality throughout the Revolution. Outside France, the Revolution captured the imagination of the world. It had an insightful impact on the Russian Revolution and its ideas were imbibed by Mao Zedong in his efforts at constructing a communist state in China.

SUMMARY

- The outcome of the American Revolution and the War of Independence had a critical influence on the subsequent major political events of the world. Its immediate impact was witnessed in the European countries, especially in France. In addition to the influence of the American Revolution, there were many other factors that led to the French Revolution.
- In the summer of 1788, crops were destroyed after a bad harvest in many areas and this was followed by a remarkably harsh winter. The peasants revolted in a number of states in the autumn and winter of that year and this continued until 1789.
- Against a setting of growing popular discontent in many parts of the country in the spring of 1789 and extensive social insurgence, the States General was opened on 5 May 1789 at Versailles.
- The fall of The Bastille on 14 July 1789 was a great victory for the revolutionaries. That fateful day marked the beginning of the French Republic.
- ‘The declaration of the rights of man’ adopted by the Constituent Assembly on 26 August 1789 was a clear proof of the people’s thirst for a new form of government. The declaration consisted of 17 articles.
- The Convention met on 20 September 1792 with a new constitution and became the actual government of France. On 21 September 1792, France was declared a Republic with the abolition of monarchy. So, September 21 has been adopted as the Republic Day of France.
- The Revolution encouraged the doctrine that the people were the chief source of political power in the state and resulted in the active involvement of the citizens in politics.
- The ‘abolition of feudalism’, as a result of the Revolution, encouraged individualism and egalitarianism but almost certainly retarded the growth of a capitalist economy. Although only wealthy peasants were able to pay for the land confiscated from the Church and the expatriate nobility, France emerged increasingly as a land of peasant proprietors.
- The French Revolution and the Napoleonic Era were the periods of rapid political and social changes. Numerous contemporaries admired Napoleon not only for his military achievements, but also because he put the ideals of the Revolution into practise’.
- Napoleon Bonaparte (15 August 1769 – 5 May 1821) was a French military and political leader during the latter stages of the French Revolution. As Napoleon I, he was Emperor of the French from 1804 to 1815.
- Napoleon was a great leader. He stabilized the national budget and set up the Bank of France. He controlled prices, began public works to put people to work and supported new industry.

KEY TERMS

- **Protestant:** It refers to a member of a part of the Western Christian Church that separated from the Roman Catholic Church in the 16th century.
- **Convene:** It refers to arranging for people to come together for a formal meeting.
- **Commune:** It refers to the smallest division of local government in France and some other countries.
- **Assignats:** They were paper money issued by the National Assembly in France from 1789 to 1796, during the French Revolution, to address imminent bankruptcy.
- **Demonstration:** It refers to a public meeting or march at which people show that they are protesting against or supporting somebody/something.
- **Guillotine:** It refers to a machine, originally from France, for cutting people's heads off; it has a heavy blade that slides down a wooden frame.
- **Coup:** It refers to a sudden overthrow of government that is illegal and often violent.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The peasants, who were in despair due to hunger and poverty, plundered the granaries and distributed the corn among themselves.
 2. An increasing number of French citizens had absorbed the ideas of 'equality' and 'freedom of the individual', which were put forward by Voltaire, Dennis Diderot, Turgot and other philosophers and the social theorists of the enlightenment.
 3. The Revolution had an insightful impact on the Russian Revolution and its ideas were imbibed by Mao Zedong in his efforts at constructing a communist state in China.
 4. (a) French, (b) Italy
 5. (a) True, (b) True
- Those present at the Congress were the emperors of Austria and Russia, the kings of Prussia, Bavaria, Wurttemberg, Denmark, a multitude of lesser princes, and the diplomats of Europe of whom Metternich and Talleyrand were the most noticeable. All the powers were represented except Turkey.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What role did the States' General play in the course of the French Revolution?
2. State the role of the bourgeoisie in the French Revolution.
3. List the achievements and significance of the French Revolution.
4. Why were the Holy Alliance and the Quadruple Alliance formed?
5. State Metternich's role after the fall of Napoleon.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the causes that led to the French Revolution.
2. Discuss the significance of the Tennis Court Oath and the Storming of Bastille.
3. Discuss how the Constitution was drafted once the National Assembly was convened.

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UNIT IV NAPOLEON

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Structure

- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Napoleon as a Reformer
- Defence of National Convention, Early Victories, Reforms and Foreign Policy
- Napoleon as the First Consul and Emperor
- War against Russia and Defeat of Napoleon
- Impact of Napoleon
- Congress of Vienna
- Provisions—Work of the Congress
- The Holy Alliance
- Prince Metternich (1773-1859)
- Reaction in Europe after 1815
- Italy, a Geographical Expression
- Critical Estimate
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’
- Questions and Exercises
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INTRODUCTION

The outcome of the American Revolution and the War of Independence had a critical influence on the subsequent major political events of the world. Its immediate impact was witnessed in the European countries, especially in France. In addition to the influence of the American Revolution, there were many other factors that led to the French Revolution. The French people began to yearn for a revolution to overturn their corrupt and despotic government, just as they perceived the American colonies had done. For years, the French government had promoted the cause of the American Revolution. Thus, it was but natural for the French government to say nothing against the American model. It could not so readily demonize the secular and humanist model of the United States as it had the Protestant model of bygone years. The French hero Lafayette had fought for it, and the French architect L’Enfant was busy designing its capital on property donated by America’s most prominent Roman Catholic family. The United States embodied the Enlightenment ideals that so many in France yearned for.

On 12 July 1789, Camille Desmoulins, the French journalist, provoked the people of Paris to arm themselves in fear that King Louis XVI was about to attack the city. Two days later, on 14 July 1789, the people of Paris attacked the fortress of the Bastille, murdered its governor and defenders as well as the city’s magistrates. This brutal event was the commencement of elementary political changes in France and Europe that are now summed up as the outcomes of the French Revolution.

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The Revolution had far-reaching impact on all the social classes of France. The French Revolution was followed by and influenced by the rise of Napoleon to power. The reign of Napoleon, popularly known as the Napoleonic era, holds great significance in the history of France and the rest of the world. This era symbolized the finest display of commitment and love for the motherland.

Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain, the four powers which were instrumental in overthrowing Napoleon in a series of wars (the Napoleonic Wars), convened the Congress of Vienna at Vienna from September 1814 to June 1815. The Vienna Congress was drafted to restore peace in Europe and realign the social and political order to prevent imperialism within Europe. But the Congress was shaped with conservative political and social views. What it achieved politically was to reinstate balance of power and legitimacy. Socially, the Congress stopped most revolts and uprisings. From 1815 to 1848, the Congress of Vienna was successful in ensuring peace and order in the region.

Metternich, the chief minister of autocratic Austria and the country's representative at the Congress, wanted to contain France. To ensure that France remains politically and militarily weak, the Congress of Vienna purposely surrounded the country by stronger nations. Metternich also wanted legitimate governments in these countries. Hence, the Bourbons of France, Spain, and Naples were restored, so were the ruling dynasties in Holland, Sardinia, Tuscany, and Modena. Russia, Austria, Prussia, and England formed a Concert of Europe that promised and gave each other support if revolutions broke out. The Quadruple Alliance of Russia, Austria, Prussia and England agreed to defend the status quo against any threat to the balance of power. Spain revolted in 1820 and the revolution was suppressed by the French troops. Also in 1820, Austrian troops were ordered to stop the revolution of Naples.

In this unit, you will read about the causes of the Napoleon as a reformer and the events that took place in the Congress of Vienna.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Napoleon's early life and career
- Describe the defence of national convention and his early victories
- Analyse Napoleon's rise to power, reforms and foreign policy
- Discuss the factors that set the background for the Vienna Congress
- Assess the role of Metternich since the fall of Napoleon
- Evaluate the political composition of Europe in the post-Napoleonic era

NAPOLEON AS A REFORMER

The French Revolution and the Napoleonic Era were the periods of rapid political and social changes. France stood in the centre of the course of events in Europe. The

French Revolution and the subsequent era of Napoleonic Wars brought about profound changes that shaped new Europe. The French Revolution abolished privileges of the noble class and separated the Church from the state. In 1793, the French Republic was established. These changes necessarily provoked reaction from old European monarchies. European monarchs were particularly afraid that revolutionary ideas would be ‘exported’ from France. In spite of political and military interventions, the ideas of the Revolution were spread across Europe. These ideas attracted numerous supporters among intellectuals and artists. Same kind of reactions also provoked the person like Napoleon Bonaparte. In 1799, he became the First Consul in France and announced the end of the Revolution and chaos. Although he was a ‘child of the Revolution’, he made certain changes that surprised many of his supporters. In 1801, he negotiated the Concordat with the Catholic Church; in 1804, he made himself the Emperor of France. This event shocked many of his contemporaries as he seemingly denied the ideas of the Revolution.

The regime in France was not democratic at all; it was not democratic even during the revolutionary years. It was so because Napoleon acted as an autocrat. He was strictly against any possible opposition. He swept away the Holy Roman Empire and created numerous satellite states. Numerous contemporaries admired Napoleon not only for his military achievements, but also for the fact that ‘Bonaparte was founding new Italian republics in which the ideals of the Revolution would be put into practise’. Although he seemingly ‘exported’ the Revolution, his rule was strongly centralized. He would never permit any resistance. To add to this, the annexed states served him mostly as sources of supplies of any kind for his military campaigns. Due to these wars, France had to face several anti-Napoleonic coalitions and Bonaparte emerged as the main threat for European monarchies.

Early Life and Career

Napoleon Bonaparte (15 August 1769 – 5 May 1821) was a French military and political leader during the latter stages of the French Revolution. As Napoleon I, he was Emperor of the French from 1804 to 1815. Napoleon (Figure 2.8), at the age of 25, had been expelled from the army. He was disgraced, hopeless and suicidal. Within one year, he became the youngest general in France, and started winning battles with ragged troops who were at the verge of malnourishment. Madame Germaine de Stael, a writer and intellectual, says: ‘He was like an expert chess player, with the human race for an opponent, which he proposed to checkmate.’



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Napoleon belonged to the Jacobin club. His father was a poor noble. Napoleon joined the Jacobins for the reason that, as he wrote in a letter to his brother, ‘Since one must choose sides, one might as well choose the side that is victorious, the side which devastates, loots and burns. Considering the alternative, it is better to eat than be eaten.’

Napoleon Bonaparte emerged as France’s leading military leader. He defeated the British when they entered France in 1793. In 1796, Napoleon beat the Austrians. The Austrian Hapsburgs wanted to re-establish the rule of the monarchs. Napoleon was defeated in Egypt; however, he did not let the news of the worst losses reach France. He sent people to study Egypt’s history, and they found out the Rosetta Stone. Napoleon wished to set up a base there so that France could assault England in both Africa and India.

After a victory at Austerlitz, he declared that he would adopt the children of all the soldiers. It was due to this announcement that Napoleon gained the love of the French people. He then asked the state to shell out money for the children’s support and education, organize marriages for the girls and get jobs for the boys; he allowed them all to add Napoleon to their names.

In November 1799, in a coup d’etat, Napoleon overthrew the Directory. Although France was to remain a Republic, he appointed himself the First Consul for Life by proclaiming, ‘I am no ordinary man’. In 1804, people decided and voted for him to become the Emperor. Napoleon requested the Pope to preside over his coronation. He took the crown from the Pope’s hands and placed it on his own head to show that he owed his throne to nobody (Figure 2.9).



Fig. 2.9 Coronation of Napoleon

Napoleon was a great Leader. He stabilized the national budget and set up the Bank of France. He controlled prices, began public works to put people to work and supported new industry. The slogans of the new regime order, security and efficiency replaced liberty, equality and fraternity.

Napoleon and the Revolution

Napoleon used the radical vocabulary of the revolution. He presented himself as an ally of the common man and encouraged the motto ‘equality of opportunity’. However, as a ruler, he was authoritarian. He held cautiously orchestrated elections to legitimize his

political initiatives. He retained representative institutions but rendered them useless. He can best be viewed as an heir to or child of the Revolution in the context that he continued to centralize the French state and carried out the expansion of France and the spread of the Revolution to other Europe countries.

Napoleon and the French State

After acquiring power, Napoleon set out to consolidate the French state by establishing a well-organized and centralized bureaucracy and a uniform legal system. He also worked hard to settle the conflict between the Church and state that had emerged during the French Revolution.

To decide the dispute between the Church and state, Napoleon signed the Concordat of 1801 with Pope Pius VII (1800–1823). The Pope abandoned all claims to the property confiscated by the Revolution, agreed that the clergy would take an oath of loyalty to the state and agreed not to employ bishops without previous approval of the French government. Against this, Napoleon recognized Catholic Christianity as the religion of the maximum number of Frenchmen and decided to pay the salaries of the clergy. When the French fundamentalists called ideologues objected even to the few concessions Napoleon had made to the Pope, he declared that the clergy read government verdicts from the pulpit and made the church a department of state.

Legal system

Napoleon promulgated a series of new legal codes to standardize the legal system. The most significant was the Civil Code or Code Napoleon published in 1806. With this, he guaranteed the following:

- Rights to private property
- Equality before the law
- Freedom of religion

Napoleon gave every man the control of family by denying women the right to inherit, buy or sell property. He also centralized the bureaucracy. All power rested in the hands of the officials in Paris where the ministers of the government supervised a vast bureaucracy. In the departments, a *prefect* appointed by the central government enforced orders from Paris, conscripted soldiers, accumulated taxes and looked over the public works.

Napoleon established a new order of non-hereditary nobles to reward good service. These officials were called *notables* and gained their status because of their talent.

Defence of National Convention, Early Victories, Reforms and Foreign Policy

In 1795, Napoleon got an opportunity to display his qualities as a brave military leader. It was the occasion when he successfully defended the National Convention against an attack by the mob by employing and using his artillery. He succeeded in saving the Convention from collapse and completely obliterated its enemies. In admiration of Napoleon's role, the Directory decided to give him the authority of French Army.

In 1796–97, Napoleon won victories against Austria and Sardinia and further enhanced his military fame. Thereafter, he decided to proceed against Egypt and Syria with a view to strike at the heart of the British Empire.

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The idea received full support from the Directors, who considered Napoleon's presence in Paris as highly dangerous and saw it to their advantage to send him to Egypt on a military adventure. However, Napoleon's ambitions received a shattering blow when his forces suffered a defeat at the hands of Lord Nelson in the Battle of Nile. Therefore, Napoleon was forced to make his way back to France.

Napoleon's Problems

Napoleon faced the following problems when he reached at the peak of his might:

- Britain was very powerful as it had gathered the support of allies to beat France. Eventually, their collective forces beat Napoleon at Trafalgar. He gave up the thought of invading Britain. French troops were intercepted by Horatio Lord Nelson at Trafalgar.
- Spain and Germany assaulted on France. Spain used guerrilla tactics. Napoleon lost 3,00,000 men. He handed over the throne of Spain to his brother, and made changes in the religion. The Spanish did not like it, and when the French cruelly tried to crush the revolts, the Spanish got even crazier.
- Napoleon attacked Russia in 1812. During September 1812, he arrived at the onset of one of the worst winters in the Russian history. This was a catastrophe. Of the 6,14,000 men who had accompanied him, only 40,000 came back. The temperature got to -30°C when they were returning.

Reforms

The Napoleonic era saw reforms in many spheres. Let us discuss them one by one.

Legal reforms

In 1804, Napoleon reformed the French legal system. The system of law was in a highly disturbed state. Laws were not codified and were formed on the Roman law, ancient custom or monarchical paternalism. During the Revolution, several laws were altered. It was easier said than done to decide what law applied in a particular situation, and laws were not uniformly applied to everyone.

The muddle of laws were codified and written noticeably in order that the people could decide what law applied. It included much of the Roman law. For the very first time in history, the law was based on logic and founded on the concept that all men were equal before the law. It assured individual rights (except for women and blacks) and the protection of property. In short, it codified the various ideals of the Revolution. The Napoleonic Code became overwhelmingly influential to other European nations in the 19th century.

Governmental reforms

Napoleon centralized the government machinery, putting control decisively in the hands of the national government. It became well-organized. Development in the civil service and the military was based on merit instead of rank. The taxes were applied to all evenly.

Educational reforms

Napoleon built several new lycees (the lycée is the second, and last, stage of secondary education in the French educational system), schools for boys of age 10 to 16. He

identified the significance of education in producing citizens competent for filling positions in his administration and military. Although he did not build a system of mass education, education was more accessible to the middle class than previously. At a meeting in 1807, he declared:

Of all our institutions, public education is the most important. Everything depends on it, the present and the future. It is essential that the morals and political ideas of the generation which is now growing up should no longer be dependent upon the news of the day or the circumstances of the moment. Above all, we must secure unity: we must be able to cast a whole generation in the same mould.

He assumed education as a means of indoctrinating 'right-thinking' citizens from an initial age. He did not think about the need to educate girls, because they could learn everything they needed from their mothers. They were not supposed to be active citizens of the country.

Foreign Policy

Napoleon contributed to administrative reforms in the European countries. He introduced far-reaching reforms in France to strengthen the administration. Some of the reforms introduced by him included recruitment to government posts on the basis of merit; establishment of a common system of law to assure equality to all French Citizens; religious freedom to all citizens; and improvement in the system of judicial administration.

These reforms were so popular that the successors of Napoleon could not diverge from them. Even the people of other European countries were attracted by these reforms and tried to copy his administrative system in their country. Under the impact of Napoleon, a number of other European countries also introduced far-reaching reforms. Prominent among these countries were:

- Holland
- Belgium
- Spain
- Federal State of Rhine
- The Grand Duchy of Warsaw
- Switzerland
- Italy

In most of these countries, feudalism and serfdom were totally abolished and the citizens were assured full religious freedom. They also significantly borrowed from Napoleon's legal code. No wonder the reforms introduced by Napoleon in France were gradually introduced in other European countries.

Napoleon, to a great extent, contributed to the rise of nationalism in Europe. In his enthusiasm to make France a great nation, he brought a number of other European countries like Spain, Germany, Portugal, Prussia, under his control.

The French soldiers by their presence in these countries taught the people that nation was above everything else and no sacrifice was big enough for the cause of the nation. It was this spirit of nationalism that ultimately inspired the people of various European countries to rise against Napoleon and assert their independence.

Finally, Napoleon unconsciously contributed to the unification of Germany and Italy. He contributed to the unification of Germany by amalgamating a number of small

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German states into a federal unit and providing them an excellent system of administration. Thus, he taught the Germans first lessons of unity which ultimately culminated in the unification of Germany in 1870.

Similarly, he also promoted the spirit of national unity among the Italians by uniting various kingdoms of Italy and creating a Republic of Italy. Foscolo, the Great Italian poet, has described Napoleon as the liberator of Italy.

Thus, we can say that despite enormous loss of human lives, which was caused due to military adventures of Napoleon, his rule proved to be a boon for the countries of Europe insofar as he implanted the principles of French Revolution, encouraged the growth of democracy, provided impetus to reforms, promoted nationalism and contributed to the unification of Germany and Italy.

Napoleon as the First Consulate and Emperor

As you have read that Napoleon saved the Directory from the anger of the mob, he got a chance to hold some power and participation in the administration. He thus drafted the Constitution of the Year VIII and secured his own election as the First Consul. Thereafter, he decided to reside within the Tuileries. This made Bonaparte the most influential person in France.

The First Consul

In 1800, Napoleon and his troops crossed over the Alps and entered Italy. Here, French forces had been almost entirely driven out by the Austrians whilst he was in Egypt. The war started badly for the French after he made strategic errors; one force was left besieged at Genoa but managed to hold out and thereby occupy Austrian resources. This effort and French general Louis Desaix's appropriate reinforcements, permitted Napoleon to avoid defeat and to triumph over the Austrians in June at the important Battle of Marengo. His brother Joseph negotiated peace in Lunéville and concluded that Austria, supported by the British, would not recognize France's newly gained territory. As negotiations became more and more fractious, Napoleon ordered one more to strike at Austria. France emerged victorious. As a result, the Treaty of Lunéville was signed in February 1801; the French gains of the Treaty of Campo Formio were reaffirmed and increased.

Emperor of France

Also, around this time, Napoleon became the Consul for life and soon after, he was crowned Emperor of France. However, as emperor, he still had several issues such as the revolt in Haiti. Besides losing this war, Napoleon was defeated.

The Royalists and Jacobins plotted against Napoleon when he became France's ruler. These plots included the Conspiracy des poignards (Dagger plot) in October 1800 and the Plot of the rue Saint-Nicaise (also famous as the infernal machine) two months later. In January 1804, the police of Napoleon came to know and averted an assassination plot against him that involved Moreau. It was apparently sponsored by the Bourbon former rulers of France. On the recommendation of Talleyrand, Napoleon ordered the kidnapping of Louis Antoine, Duke of Enghien, in infringement of neighbouring Baden's autonomy. After a covert trial, the Duke was executed, even though he had not been engaged in the plot.

On the basis of the assassination plot, Napoleon justified the recreation of a hereditary monarchy in France, with himself as the emperor, saying that a Bourbon

reinstatement would be tricky if the Bonapartist succession was entrenched in the constitution. Napoleon crowned himself as Emperor Napoleon I on 2 December 1804 at Notre Dame de Paris and then crowned Joséphine as the Empress. At Milan Cathedral on 26 May 1805, Napoleon was crowned King of Italy with the Iron Crown of Lombardy. He established eighteen Marshals of the Empire from amongst his top generals to secure the loyalty of the army.

War against Russia and Defeat of Napoleon

The Congress of Erfurt decided to protect the Russo-French coalition, and the leaders had a gracious personal relationship after their first meeting at Tilsit in 1807. However by 1811, tensions had built up and Alexander, the Russian Emperor, was under pressure from the Russian nobility to call the alliance off. An initial symbol that showed that the ties had deteriorated was the Russian's virtual desertion of the Continental System, which resulted in Napoleon threatening Alexander with grave consequences if he formed a coalition with Britain. By 1812, Alexander's advisors advised on a possibility of an invasion of the French Empire and the recapture of Poland. After receiving intelligence reports on Russia's war groundwork, Napoleon expanded his Grande Armée to more than 4,50,000 men. He ignored repeated suggestions against an incursion of the Russian heartland and organized for an offensive campaign; on 23 June 1812, the invasion started.

In an effort to gain increased support from Polish nationalists and patriots, Napoleon named the war 'the Second Polish War'; the First Polish War was the Bar Confederation uprising by Polish nobles against Russia in 1768. Polish patriots wished for the Russian portion of Poland to be joined with the Duchy of Warsaw and an independent Poland established. This demand was rejected by Napoleon. He states that he had promised his ally Austria that this would not take place. He refused to manumit the Russian serfs due to concerns like this might incite a reaction in his army's rear. The serfs later assigned atrocities against French soldiers during France's retreat.

The Russians foiled Napoleon's aim of a decisive engagement and rather retreated deeper into Russia. A short attempt at resistance was made at Smolensk in August; the Russians were overpowered in a series of battles, and Napoleon resumed his move forward. The Russians again prevented battle, however, at a few places, this was only achieved because Napoleon unusually hesitated to attack when the opportunity arose. Due to the Russian army's scorched earth tactics, the French found it very difficult to forage food for themselves and their horses.

The Russians finally offered battle outside Moscow on 7 September: The Battle of Borodino resulted in about 44,000 Russian and 35,000 French dead, wounded or captured, and may have been the bloodiest day of battle in history up to that point in time. However, the French had won, the Russian army had recognized, and withstood the major war Napoleon had hoped would be decisive. According to Napoleon, 'The most terrible of all my battles was the one before Moscow. The French showed themselves to be worthy of victory, but the Russians showed themselves worthy of being invincible.'

Defeat of Napoleon

The Russian army retreated back and left Moscow city. Napoleon entered the city, thinking its fall would end the battle and Alexander would come to negotiate peace. However, on orders of Fyodor Rostopchin, the city's governor, instead of capitulation Moscow was burned. After a month, thinking about the loss of control back in France, Napoleon and his army left (Figure 2.10). Thus, Napoleon could not win the war; however,

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by the time of his return, the harshest winter had set in. Due to this, more than half of his remaining army died on the way to France. He was terribly defeated in this war and never ever could recover from the losses.



Fig. 2.10 Napoleon Returns from Russia

The French suffered greatly in the course of a ruinous retreat, including from the harshness of the Russian Winter. The Armée had begun as over 4,00,000 frontline troops, but in the end fewer than 40,000 crossed the Berezina River in November 1812. The Russians had lost 1,50,000 in battle and hundreds of thousands of civilians.

The Downfall of Napoleon

Defeat in the war with Russia changed the fortunes of Napoleon. This prompted the other European powers to form a coalition and defeat Napoleon at the Battle of Leipzig in October 1813. Due to more defeats by the Austrians in Italy and the British in Spain, Napoleon relinquished his crown in April 1814. The French government was handed over to King Louis XVIII, brother of Louis XVI. Louis XVIII restored the White Flag of the Bourbons and recognized Catholic Christianity as the state religion; however, he did not alter many changes that were incorporated due to the Revolution. Despite Louis XVIII's attempts at conciliation, Napoleon remained extremely popular. In March 1815, he escaped from exile on the Island of Elba and most Frenchmen rallied for him. The European powers again allied against him and overwhelmed him at the Battle of Waterloo. He was sent to the Island of St. Helena in South Atlantic and died there in 1821. Louis XVIII retained the French throne and France was permitted to retain the borders of 1790.

Factors that led to the Defeat of Napoleon

It is just not possible to point out every factor that resulted in Napoleon's defeat. However, among the main causes of his defeat, the following can be pointed out:

- Napoleon never had adequate naval power. Even after the Battle of Trafalgar, the Royal Navy, which was dominant for many years before, was almost unchallenged. Napoleon's lack of sea power meant that the French danger of invasion to Britain was done away with.
- Without sufficient naval power, Napoleon's Continental System had several loopholes. This system became a far greater burden to the nations that fell under Napoleon's control instead of to Britain, whose natural resources backed her wealth and authority to increase quickly during these years, in spite of her considerable losses to privateers and the numerous bankruptcies.

- Napoleon's catastrophic Moscow campaign of 1812 had its origins in Alexander's denial to carry on his support of the Continental System in his effort to manage the whole coastline of Europe.
- Thereafter, Napoleon attacked both Spain and Portugal. He misjudged the national resistance to him in both these countries.
- He also made a serious miscalculation after British forces had entered Portugal under Wellesley in 1808. British sea power was once again of vital significance in this case.
- The Battle of Talavera (1809) was a conquest of united British and Spanish army, followed by Fuentes de Onoro, 1811 and Salamanca, 1812. The French never recovered from these defeats.
- Nationalism had its maximum support from the middle class Europeans which was unfavourably affected by Napoleon's taxation and Continental System.
- After 1807, Napoleon's judgment declined; for instance, he believed that Moscow was the heart of Russia and that to confine it would result in Russian defeat. This was of course proven wrong.

Impact of Napoleon

There are very few examples of men who have dominated an age; Napoleon is one of them. He had many characteristics that made him great, such as:

- He was charismatic.
- He was a master psychologist and politician.
- He was ambitious to the point of self-destruction.

He started wars that resulted in vast devastation and a new political order. He shaped his times, but was also a product of his times as he went with the currents of his respective history and adeptly diverted those currents to suit his own requirements. However, he ultimately failed in his venture.

To a great extent, Napoleon's career was the outcome of the military and political forces, which he obtained from the Revolution and mended for his own aims. In military affairs, he was lucky to take over the military improvements that came into fashion during the French Revolution such as mass conscription, which made feasible the use of block tactics to attack in column and get rid of the need for supply lines, thus making French armies highly mobile. Therefore, the two main features of Napoleonic warfare—massed firepower and mobility—were previously present when he began his career. However, it was Napoleon's brilliance that knew how to use them efficiently in his first Italian campaign against the Austrians.

Politically, France had suffered a complete decade of revolutionary chaos by 1799, rendering the government unsteady and corrupt. Church policies were disliked, principally since they had triggered uncontrolled inflation. People were sick of this chaos and desired a more stable government that would render their lives more secure. Thus, the interaction of military innovations that made Napoleon a national hero and the desire for a strong, secure government that Napoleon assured resulted in his seizure of power in 1799. More military victories against the Austrians in Italy permitted him to strengthen his position of power and he declared himself the emperor of France in 1804.

Napoleon was also a very active administrator. His internal reforms did a great deal in consolidating a few accomplishments of the French Revolution and suppressing

Self-Instructional

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others. One way to review his government of France is to look at how it conformed to the revolutionary motto: 'Liberty, fraternity (i.e., nationalism), and equality'. For political and civil liberties, Napoleon mainly suppressed them with firm censorship and the organization of a virtual police state to protect his authority.

However, Napoleon saw equality as a politically practical idea that he could keep up with little threat to his power. After all, everyone, at least all men, were equally under his power. One of his main achievements as a ruler was the institution of the Napoleonic Civil Law Codes, which made all men equal under the law. At the same time, these codes maintained men's legal power over women.

Napoleon saw nationalism as crucial to maintaining the faithfulness of the French people to his government. After all, it was the fortitude of nationalism that had inspired its armies in an extraordinary series of victories that had in particular benefited Napoleon and permitted his rise to power. For Napoleon, the trick was to establish a personality cult around himself so that the French people would recognize him with France itself and thus make loyalty to him comparable to the loyalty to France. Though, by identifying public loyalty with one man, Napoleon unintentionally weakened the inspiring force of nationalism and thus his own authority.

In general, Napoleon's internal policies consolidated France and permitted it to rule most of Europe after a sequence of victorious military campaigns. Naturally, he founded his style of rule in the countries he won. However, he incorrectly thought that the administrative and legal changes of the Revolution he carried to the rest of European countries could be separated from the concepts of Nationalism and Liberalism (liberty and equality) that had offered those reforms life and substance. Thus, Napoleon's imperial rule unintentionally promoted these concepts of nationalism and liberalism.

Napoleon had efficiently planted the seeds of nationalism and liberalism across Europe, and these concepts would spread in new waves of revolution by mid-century. Europeans took these concepts, along with the influential new technologies set free by the Industrial Revolution, to set up colonies all over the globe by 1900. Paradoxically, these European powers, like Napoleon became victims to the power of these concepts when their subjects used them in their own freedom struggles after the Second World War.

Check Your Progress

4. Fill in the blanks.
 - (a) The Revolution and the Napoleonic Era were the periods of rapid political and social changes.
 - (b) In 1800, Napoleon and his troops crossed over the Alps and entered into _____.
5. State whether the following statements are true/false.
 - (a) Napoleon faced a revolt in Haiti.
 - (b) Napoleon was a very active administrator.

CONGRESS OF VIENNA

The immediate background to the Congress of Vienna was the defeat of France and surrender of Napoleon in May 1814. This brought an end to the twenty-five years of war. Napoleon's eastward march to Russia spelled his doom. The strong French army of 4,22,000 soldiers was left to die in the harsh winter of Russia in 1812. Though Napoleon managed to return home with 30,000 troops, Paris was lost in 1814 and Napoleon had to flee.

The Allies (Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain) began negotiations and realignment of European territories even though Napoleon made a dramatic return to rule France for a Hundred Days (March–July, 1815). The Congress signed the Final Act (the Second Peace of Paris) nine days before Napoleon was finally defeated at Waterloo on 18 June 1815.

The fall of Napoleon brought with it one of the most complicated and difficult situations for diplomats of the time. As all the nations of Europe had been profoundly

affected by his enterprises, all were profoundly affected by his fall. The destruction of the Napoleonic regime was followed by reconstruction of Europe. This work of reconstruction was undertaken by the Congress of Vienna, one of the most important diplomatic gatherings in the history of Europe (September 1814-June 1815). Never before had there been seen such an assemblage of celebrities. Present were the emperors of Austria and Russia, the kings of Prussia, Bavaria, Wurttemberg, Denmark, a multitude of lesser princes, and the diplomats of Europe of whom Metternich and Talleyrand were the most noticeable. All the powers were represented except Turkey.

Provisions—Work of the Congress

The main task of the Congress was the distribution of the territories that France had been forced to relinquish. Certain arrangements had been agreed upon by the allies before going to Vienna in the First Treaty of Paris, 30 May 1814. The King of Piedmont, a refugee in his island of Sardinia during Napoleon's reign, returned to his throne, and Genoa was returned to him. There was a general understanding that the doctrine of legitimacy should be followed in determining the re-arrangement of Europe. That is to say, the principle that princes deprived of their thrones and driven from their states by Napoleon should be restored. However, this principle was ignored according to the suitability of the allied powers.

Demands of Russia

The allies, who had, after immense effort and sacrifice, overthrown Napoleon, felt they should have their reward. The most powerful monarch at Vienna was Alexander I, Emperor of Russia, who, ever since Napoleon's disastrous invasion of Russia, had loomed large as a liberator of Europe. He now demanded that the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, whose government fell with Napoleon, be given back to him. This state had been created out of Polish territories which Prussia and Austria had seized in the partitions of that country at the close of the 18th century. Alexander wished to unite them with a part of Poland that had fallen to Russia, thus, largely to restore the old Polish kingdom and nationality, to which he intended to give a parliament and a constitution. There was to be no incorporation of the restored kingdom in Russia, but the Russian emperor was to be the King of Poland. The union was to be merely personal.

Demands of Prussia

Prussia was willing to give up her Polish provinces on the condition that she should be indemnified elsewhere. She, therefore, fixed her attention upon the rich kingdom of Saxony with important cities of Dresden and Leipzig, as compensation. Russia and Prussia supported each other's claims, but Austria, England and France opposed them stoutly. The latter even agreed to go to war to prevent the aggrandizement of the two northern nations. It was this dissension among those who had conquered him that caused Napoleon to think that the opportunity was favourable for his return from Elba. But, however jealous the allies were of each other, they, one and all, hated Napoleon and were firmly resolved to be rid of him. They had no desire for more war and consequently quickly compromised their differences. The final decision was that Russia should receive the lion's share of the Duchy of Warsaw, Prussia retaining only the province of Posen, and Cracow being erected into a free city; that the King of Saxony should be restored to his throne; that he should retain the important cities of Dresden and Leipzig, but should cede to Prussia about two-fifths of his kingdom; that, as further compensation, Prussia

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should receive extensive territories on both banks of the Rhine. Prussia also acquired Pomerania from Sweden, thus rounding out her coastline on the Baltic.

Russian acquisitions

Russia emerged from the Congress with a good number of additions. She retained Finland, conquered from Sweden during the late wars, and Bessarabia, wrested from the Turks, also Turkish territories in the southeast. But, most important of all, she had now succeeded in gaining most of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. Russia now extended farther westward into Europe than ever and could henceforth speak with greater weight in European affairs.

Austrian acquisitions

Austria recovered her Polish possessions and received as compensation for the Netherlands, northern Italy, to be henceforth known as the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, comprising the larger and richer part of the Po Valley. She also recovered the Illyrian provinces along the eastern coast of the Adriatic. Thus, after twenty years of war, almost uninterruptedly disastrous, she emerged with considerable accessions of strength, and with a population larger by four or five millions than she had possessed in 1792. She had obtained, in lieu of remote and unprofitable possessions, territories which augmented her power in central Europe, the immediate annexation of a part of Italy, and indirect control over the other Italian states.

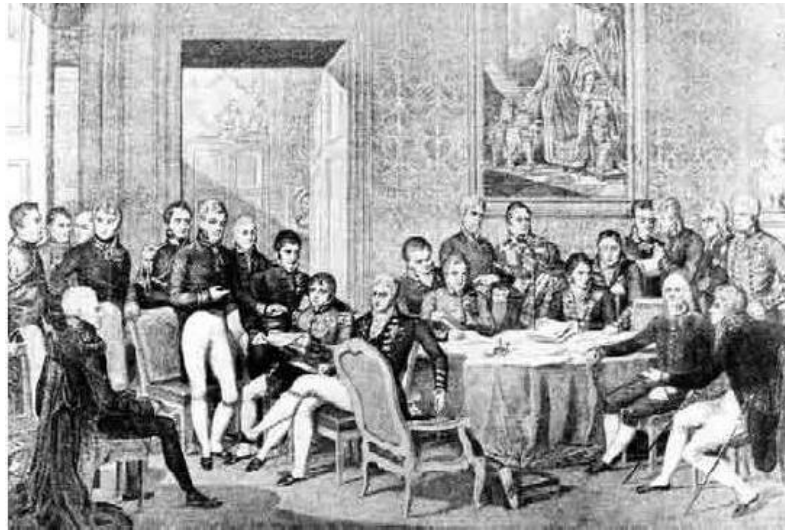


Fig. 2.11 A Portrait of the Vienna Congress

Source: <http://pub.uvm.dk/2008/democracycanon/images/figur25.jpg>

English acquisitions

England, the most persistent enemy of Napoleon, the builder of repeated coalitions, the pay-mistress of the allies for many years, found her compensation in additions to her colonial empire. She retained much that she had conquered from France or from the allies or dependencies of France, particularly Holland. She occupied Helgoland in the North Sea; Malta and Ionian Islands in the Mediterranean; Cape Colony in South Africa; Ceylon, and other islands. It was partially in view of her colonial losses that Holland was indemnified by the annexation of Belgium, as already stated.

The Map of Italy

Another question of great importance, decided at Vienna, was the disposition of Italy. The general principle of action had already been agreed upon, that Austria should receive compensation here for the Netherlands, and that the old dynasties should be restored. Austrian interests determined the territorial arrangements. Austria took possession, as has been said, of the richest and, in a military sense, the strongest provinces, Lombardy and Venetia, from which position she could easily dominate the peninsula, especially as the Duchy of Parma was given to Marie Louise, wife of Napoleon, and as princes, connected with the Austrian imperial family were restored to their thrones in Modena and Tuscany. The Papal States were also re-established.

No union or federation of these states was affected. It was Metternich's desire that Italy should simply be a collection of independent states, a geographical expression, and such it was.

Changes in the map of Europe

Other changes in the map of Europe, now made or ratified, were these:

- Norway was taken from Denmark and joined with Sweden
- Switzerland was increased by the addition of three cantons which had recently been incorporated in France, thus making twenty-two cantons in all
- The frontiers of Spain and Portugal were left untouched.



Fig. 2.12 Map of Europe.

Source: <http://edtech2.boisestate.edu/lockwoodm/FrenchRev/images/CongVien.jpg>

Character of the Congress

The Congress of Vienna was a congress of aristocrats to whom the ideas of nationality and democracy, as proclaimed by the French Revolution, were inconvenient, incomprehensible and loathsome. The rulers rearranged Europe according to their desires, disposing of it as it were their personal property, ignoring the sentiment of nationality, which had lately been so wonderfully aroused, indifferent to the wishes of the people. There could be no 'settlement' because they ignored the factors that alone would make

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the settlement permanent. The history of Europe, after 1815, was destined to witness repeated, and often successful, attempts to rectify this cardinal error of the Congress of Vienna.

Criticism of the Congress

Such were the territorial readjustments decreed by the Congress of Vienna, which were destined to endure, with slight changes, for nearly fifty years. It is impossible to discover in these negotiations the operation of any lofty principle. Self-interest is the key to this welter of bargains and agreements. Not that these titled brokers neglected to attempt to convince Europe of the nobility of their endeavours. Phrases, such as ‘the reconstruction of the social order’, ‘the regeneration of the political system of Europe’ durable peace based upon a just division of power were used by the diplomats of Vienna to impress the people of Europe, and to lend an air of dignity and elevation to their august assemblage. But the people were not deceived. They witnessed the unedifying scramble of the conquerors for the spoils of victory. They saw the monarchs of Europe, who for years had been denouncing Napoleon for not respecting the rights of people, acting precisely in the same way, whenever it suited their pleasure.

The Holy Alliance

In addition to the Treaties of Vienna, the allies signed two other documents of great significance in 1815—the Holy Alliance and the Quadruple Alliance. The former proceeded from the initiative of Alexander I of Russia, whose mood was now deeply religious under the influence of the tremendous events of recent years and the fall of Napoleon, which to his mind seemed the swift verdict of a higher power in human destinies. He himself had been freely praised as the White Angel, in contrast to the fallen Black Angel, and he had been called the Universal Saviour. He now submitted a document to his immediate allies—Prussia and Austria—which gave the popular name to the system of repression which was for many years followed by the powers that had conquered in the late campaign.

The document stated that it was the intention of the powers, henceforth, to be guided, in both their domestic and foreign policies, solely by the precepts of the Christian religion. The rulers announced that they would regard each other as brothers and their subjects as their children, and they promised to aid each other on all occasions and in all places. The other powers, thus, asked by the Emperor of Russia to express their approval of Christian principles, did so, preserving what dignity they could in playing what most of them considered a farce of questionable taste. For, knowing the principles that had actually governed the Tsar and the other rulers at the Congress of Vienna, they did not consider them particularly biblical or as likely to inaugurate a new and idyllic diplomacy in Europe. As a matter of fact no state ever made any attempt to act in accordance with the principles so highly approved. The only important thing about the Holy Alliance was its name, which was, in the opinion of all liberals, too good to be lost, so ironically did it contrast with what was known of the characters and policies of the rulers of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, the ‘holy allies’.

The Quadruple Alliance

The other document, signed on 20 November 1815, by Russia, Prussia, Austria, and England established a Quadruple Alliance providing that these powers should hold congresses from time-to-time for the purpose of considering their common interests and

the needs of Europe. The Congresses that were held during the next few years in accordance with this agreement were converted into engines of oppression everywhere largely through the adroitness of Prince Metternich, Chancellor of the Austrian Empire, whose influence upon their deliberations was decisive.

Prince Metternich (1773-1859)

Klemens Wenzel von Metternich appeared to the generation that lived between 1815 and 1848 as the most commanding personality of Europe, whose importance can be estimated from the phrases such as ‘era of Metternich’ and ‘system of Metternich’. He was the central figure not only in Austrian and German politics, but also in European diplomacy. He was the most famous statesman Austria produced in the 19th century. A man of high rank, wealthy, polished, blending social accomplishments with literary and scientific pretensions, his foible was omniscience. He was the prince of diplomatists, thoroughly at ease amid all the intriguing European politics. His egotism was Olympian. He spoke of himself as being born ‘to prop up the decaying structure’ of European society. He felt the world rested on his shoulders.



Fig. 2.13 Klemens Wenzel von Metternich

‘My position has this peculiarity’ he says, ‘that all eyes, all expectations are directed to precisely that point where I happen to be.’ He asked such questions as, ‘Why, among so many million men, must I be the one to think when others do not think, to act when others do not act, and to write because others know not how?’ He admitted at the end of a long career that he had ‘never strayed from the path of eternal law’, that his mind had ‘never entertained error’. He felt and said that he would leave a void when he disappeared.

On analysis, however, his thinking appears singularly negative. It consisted of his execration of the French Revolution. His life-long role was that of incessant opposition to everything comprehended in the word. He denounced it in violent and lurid phrases. It was ‘the disease which must be cured, the volcano which must be extinguished, the gangrene which must be burned out with the hot iron, the hydra with open jaws to

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swallow up the social order'. He believed in absolute monarchy, and considered himself God's lieutenant in supporting it. He hated parliaments and representative systems of government. He regarded the talks of liberty, equality and constitutions as pestilential. He defied himself as a man of the status quo. Keep things just as they are, all innovation is madness; such was the constant burden of his song. He was the convinced he was the resourceful opponent of all struggles for national independence and aspirations for self-government. Democracy could only 'change daylight into darkest night'. Such was the man who succeeded Napoleon in the center of the European stage.

Reaction in Europe after 1815

The Battle of Waterloo, remarked Napoleon at St. Helena, will be as dangerous to the liberties of Europe as the battle of Philippi was dangerous to the liberties of Rome. Napoleon was not exactly an authority on liberty, but he did know the difference between enlightened despotism and unenlightened.

The style was set by Austria, the leading state on the Continent from 1815 to 1848. Austria was not a single nation like France, but was composed of many races. To the west were the Austrian duchies, chiefly Germany, the ancient possessions of the House of Hapsburg; to the north, Bohemia, an ancient kingdom acquired by the Hapsburgs in 1526; to the east, the Kingdom of Hungary, occupying the immense plain of the middle Danube; to the south, beyond the Alps, the Kingdom of Lombardy-Venetia, purely Italian. The two leading races in this Austrian Empire were the Germans, forming the body of the population in the duchies, and the Magyars (modyorz), originally an Asiatic folk, encamped in the Danube valley since the 9th century and forming the dominant people in Hungary. There were many branches of the Slavic race in both Austria and Hungary. There were also Romanians in eastern Hungary.

Austria, a land of the old regime

To rule twenty-nine million people was a difficult task. This was the first problem of Francis I (1792-1835) and Metternich. Their policy was to resist all demands for reform, and to keep things as they were, to make the world stand still. The people were sharply divided into classes, each resting on different factors. Of these, the nobles occupied a highly privileged position. They enjoyed freedom from compulsory military service and got enormous exemptions from taxation, a monopoly of the best offices in the state. They possessed a large part of the land, from which in many cases they drew enormous revenues. On the other hand, the condition of the peasants, who formed the mass of the people, lived in deplorable conditions. They even refused the right to purchase relief from the heaviest burdens. Condition of Austria in 1815 was that of absolutism in government, feudalism in society, special privileges for the favoured few, and oppression and misery for the masses.

The police system

It was the purpose of the government to maintain status quo, and it succeeded largely for thirty-three years, during the reign of Francis I, till 1835, and of his successor Ferdinand I (1835-1848). During this period, Metternich was the chief minister. His system, 'at war with human nature, at war with the modern spirit', rested upon a meddling police, an elaborate espionage system, and a vigilant censorship of ideas. Censorship was applied to theatres, newspapers and books.

Spies were everywhere, in government offices, in places of amusement, and educational institutions. In education, political science and history practically disappeared as serious studies. Particularly, the government feared the universities because of new ideas. Spies even attended lectures. Professors and students were subjected to humiliating regulations. The government insisted on having a complete list of the books that each professor took out of the university library. Students were not allowed to study abroad or form societies.

Austrians were not allowed to travel to foreign countries without the permission of the government, which was rarely given. Austria was sealed as nearly hermetically as possible against the liberal thought of Europe. Intellectual stagnation was the price paid. A system like this needed careful bolstering at every moment and at every point. The best protection for the Austrian system was to extend it to other countries. Having firmly established it at home, Metternich laboured with great skill and temporary success to apply it in surrounding countries, particularly in Germany and in Italy.

We shall now trace the application of this conception of government in other countries. This will serve among other things to show the dominant position of the Austrian empire in Europe from 1815 to 1848. Vienna, the seat of rigid conservatism, was now the center of European affairs, as Paris, the home of revolution, had been for so long.

The German Confederation

One of the important problems presented to the Congress Vienna concerned the future organization of Germany. The Holy Roman Empire had disappeared in 1806 at the hands of Napoleon. The Confederation of the Rhine, which he had created to take its place, had disappeared with its creator. Something must evidently be put in its place. The outcome of the deliberations was the establishment of the German Confederation, which was the government of Germany from 1815 to 1866. The Confederation consisted of thirty-eight states. The central organ of the government was the Diet, meeting at Frankfort. This was to consist, not of representatives chosen by the people, but of delegates appointed by different sovereigns and serving during their pleasure. They were to be, not deputies empowered to decide questions, but simply diplomatic representatives, voting as their princes might direct. Austria was always to have the presidency of this body. The method of procedure within the Diet was complicated and exceedingly cumbrous, making action difficult, delay and obstruction easy. The Confederation did not constitute a real nation, but only a loose league of independent states. The states agreed not to make war upon each other, and that was about the only serious obligation they assumed.

The Confederation was a union of princes, not of people. It was created because each prince was jealous of every other prince, and was far more concerned with the preservation of his own power than with the prosperity of Germany. Now the spirit of nationality had been tremendously aroused by the struggles with Napoleon. All the more progressive spirits felt that the first need of Germany was unity and a strong national government. But German unity was, according to Metternich, an 'infamous object', and Metternich was supported by the selfishness of the German rulers; not one of whom was willing to surrender any particle of his authority. Intense was the indignation of all liberals at what they called this 'great deception' of Vienna.

Disappointment of the Liberals

The liberals desired unity, they also desired liberty. They wished a constitution for each one of the thirty-eight states; they wished a parliament in each; and they also wished to

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have the reign of absolutism brought to a close. Metternich, even more opposed to free political institutions than to a strong central government, succeeded in thwarting the reformers at this point too. The latter were put off with only vague and doubtful promises, which were never realized, save in the case of a few of the smaller states.

Metternich's programme was to secure the prevalence in Germany on the same principles that prevailed in Austria, and in this he largely succeeded. Certain incidents of the day gave him favourable occasions to apply the system of repression. Repression according to him was the only sure cure for the ills of this world. One of these was a patriotic festival held in 1817 at the Wartburg, a castle famous in connection with the career of Martin Luther. This was a celebration organized by the students of the German universities and it expressed the vigorous liberalism of the students, their detestation of reaction and reactionaries. Sometime later, a student killed a journalist and playwright, Kotzebue (Kcot—so-bo), who was hated within the university circles as a Russian spy. These and other occurrences played perfectly into the hands of Metternich, who was seeking the means of establishing reaction in Germany as it had been established in Austria. He secured the passage by the frightened princes of the famous Carlsbad Decrees (1819).

Through their provisions, Metternich became the virtual controller of the Confederation. These decrees were the work of Austria, seconded by Prussia. They signified in German history the suppression of liberty for a generation. They really determined the political system of Germany until 1848. They provided for a vigorous censorship of the press, and subjected the professors and students of the universities to close government supervision. All teachers who should propagate 'harmful doctrines', that is, who should in any way criticize Metternich's ideas of government, should be removed from their positions, and once so removed, could not be appointed to any other positions in Germany.

The student associations were suppressed. Any student expelled from one university was not to be admitted into any other. By these provisions it was expected that the entire academic community, professors and students, would be reduced to silence. Another provision was directed against the establishment of any further constitutions of a popular character. Thus, free parliaments, freedom of the press, freedom of teaching, and free speech were outlawed.

Reaction in Germany

The Carlsbad Decrees represent an important turning point in the history of Central Europe. They signalized the dominance of Metternich in Germany as well as in Austria. Prussia now docilely followed Austrian leadership, abandoning all liberal policies. The King, Frederick William III, had, in his hour of need, promised a constitution to Prussia. He never kept this promise. On the other hand, he inaugurated a peculiarly odious persecution of all liberals, which was marked by many acts as inane as they were cruel. Prussia entered upon a dull, drab period of oppression.

Restoration in Spain

In 1808 Napoleon had, as we have seen, seized the crown of Spain, and until 1814 had kept the Spanish King, Ferdinand VII, virtually a prisoner in France, placing his own brother Joseph on the vacant throne. The Spaniards rose against the usurper and for years carried on a vigorous guerrilla warfare, aided by the English and ended finally in success. As their King was in the hands of enemy, they proceeded in his name to frame

a government. Being liberal-minded, they drew up a constitution, the famous Constitution of 1812, which was closely modeled on the French Constitution of 1791. It asserted the sovereignty of the people, thus discarding the rival theory of monarchy by divine right which had hitherto been the accepted basis of the Spanish state. This democratic document, however, did not have long life as Ferdinand, on his return to Spain after the overthrow of Napoleon, immediately suppressed it and embarked upon a policy of angry reaction. The press was gagged. Books of a liberal character were destroyed wherever found, and particularly all copies of the constitution. Thousands of political prisoners were severely punished.

Vigorous and efficient in stamping out all liberal ideas, the government of Ferdinand was indolent and incompetent in other matters. Spain, a country of about eleven million people, was wretchedly poor and ignorant. The government, however, made no attempt to improve the conditions. Moreover, it failed to discharge the most fundamental duty of any government, that is, to preserve the integrity of the empire. The Spanish colonies in America had been for several years in revolt against the mother country, and the government had made no serious efforts to put down the rebellion.

Revolution in Spain (1820)

Such conditions, of course, aroused great discontent. The army particularly was angry at the treatment it had received and became a breeding place of conspiracies. A military uprising occurred in 1820 which swept everything before it and forced the King to restore the Constitution of 1812 and to promise, henceforth, to govern in accordance with its provisions. The text of the constitution was posted in every city, and parish priests were ordered to expound it to their congregations.

Thus, revolution had triumphed again, and only five years after Waterloo, an absolute monarchy, based on divine right, had been changed into a constitutional monarchy based on the sovereignty of the people. Would the example be followed elsewhere? Would the Holy Alliance look on in silence? Had the revolutionary spirit been so carefully smothered in Austria, Germany, and France, only to blaze forth in outlying sections of Europe? Answers to these questions were forthcoming.

Italy, a Geographical Expression

After the fall of Napoleon, the Congress of Vienna restored most of the old states which had existed before he first came into Italy. There were, henceforth, ten of them—Piedmont, Lombardy-Venetia, Parma, Modena, Lucca, Tuscany, the Papal States, Naples, Monaco, and San Marino. Genoa and Venice, until recently independent republics, were not restored, as republics were not ‘fashionable’. The one was given to Piedmont, the other to Austria.

These states were too small to be self-sufficient, and as a result Italy was dependent on Austria. Austria was given outright the richest part of the Po Valley as a Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Austrian princes or princesses ruled over the duchies of Modena, Parma, and Tuscany, and were easily brought into the Austrian system. Thus, was Austria the master of northern Italy; master of southern Italy, too, for Ferdinand, King of Naples, made an offensive and defensive treaty with Austria, pledging himself to make no separate alliances and to grant no liberties to his subjects beyond those which obtained in Lombardy and Venetia. Naples was, thus, a satellite in the great Austrian system. The King of Piedmont and the Pope were the only Italian princes at all likely to be intractable. And Austria’s strength in comparison with theirs was that of a

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giant compared with that of pygmies. Italy was notoriously reduced to a geographical expression.

Reactionary policies of the Italian princes

Italy again became a collection of small states, largely under the dominance of Austria. None of the states had a parliament. There was neither unity nor any semblance of popular participation in the government. Following the restoration, the princes became absolute monarchs. They did little to hide the hatred for the French and made all efforts to extinguish any sign of their presence. They abolished all constitutions and laws, and institutions of French origin. Vaccination and gas illumination were forbidden for the simple reason that the French had introduced them. In Piedmont, French plants in the Botanic Gardens of Turin were torn up. French furniture in the royal palace was destroyed in response to this vigorous and infantile emotion. In every one of the states, there was distinct retrogression, and the Italians lost ground all along the line—politically, industrially, socially. In most, the Inquisition was restored. Education was handed over to the clergy. The course of studies was carefully purged of everything that might be dangerous. The police paid particular attention to ‘the class called thinkers’.

Thus, Italy was ruled by petty despots with petty spirits. Moreover, most of the princes took their cue from Austria, the nature of whose policies we have already examined. The natural result of such conditions was deep and widespread discontent. The discontented joined the Carbonari, a secret society, and bided their time.

In 1820, a revolution broke out in Italy. It started with military insurrection in Naples. The revolutionists demanded the establishment of the Spanish Constitution of 1812, not because they knew much about it but because it was democratic. The king immediately yielded, and the constitution was proclaimed.

Critical Estimate

Thus, in 1820, the Revolution, hated by the diplomats of 1815, resumed the offensive. Spain and Naples overthrew the regimes that had been in force for five years, and had adopted constitutions that were thoroughly saturated with the principles of Revolutionary France. There was likewise a revolution against the established regime in Portugal. There was shortly to be one in Piedmont.

Metternich, the most influential person in Europe, who felt the world resting on his shoulders, had very clear views as to the requirements of the situation that had arisen. Anything that threatened the peace of Europe was a very proper thing for a European congress to discuss. A revolution in one country may encourage a revolution in another, and thus the world, set in order by the Congress of Vienna, may soon find itself in conflagration once more, the established order everywhere threatened. By a series of international congresses, at Troppau, Laibach, and Verona (1820-1822), Metternich was able to secure the official condemnation of these revolutions in Italy and Spain and then to have armies sent into those peninsulas, which speedily restored the old system, more odious than ever.

Thousands were imprisoned, exiled, executed. Arbitrary government of the worst kind and thirsty for revenge was meted out to the unfortunate peoples. Needless to say, Metternich was quite satisfied.

‘I see the dawn of a better day,’ he wrote. Heaven seems to will it that the world shall not be lost. The Holy Alliance, by these triumphs in Naples, Piedmont, and Spain,

showed itself the dominant force in European politics. The system, named after Metternich, because his diplomacy had built it up and because he stood in the very center of it, seemed firmly established as the European system. But it had achieved its last notable triumph. It was now to receive a series of checks which were to limit it forever.

Having restored absolutism in Spain, the Holy Allies considered restoring to Spain her revolted American colonies. In this purpose, they encountered the pronounced opposition of England and the United States, both of which were willing that Spain herself should try to recover them but not that the Holy Alliance should recover them for her. As England controlled the seas she could prevent the Alliance from sending troops to the scene of revolt. The President of the United States, James Monroe, in a message to Congress (2 December 1823), destined to become one of the most famous documents ever written in the White House, announced that we should consider any attempt on the part of these absolute monarchs to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety, as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States. This attitude of England and the United States produced its effect. After this no new laurels were added to the Holy Alliance. A few years later Russia was herself encouraging and supporting a revolution on the part of the Greeks against the Turks, and in 1830 revolutions broke out in France and Belgium which demolished the system of Metternich beyond all possible repairs.

SUMMARY

- Napoleon Bonaparte (15 August 1769 – 5 May 1821) was a French military and political leader during the latter stages of the French Revolution. As Napoleon I, he was Emperor of the French from 1804 to 1815.
- Napoleon was a great leader. He stabilized the national budget and set up the Bank of France. He controlled prices, began public works to put people to work and supported new industry.
- Napoleon promulgated a series of new legal codes to standardize the legal system. The most significant was the Civil Code or Code Napoleon published in 1806.
- Napoleon centralized the government machinery, putting control decisively in the hands of the national government. It became well-organized. Development in the civil service and the military was based on merit instead of rank. Taxes were applied to all evenly. In the war against Russia in 1812, Napoleon was defeated and thus began a change in his fortunes.
- In March 1815, he escaped from exile on the Island of Elba and most Frenchmen rallied for him. The European powers again allied against him and overwhelmed him at the Battle of Waterloo. He was sent to the Island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic and died there in 1821.
- In general, Napoleon's internal policies consolidated France and permitted it to rule most of Europe after a sequence of victorious military campaigns.
- Napoleon had efficiently planted the seeds of nationalism and liberalism across Europe, and these concepts would spread in new waves of revolution by mid-century.

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- The immediate background to the Congress of Vienna was the defeat of France and surrender of Napoleon in May 1814. This brought an end to twenty-five years of war.
- The destruction of the Napoleonic regime was followed by reconstruction of Europe. This work of reconstruction was undertaken by the Congress of Vienna, one of the most important diplomatic gatherings in the history of Europe (September 1814-June 1815). The allies, who had, after immense effort and sacrifice, overthrown Napoleon, felt they should have their reward.
- The most powerful monarch at Vienna was Alexander I, Emperor of Russia, who, ever since Napoleon's disastrous invasion of Russia, had loomed large as a liberator of Europe.
- The Congress of Vienna was a congress of aristocrats to whom the ideas of nationality and democracy, as proclaimed by the French Revolution, were inconvenient, incomprehensible and loathsome.
 - In addition to the Treaties of Vienna, the allies signed two other documents of great significance in 1815—the Holy Alliance and the Quadruple Alliance.
 - The other document, signed on 20 November 1815, by Russia, Prussia, Austria, and England established a Quadruple Alliance providing that these powers should hold congresses from time-to-time for the purpose of considering their common interests and the needs of Europe.
 - It was the purpose of the Italian government to maintain status quo, and it succeeded largely for thirty-three years, during the reign of Francis I, till 1835, and of his successor Ferdinand I (1835-1848).
 - The German Confederation was a union of princes, not of peoples. Metternich became the virtual controller of the Confederation.
 - After the fall of Napoleon, the Congress of Vienna restored most of the old states which had existed before he first came into Italy. Italy again became a collection of small states, largely under the dominance of Austria. None of the states had parliament. Thus, Italy was ruled by petty despots with petty spirits. Moreover, most of the princes took their cue from Austria, the nature of whose policies we have already examined.
 - Having restored absolutism in Spain, the Holy Allies considered restoring to Spain her revolted American colonies.

KEY TERMS

- **Coup:** It refers to a sudden overthrow of government that is illegal and often violent.
- **Guerrilla:** It refers to a member of a small group of soldiers who are not part of an official army and who fight against official soldiers, usually to try to change the government.
- **Carlsbad decrees:** These were a set of reactionary restrictions introduced in the states of the German Confederation by resolution of the Bundesversammlung on 20 September 1819 after a conference held in the spa town of Carlsbad, Bohemia.
- **Carbonari:** They were groups of secret revolutionary societies founded in early 19th century Italy.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. England retained much that she had conquered from France or from the allies or dependencies of France, particularly Holland. She occupied Helgoland in the North Sea; Malta and Ionian Islands in the Mediterranean; Cape Colony in South Africa; Ceylon, and other islands. It was partially in view of her colonial losses that Holland was indemnified by the annexation of Belgium, as already stated.
6. The Quadruple Alliance was an alliance signed between England, Russia, Austria and Prussia on 20 November 1815 which said these powers should hold congresses from time-to-time for the purpose of considering their common interests and the needs of Europe.
7. Congress of Vienna restored most of the old states such as Piedmont, Lombardy-Venetia, Parma, Modena, Lucca, Tuscany, the Papal States, Naples, Monaco, and San Marino. Genoa and Venice, until recently independent republics, were not restored, as republics were not fashionable.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. State the factors that led to the reforms and foreign policy implemented by Napoleon.
2. How fairly did Napoleon perform as the First Consul and the emperor?
3. What is the impact of Napoleon on the world?
4. What was the character of the Congress of Vienna?
6. Write a note on the Spanish Constitution of 1812.
7. Why were the Holy Alliance and the Quadruple Alliance formed?
8. State Metternich's role after the fall of Napoleon.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Assess the early life and career of Napoleon.
2. What was the impact of the French Revolution on Napoleon's career? Describe the relations between Napoleon and the French state.
3. Explain the factors that led to the change in Napoleon's fortune due to the invasion of Russia.
4. Describe the reactionary policies of the Italian princes.
5. Describe the ways in which conservative political and social views shaped the peace settlement of the Congress of Vienna.
6. What is Metternich's historical significance?
7. Describe the government of Austria after 1815. What was the German Confederation?
8. Why were the Liberals of Germany disappointed with the work of the Congress of Vienna?
9. What was the course of events in Germany after 1815? What were the Carlsbad Decrees?

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UNIT V RISE OF NATION STATES

Structure

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 Mazzini, Cavour, Austrian War and the Italian Unification
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INTRODUCTION

The socialist and labour movements in Britain, France, Germany and other countries in Europe were linked to the French Revolution, which was in fact influenced by the American Revolution. Napoleon, the 'Child of Revolution', had promoted the concepts of nationalism and liberalism across Europe. These factors were mainly responsible for the unification of Italy and the then Germany. Before the unification, these countries were divided into small principalities, which were often at war with each other. Their disintegration had exhausted the national resources of these countries. In addition, powerful European countries, such as Russia, France and Great Britain, by exploiting the state of chaos, always posed as constant threats for these disintegrated countries. Thus, the unification was an 'event in waiting'.

Due to its proximity to the European continent, the Ottoman Empire did not remain unaffected due to the outcomes of the influential wars among the European powers. In addition, the events and political instability within the empire itself rendered it in the middle of the complex affairs. These causes prepared a fertile ground for the clashes between the Ottoman Empire and the European powers.

In this unit, we discuss first the unification of Italy and then the unification of Germany, the factors hampering unification in these two countries, impact of the French Revolution on the unification, role of leadership and wars fought for the unification. In addition, we also discuss the impact of the unification on the future events in the European continent. In this unit, you will also read about the status of the Ottoman Empire at the beginning of the 19th century, the Greek War of Independence, British ascendancy over Turkish Sultan, Russian suggestion for dismemberment of Turkey, Crimean War, Russo-Turkish War and the Treaty of Berlin.

Self-Instructional

UNIT OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the process of unification of Italy
- Describe the process of the unification of Germany
- Assess the status of the Ottoman Empire at the beginning of the 19th century
- Analyse events such as the Greek War of Independence and British ascendancy over the Turkish Sultan
- Explain the events of the Treaty of Berlin

ITALY

Excavations have supported the claim that human preserve dating back to the Palaeolithic Age were unearthed in Italy. In pre-Roman days, Italy was an amalgamation of smaller tribes, fighting with each other over capturing of land. In the 7th and 8th centuries, Greece had taken over a major part of Italy which came to be known as Magna Graecia. Later, Italy was annexed by Napoleon. Italy emerged as a united country after the downfall of Napoleon. During 15th–19th centuries, European kingdoms were fighting to annex the small kingdom of Italy. Napoleon I succeeded in his effort and annexed it. However, his annexation led to the development of patriotic sentiments and put forth the concept of independence. Thereafter, the Italians made severe efforts to unify their country. Figure 3.1 shows Italy before its unification.



Fig. 3.1 Italy before Unification (1815)

However, after the downfall of Napoleon I in 1815, Vienna disintegrated Italy, and once again, the heirs of old royal families were reinstated as the rulers of these small

kingdoms. A few of these rulers were autocratic in nature. New princes restarted their former oppressive policies. Paradoxically, this gave the momentum for democratic and nationalist ideas to evolve among the people. Because of the stringent censorship of the press, they established secret societies. Among these societies, the Carbonari (the charcoal buyers) was the most significant. Its main objective was the exclusion of foreigners and the attainment of constitutional freedom. Its members belonged to all classes of the society. According to distinguished authors Grant and Temperley, 'Secret societies were formed everywhere to work for the union of Italy.'

Due to fear, the rulers of Naples and Piedmont began to establish liberal rule. Austria quelled the revolts and re-established liberal rule. The members of the Carbonari rebelled in 1830 and 1840, but could not succeed in their attempts at this stage.

Factors Hampering the Italian Unification

Italy could not achieve unification until 1870 on account of a number of factors, viz.:

- (i) The hostility of Papacy towards Italian units
- (ii) Rule of a foreign power in northern Italy and of a dynasty of a foreign origin in the south
- (iii) The lack of wealth and industrial potentialities, which helped the growth of nationalism in Italy
- (iv) A weak middle class

In short, we can say that despite having excellent natural resources and coastal boundary, common historical traditions and language, Italy failed to achieve national unification on account of persistent struggle between the Pope and the Emperor; the multiplicity of sovereignties; seemingly insurmountable social differences between north and south; an unwillingness of Rome, Milan, Venice, Florence and Naples to sacrifice their glorious past for the sake of national integration.

Impact of the French Revolution

The French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars which followed it, provided a fillip to Italian nationalism and greatly contributed towards the development of a sense of unity. Italians were highly inspired by the French revolutionary ideas and strongly resisted external interference in their national life.

In contrast, Napoleon promoted the idea of national unification by uniting various kingdoms of Italy and creating a Republic of Italy. However, these achievements proved only temporary and as soon as Napoleon's defeat took place, Italy was again disintegrated into several small units and the successors of the old royal families were again seated on the thrones of these tiny kingdoms.

Some of these rulers deliberately ignored the interests of the people under them and acted in an autocratic manner. After some time, two Italian provinces, Lombardy and Venetia, were annexed to the Austrian Empire. The smaller kingdoms of Tuscany, Parma and Modena were divided among the princes of Austria. Victor Emmanuel and Pope were seated on the thrones of Savoy and Rome respectively.

But the Italians, who had been greatly inspired by the ideals of liberty, equality and fraternity of the French Revolution, could not reconcile themselves to this situation. This led to the formation of the Carbonari, a secret society, for the liberation of Italy from the clutches of the foreigners. However, the various secret societies did not work

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in cooperation with one another. Despite this, several rulers of Italy abandoned their autocratic rule and adopted liberal attitude towards the people.

Mazzini, Cavour, Austrian War and the Italian Unification

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A chain of political and military events that united the Italian peninsula under the Kingdom of Italy in 1861 is known as the Unification of Italy. Its various phases are as follows:

- Pre-revolutionary phase
- Revolutionary phase: Role and contribution of Mazzini
- Cavour's policy and the role of Piedmont
- Garibaldi's campaign in Southern Italy
- War with Austria: Creation of the Italian Kingdom

(i) Pre-revolutionary phase

After the defeat of Napoleon for the second time, major powers met at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Limits were set on nations so that no nation could become too strong to be a threat. This was done mainly to curb the power of France. The territories won by Napoleon were divided too. The Congress returned rule of the Italian Peninsula to Austria. Lombardy and Venice were occupied by Austria, which had a great influence over the other states of Italy. Kingdom of Sardinia remained independent controlling Piedmont, Nice, Savoy and Genoa.

Some of the things that conflicted and interfered with the unification process were: Austrian control of Lombardy and Venice, several independent Italian states, the autonomy of the Papal States and the limited power and influence of Italian leaders.

(ii) Revolutionary phase: Role and contribution of Mazzini

While the masses showed no concern in the unification process, the aristocrats, intellectuals and upper middle class showed enormous involvement. Some formed secret societies for the cause, namely the Carbonari. The cause grew in dimension, though people asked for more rights from their respective governments. The Carbonari were involved in many revolutions, which never tasted success. They were against the Kingdom of Two Sicilies, the Kingdom of Sardinia, Bologna and other Italian states. The Austrian Empire suppressed the revolutions ruthlessly and earned the resentment of the Italians.



Fig. 3.2 Giuseppe Mazzini

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Giuseppe Mazzini (Figure 3.2), the soul and spirit of the Carbonari, wanted a united Italy, besides a republican form of government. He created Young Italy in 1831, a syndicate for the purpose of spreading the ideas of unification, revolutions and republicanism, and brought the campaign of unification into the mainstream. Pius IX, a liberal Pope, was elected and he enforced several reforms. Though the other states followed these, they were inadequate for unification. Europe experienced a wave of revolutions in the states of France, Germany, the Austrian Empire and northern Italy. This series of revolts was known as the Revolution of 1848.

In the Kingdom of Two Sicilies revolution broke out and the king signed a constitution. In the Papal States, rebels took over Rome and the Pope fled. In the absence of the Pope, Garibaldi and Mazzini created the Roman Republic. King Charles Albert of Piedmont sent his nationals to Lombardy to fight for freedom from Austrian rule. France sent troops to Rome and had the young Roman Republic destroyed. King Charles lost Piedmont to Austria and had to renounce the crown. His son, Victor Emmanuel II became king in 1849. In 1852, Count Camillo di Cavour was elected the Prime Minister of Piedmont. He proved to be very effective and by using all the political and military tricks, he made the dream of independence come true.

Contribution of Mazzini to Italian Unification

Mazzini is often described as the Prophet of 19th century nationalism. He was one of the three great architects of Italian Unification (the other two being Garibaldi and Cavour). He had a nationalist feeling from his childhood days and began to visualize a united Italy.

He impressed on the people that the whole of the Peninsula, though divided by artificial political barriers, was a living unity with a common heritage of traditions and historic memories. As a youth, he joined Carbonari's revolutionary organization with a view to work for Italy's unification. He participated in a revolt in 1830, which was inspired by the French Revolution and was consequently imprisoned.

While in prison, Mazzini realized that the country could not be liberated by following the principles of Carbonari and it was vital to charge the Italian youth with sentiments of patriotism, sacrifice, moral character, etc., to attain Italy's national emancipation. In 1831, he founded the society known as Young Italy, with its branches all over Italy.

This society propagated republican and nationalist ideas through education and insurrection and tried to cultivate a spirit of self-sacrifice among the Italian youth. It may be noted that Mazzini did not favour foreign help for the emancipation of Italy.

Mazzini organized a number of risings in different parts of Italy, especially Milan and Lombardy, and succeeded in expelling the Austrians. He also organized successful revolts against the people who took to flight and Mazzini set up a Republic with himself as its president.

However, the Roman Republic did not last long because as it was defeated by Napoleon III who had sent an army which defeated Mazzini and destroyed the Roman Republic. Mazzini was forced to fly to America and ultimately died in foreign land in 1872.

The main contribution of Mazzini to the cause of Italian unification was that he succeeded in impressing on the Italians that the liberation and unification of Italy was not an impossible dream, but a practical ideal, capable of realization.

He converted a large number of Italians to his way of thinking and fired them with a missionary spirit to die for the cause of Italian independence and unification. It is

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true that most of the attempts made by Mazzini to attain independence for Italy ended in failure, but this does not undermine his contributions to the cause of Italy's independence. His services were in the realm of ideas and inspiration, which he injected in the body and brain of the Italian youth. His chief contribution was that he gave a definite shape to the idea of Italian nationality and converted it into a popular cause. This greatly contributed to the struggle for Italian independence and unity.

According to the author on Italian unification Lipson, 'Mazzini deserves all the honour due to a pioneer whose life was devoted to the pursuit of a great ideal. His propaganda broadened the political horizon of Italians and created a vigorous public opinion in the favour of national independence. Mazzini, therefore, holds an imperishable place amongst the makers of modern Italy.'

Again, in both the countries, the display of high degree of diplomacy through leadership was a contributory factor in this unification. Finally, in both the countries, the unification was achieved through a series of successful wars.

(iii) Cavour's policy and the role of Piedmont

Piedmont (Kingdom of Sardinia) was administered quiet efficiently by Camillo di Cavour (Figure 3.3) after he became the prime minister in 1852. He was able to unite Italy in a short time using war, trickery, political dexterity and by putting powers against each other. Though Piedmont was a small state, it had substantial influence due to its military strength, conservative philosophy and a devoted and admirable political leader. Victor Emmanuel II ruled in accordance with the parliament without any internal conflicts. Commerce and industry flourished due to its elasticity. In many areas, he started trading with Austria and gained commercial treaties. The Government found favour with the public and further with the appointment of Cavour. Cavour felt that Piedmont being strong and influential should effect the unification. With this view, he encouraged the people to participate in the government. Very skillfully he used the press and the government and started to change the public opinion. A strong nation needed railroads, economic freedom, steady financial status and a higher standard of living. He spread the propaganda of Italian unity under Victor Emmanuel II with the public on his side.



Fig. 3.3 Camillo di Cavour

France, a traditional enemy of Austria, and Napoleon III felt that any loss of Austrian influence would be good. Cavour needed the help of a strong ally and France readily offered it. So both the leaders met secretly at a French spa Plombieres.

It was decided that Piedmont would create trouble in one of the territories in Austrian control making Austria to go to war against Piedmont. France agreed to help Piedmont in fighting the war in exchange for Nice and Savoy. The war broke out in 1859 between Piedmont and Austria. The plan was carried out and forces of Piedmont and France defeated Austria at Magenta and Solferino. More Italian states wanted to join Piedmont under one nation. Prussia started moving forces to defend Austria. This frightened Napoleon III as Prussia had a great influence in France and more Italian states sought for unification under Prussia than expected. Lombardy was given to Piedmont as a result of war, and it acquired a greater size after the political maneuvering.

(iv) Garibaldi's campaign in Southern Italy

In early 1860, volunteers in Genoa started an expedition to Sicily. They were neither helped, nor hindered by Cavour. Thousands of soldiers from Romagna, Lombardy and Venetia set sail for Sicily in May 1860. This expedition found great favour with the public. The red soldiers of Garibaldi (Figure 3.4), though less skilled and equipped, proved to be a great success and two Sicilies, which was suffering under a corrupt government, was captured within two months. Garibaldi focused on mainland Italy. Cavour knew that if Rome was attacked, France and Austria would immediately help the Pope and defeat the opposition and the agenda of unification would be discredited. Cavour acted swiftly and encouraged riots and revolts in the Papal States. Piedmont's troops marched into the states in the pretext of a peace-keeping force. In 1860, with two-thirds of Papal States joining hands with Piedmont, Rome was isolated. Piedmontese army bypassed Rome and the remaining Papal States and marched south. On 18 September 1860, Garibaldi gave up his command and shook hands with King Victor Emmanuel II and the kingdom of Italy was formed.



Fig. 3.4 Garibaldi

(v) War with Austria: Creation of the Italian kingdom

Italian kingdom did not include the whole of Italy as Venetia and Rome were notably absent from it. Rome was under Napoleon III and Venetia was occupied by the Austrian troops. Due to the Seven Weeks' War between Austria and Prussia, Venetia was annexed

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in 1856. Italy decided to join Prussia in the war and Prussia won the war and Venetia was given back to Italy.

During the war between France and Germany in 1870, Napoleon III had pulled out his troops from Rome to help in the war. The remaining Papal States and unprotected Rome were taken over by the Italian troops. Rome opted to join the Union in October 1870 and in July 1871 Rome became its capital.

The long and extremely difficult process of unification did not solve all the problems of the Union but Italy stayed focused on its new problems and made efforts to solve them. Eventually, Cavour, Garibaldi and Mazzini became the founding fathers of the Italian nation (Figure 3.5).

France, Spain and Great Britain had expanded their powers and created new states in the middle ages and in early modern period. This nation building did not take place in Italy and Germany. After nationalism in German territories and Italian Peninsula, people of these states began to create nation states in order to unite all Italians or all Germans, under one umbrella of political sovereignty. These people shared common culture and feared foreign domination at all costs.

Check Your Progress

1. Fill in the blanks.
 - (a) Napoleon promoted the idea of national unification by uniting various kingdoms of Italy and creating a _____ of Italy.
 - (b) _____ organized a number of risings in different parts of Italy, especially Milan and Lombardy.
2. State whether the following statements are true or false.
 - (a) Cavour created Young Italy in 1831.
 - (b) Victor Emmanuel II ruled in accordance with the Parliament without any internal conflicts.



Fig. 3.5 Italy after Unification (1870)

GERMANY

During the beginning of the 19th century, Germany was an enormous mosaic of states. It was a portion of the Holy Roman Empire. The two biggest states in it were established from the territorial custodies of Austria and Prussia. There were a few secondary states in northern and central Germany. There were several small states. Some were free cities and others were priestly states. The Holy Roman Emperor, who for the previous 300 years had been selected from the Hapsburg family of the Austrians, was now only a ceremonial authority. People of varied blood multiplied in Germany. The amalgamation of Rhine had previously been formed by Napoleon I. He had arranged the ground for the unification of Germany. He decreased the number of German states by joining smaller states with the larger ones. These states were combined to establish the Rhine confederation.

As the feelings of the Germans were given no heed, Napoleon's power in Germany was destabilized. In addition to this, there was also a preponderance of the diplomats like Metternich who did not tolerate liberal movements of the Germans (1815–1848). One extraordinary fact was that the Prussian Emperor had come up with a federal constitution for the people of Germany, which was exceedingly opposed by Austria. Figure 3.6 shows Germany before the unification (1815). Note that Prussia held an extensive proportion of the country.

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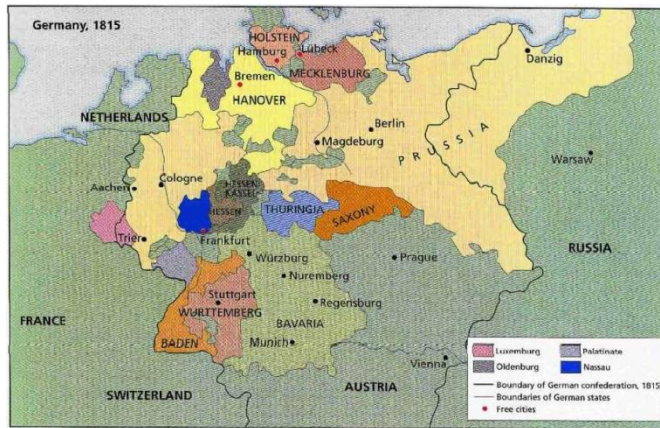


Fig. 3.6 Germany before Unification (1815)

The nationalist movement gained momentum only after 1848. The unification of Germany was the result of the policy of blood and iron pursued by Prussia in the three wars, which took place within the brief era of six years, i.e., 1864–1870. Prussia was in the favour of German unification and was opposed to Austria.

A new era started with the emergence of Otto von Bismarck (Figure 3.7) in the German history. He was made the chancellor of Germany. He did not allow Austria to assume the leadership of Germany. He worked hard for the unification of Germany with the help of the supportive leadership of Prussia. Bismarck established good relations with France and Russia. This was not liked by Austria. His policy of blood and iron was the most successful strategy at that time. He completed the unification of Germany and crowned the Prussian King as the Emperor of Germany. However, for this to happen, he had no option but to wage three wars, with Austria, France and Denmark.



Fig. 3.7 Otto von Bismarck

War with Denmark: The Issue of Schleswig-Holstein

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The duchies of Schleswig-Holstein were held by Denmark (also called the Danish rule). However, they widely differed in constitution and were established as a territory of Denmark. The Duchy of Holstein was a portion of the German federation. The people of Denmark and Germany lived together in these two duchies. A disagreement over the issue of nationalism arose between them. Both Germany and Denmark wished to annex the duchies.

Holstein was mainly a German-speaking community. The Danes, i.e., people of Denmark, tried to claim that the two duchies were a part of Denmark and they did not want them to remain semi-independent. This caused the German nationalist to demand the two duchies to be completely incorporated into the German Confederation. There was a short war of control in 1848. This resulted in the London Treaty, which stated that when Danish Prince Christian would ascend the throne, the duchies would remain under the Danish rule, but would not be included into the nation states of Denmark. When Christian was crowned, he included the two duchies into the Danish state, violating the terms of the treaty. As a result, the duchies were invaded by the armies gathered by the German Confederation and German nationalists. German Confederation won the war and duchies were restored to them. After the victory, it was agreed that Austria would manage Holstein and Prussia would be in charge of Schleswig. There were many clashes over the method of administration. It resulted in a political division with German confederation and Austria and Prussia fighting for the dominance of the Germanic states.

Austro-Prussian War

In 1866, further debates about the management of Schleswig-Holstein duchies resulted in a war between Austria and Prussia. This war lasted for seven weeks and resulted in the Prussian victory over the Austrians. In defeating the Austrians on the battlefield, the Prussians assumed the position of senior Germanic state. This resulted in a clearer partition between Austrian and German interests and forced the smaller states to line up themselves alongside the Prussians, with whom they shared more economic ties because of the Zollverein customs agreement.

Bismarck knew that the answer to opposition at home was accomplishment abroad. The occasion presented itself when the King of Denmark tried to capture the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein into a centralized German state in opposition to the will of the German Confederation. Prussia joined Austria in a concise successful war against Denmark. Bismarck, however, was sure that Prussia required to completely subside the northern German Confederation, which destined expelling Austria from German matters. Bismarck's first task was to ensure that there was no coalition against him. He had no crisis gaining support from Alexander II of Russia, as Prussia had aided Russia in overcoming a Polish uprising in 1863. He then charmed Napoleon III with blurred promises of territorial gains along the Rhine River, which he had no purpose of keeping. Bismarck, actually, had no immense respect for Napoleon III. He once referred to him as the 'sphinx without a riddle'. Then when Austria declined to renounce its role in German affairs, Bismarck was prepared.

The Austro-Prussian War, sometimes referred to as the Seven Weeks War, was fought in 1866. The Prussian army transported troops by rail and also used breech

loading needle guns in order to gain maximum fire power, and decisively defeated the Austrians in Bohemia at the Battle of Sadowa. Here, Bismarck showed his mastery of ‘realpolitik’ by providing Austria with liberal terms, as he knew well that he might necessitate the neutrality, if not collaboration, of Austria in the future. Austria paid no compensations and lost no land to Prussia, but it was forced to cede Venice to Italy; however, the German Confederation was disbanded and Austria decided to withdraw from German affairs. The territories north of the Main River were joined into a new North German Confederation led by Prussia. The generally Catholic states of the south remained autonomous while forming coalitions with Prussia.

Bismarck next turned to the parliament. He understood that nationalism was his main weapon to bring the parliament to his terms and conditions, and during the attack on Austria in 1866, he progressively tied Prussia’s destiny to the ‘national development of Germany’.

He established a new federal constitution for the North German Confederation. In this constitution, each state held its own local government, but the Prussian King became the president of the confederation and the chancellor—Bismarck—was answerable only to the president. The federal government (literally comprising William I and Bismarck) managed the army and foreign matters. The legislature had two houses; one appointed by the states, the other elected by the universal male suffrage. He then secured his border in Prussia by asking the Prussian Parliament to issue a special indemnity bill to endorse (after the fact) all the government’s expenditure between 1862 and 1866. Here, Bismarck’s success in uniting the northern German states and establishing a legislature where all could take part was paid off. The liberals saw achievement beyond their wildest dreams and were concerned to cooperate. Thus, several liberals repented their ‘sins’. Perhaps, none repented more religiously than did Hermann Baumgarten, a professor of history and member of the liberal opposition who wrote an essay, ‘A Self Criticism of German Liberalism.’ In it he commented:

We thought that by agitation, we could transform Germany....Yet we have experienced a miracle almost without parallel. The victory of our principles would have brought us misery; whereas, the defeat of our principles has brought us boundless salvation.

Bismarck had triumphed. The German middle class respectfully bowed to Bismarck and monarchical authority. In the years before 1814, the virtues of the aristocratic Prussian army officer increasingly replaced those of the middle class liberal in public esteem and social standard.

Relations with France (1870) and Final Unification of Germany

France was disappointed by Prussia when it was not given a candidacy for the vacant throne of Spain and ties between the two countries became brittle. In 1870, France declared a war on Prussia and was defeated swiftly and surely by the Prussians. The outcome was the removal of French Emperor Napoleon III (Figure 3.8) from power and the resultant spreading of Germanic nationalism through the whole of German confederation. After defeating France, Prussia was in a position to induce its partners within the German confederation to agree that unification was preferable. Thus, Wilhelm of Prussia was declared the Emperor of Germany on 18 January 1871. In this way, the Second Reich was born (Figure 3.9).

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Fig. 3.8 French Emperor Napoleon III with Bismarck (Note that Bismarck holds the sword of defeated Napoleon III as a symbol of victory)

In the united German National Federation, the Prussian Emperor was declared the Emperor of the whole of Germany. A cabinet of ministers and a bicameral legislature was set up to assist the new Emperor in this administration of the nation. The North German federation came to be named the German Empire.



Fig. 3.9 Germany after Unification (1817–1918 [First World War])

CONGRESS OF BERLIN

The Congress of Berlin was held in the city of Berlin from 13 June to 13 July of 1878. It was a meeting to rectify the Treaty of San Stefano (1878) and to settle peace between the Ottoman Empire of Turkey and the Empire of Russia. Before studying about the Congress of Berlin, it is important to understand the history of the Ottoman Empire.

Ottoman Empire at the Beginning of Nineteenth Century

The Ottoman Empire, or the present-day Turkey, was unfortunate as the modernization of this region started in the worst days of European imperialism. In the 19th and 20th centuries, all across the world, Europeans were capturing and colonizing the lands of other nations. The British, French, Germans, Austrians and Russians employed modern techniques of warfare to build great empires. Only a few lands in Asia or Africa could not be captured; these included Japan, Liberia, Thailand, Turkey and a few regions too remote for European power to reach. However, Turkey's success in remaining its own master is not often cherished. But the nation remained independent because it fought with and survived the pressure put forward by the European powers.

The Ottoman Empire was known as the 'Sick Man of Europe', because it gradually lost the majority of its territory. In contrast to Britain, France or Russia, the Ottomans were militarily pathetic. The Ottomans were at a great disadvantage due to the lack of European education, European industry or powerful European armies. They were forced to struggle and lose wars while defending their empire. Even when they tried to imitate Europe and reform their system, the Ottomans were pushed back due to attacks from powerful neighbours, particularly Russia. As and when they tried to bring new changes in their social system, their resources and finances were directed towards the wars being fought and defence of the country, instead of modernization. Russian armies took away Rumania and Bulgaria from the Empire; Britain captured Cyprus and Egypt; Austria got hold of Bosnia (See Map in Figure 3.10). Eventually Britain and France divided the Ottoman Arab lands between them. The worst calamity was the exodus of millions of Turks and other Muslims from the conquered lands into what remained the Ottoman Empire.

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Fig. 3.10 Map showing the Ottoman Empire (Turkey) and the Possessions of the European Powers

The Ottoman losses demanded massive expenses. Just as the Ottoman reform had started to rejuvenate their lands in Europe, those lands were captured by others. Great amount of money was spent in modernizing areas, and then more money was spent to protect them; however, all regions were lost. Millions of expatriates had to be

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housed, and they became a troublesome element when poverty in the Empire led to the issue due to which the refugees could not be settled swiftly. The Ottomans were thus forced to take loans at ruinous rates both to modernize and to defend themselves, until even the interest could not be paid.

The Ottomans were very sick, but they were not permitted to cure themselves. In its place, those around them did what they could to make sure that the illness led to death. Like other nations, the Ottoman Turks eventually could not stand against the forces of imperialism. This is in no way outstanding. The extraordinary fact is not that the Ottomans lost land to European imperialists, (there were so many non-European countries that lost the land to these powers) but that the Ottomans held on so well. Their losses to more dominant Europeans started at the end of the 17th century and went on for more than 200 years. In spite of their military weakness, the Ottomans survived European imperialism for more years than the United States has existed up to now. The Ottoman Empire did lastly yield in World War I. Yet at its end, the empire held on astonishingly well. Combating against the English, the French and the Russians, the Ottomans lasted all the way through four years of war. And at the end of those four years, the Turks regrouped to keep hold of their independence.

The astonishing fact of modern Turkish account is that the Turks managed to tolerate as a nation in their own state when numerous others were falling under the imperial grasp of Europe. It is unusual that the Turks could endure militarily against all odds. It is also extraordinary that the Turks could modernize their society and economy, under the able leadership of Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, along European lines and were able to maintain their independence from the European powers. Despite the attempts of his neighbours, the 'Sick Man' recovered and lives on.

Greek War of Independence and British Ascendancy Over Turkish Rule

The events of the Greek War of Independence and the influence of the British on the Turkish sultan are the most significant events in the Ottoman Empire. Let us discuss them one by one.

Greek War of Independence

In the previous section, you read that Cyprus was captured by Britain. This links our discussion to the brief history of Greece; especially, the most important historical event, i.e., the Greek War of Independence. The land of Greece has been famous for Alexander, the Great. He was the hero of Greece in the ancient times. However, in the middle ages, Greece came under the rule of the Ottoman Empire.

The Greek War of Independence, also known as the Greek Revolution was a victorious war of independence waged by the Greek revolutionaries between 1821 and 1832. In this war, they took the help of several European powers such as Russia, United Kingdom and France. They fought against the Ottoman Empire, which was assisted by its vassals, the Eyalet of Egypt and partly the Vilayet of Tunisia.

After the fall of the Byzantine Empire to the Ottoman Empire, maximum part of Greece came under the Ottoman rule. During this time, there were recurrent rebellions by Greeks attempting to gain independence. In 1814, a secret society called the Filiki

Eteria was established with the objective of fighting for the freedom of Greece. The Filiki Eteria planned to start revolutions in the Peloponnese, the Danubian Principalities and Constantinople. The first of these revolts started on 6 March 1821 in the Danubian Principalities; however, it was soon subdued by the Ottomans. Due to these events in the north, the Greeks in the Peloponnese came into action and on 17 March 1821, the Maniots declared war on the Ottomans. As the month reached its end, the Peloponnese was in open rebellion against the Turks and by October 1821, the Greeks, led by General Theodoros Kolokotronis (Figure 3.11), had captured Tripolitsa. The Peloponnesian revolt was rapidly followed by revolts in Crete, Macedonia and Central Greece, which would soon be curbed. In the meantime, the temporary Greek navy was attaining success against the Ottoman navy in the Aegean Sea and thwarted Ottoman reinforcements from arriving by sea.

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Fig. 3.11 General Theodoros Kolokotronis

Soon, different Greek factions developed tensions that led to two consecutive civil wars. Meanwhile, the Ottoman Sultan negotiated with Mehmet Ali of Egypt. The latter decided to send his son Ibrahim Pasha to Greece with an army to repress the rebellion in return for territorial gain. In February 1825, Ibrahim landed in the Peloponnese and had instant success: by the end of 1825, most of the Peloponnese fell to Egyptian forces which controlled the territory. The city of Missolonghi, which was put under siege by the Turks since April 1825, fell in April 1826. Although Ibrahim was beaten in Mani, he had succeeded in repressing most of the rebellion in the Peloponnese and Athens had been retaken.

After long-lasting negotiation, three Great Powers, Russia, the United Kingdom and France, agreed to interfere in the war and each nation sent a navy to Greece. The allied fleet intercepted the Ottoman–Egyptian fleet at Navarino once it came to know that combined Ottoman–Egyptian fleets were going to attack the Greek island of Hydra. Following a standoff that lasted for a week, a battle started that resulted in the annihilation of the Ottoman–Egyptian fleet (Figure 3.12). With the aid of a French expeditionary force, the Greeks forced the Turks to leave the Peloponnese and proceeded to the captured part of Central Greece by 1828. After years of negotiation, Greece was at last recognized as an independent nation in May 1832.

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Fig. 3.12 Destruction of Ottoman-Egyptian Fleet in the Greek War of Independence

Source: <http://www.ahistoryofgreece.com/revolution.htm>

The Revolution or the Greek War of Independence is celebrated on 25 March every year by the Modern Greek state as their National Day.

British Ascendancy over Turkish Sultan

The year 1842 also witnessed the ascendancy of the British over the young Turkish Sultan. He ascended the throne in 1839 after the death of Mahmud. This was made possible due to the efforts of Stratford Canning (Figure 3.13), who was posted as Great Britain's ambassador to Constantinople, Ottoman Empire's capital, in December 1841.



Fig. 3.13 Stratford Canning, later Honoured as The Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe

He sought to check further growth of Russian influence and prevented Nicholas from crowning his triumph at Adrianople and Hunkar Iskelesi by further oppressive treaties in 1848 and 1853.

In 1848, the revolution in France caused the waves of revolution in Lombardy, Hungary and Danubian principalities. Czar Nicholas of Russia, a great reactionary, was determined to curb the democratic principles. He, therefore, sent his army to Moldavia under the terms of Treaty of Adrianople and asked the Turks to repress the movement at Bucharest.

He then proceeded to use Moldavia as a base for operations against the Hungarian rebels. When Porte protested, the Czar adopted dictatorial attitude. Canning encouraged

the Porte to resist Nicholas's demand. Things assumed serious dimensions after some Hungarian leaders took refuge on Turkish soil. Austria and Russia demanded the extradition of these leaders who were given asylum by Porte at the instigation of Canning. Thereupon, Russia and Austria broke off relations with Turkey.

Nicholas of Russia ordered his troops to proceed to Bersarabia, but was greatly disillusioned to find English and French fleets at the entrance of Hellespont. This convinced Nicholas that Turkey was not alone and Russia would have to encounter resistance from English and French fleets. Therefore, on 7 November 1849, he withdrew the demand for extradition. This was indeed a great rebuff of Russia. This period of 1842 to 1858 is often termed as the period of British influence over the Turkish monarch. During this period, the Turkish ruler was able to prevent Russian advances.

Canning's term in Constantinople lasted from 1842 to 1852, and during this period, he emerged as one of the most important figures in Constantinople, as British influence over the Porte increased and the Turks came to be seen increasingly as British clients. When Canning's old ally Stanley, now Earl of Derby, formed a government in 1852, Canning hoped to accept the foreign office, or at least the Paris embassy. In its place, he was raised to the peerage as Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, in the County of Somerset. He came back home in 1852, but when Aberdeen's coalition government was established, Stratford de Redcliffe was sent back to Constantinople once again.

In Constantinople, for the last time, Stratford came in the midst of a disaster caused due to the dispute between Napoleon III and Nicholas I over the safety of the holy places. This crisis in the end led to the Crimean War. Stratford is accused of supporting the Turks to rebuff the cooperation agreement during the Menshikov mission. It appears that he was time after time urging the Turks to reject compromises arguing that any Russian treaty would be to subject the Ottoman Empire to protectorate status under Czar Nicholas I. He left Constantinople for the last time in 1857, and resigned early the next year.

Relations between Russia and the Ottoman Empire

During the nineteenth century, relations between Russia and the Ottoman Empire were sour due to several reasons. Let us discuss the bases of these relations.

Russian Suggestion for Dismemberment of Turkey

Following the tension due to British influence and prevention of war with Russia, on 8 January 1878, the Porte appealed to the European powers for mediation. The refusal of Germany to take part in such mediation made the British public apprehensive that Russia, supported by Germany, would try to force its own terms on Turkey. On 15 January, the British ambassador at Petrograd handed to Prince Gorchakov an opinion of the British Government that any treaty between Russia and Turkey affecting the treaties of 1856 and 1871 must be a European treaty in order to be valid.

The Turkish Sultan wanted peace at any cost, and on 3 March, the Treaty of San Stefano was signed by Russia and Turkey. According to this treaty, the Sultan agreed to recognize the complete independence of Serbia, Montenegro and Rumania; a new state, 'Greater Bulgaria,' consisting of Bulgaria, Rumelia and Macedonia, was to come into existence. Of all his European territories, the Sultan was allowed to keep Constantinople and its vicinity and Albania. Had this treaty been carried out, the Near Eastern Question might have then been solved, as the Turkish rule would practically have ceased in Europe.

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But great objections were raised to this settlement by the Greeks and Serbians, who opposed the creation of a 'Greater Bulgaria' because they wanted parts of Macedonia for themselves.

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Far more serious was the opposition that came from England and Austria. The former did not propose to sit tamely by and see Turkey dismembered to the advantage of Russia, who would, in all likelihood, dominate the new states which its arms had brought into existence. Austria, on her part, was ambitious to get a port on the Aegean, perhaps Saloniki, which the Treaty of San Stefano, if carried out, would put out of its reach. Czar Alexander was clearly told that the Balkan situation was a matter for all of Europe to settle, and that war would be declared against Russia unless it submitted the whole matter to the judgment of an international conference.

The Crimean War

In July 1853 Russia occupied territories in the Crimea (Figure 3.14) that had formerly been under the Turkish control. Britain and France were thinking about Russian expansion and made efforts to achieve a negotiation withdrawal. Turkey, reluctant to grant concessions, declared war on Russia.



Fig. 3.14 Map showing the Location of Crimea, the spot of the Crimean War

When the Russians annihilated the Turkish fleet at Sinope in the Black Sea in November 1853, Britain and France entered the war against Russia. On 20 September 1854, the Allied army overwhelmed the Russian army at the battle of Alma River; however, the battle of Balaklava (October 1854) was indecisive.

Thereafter, British soldiers arrived in Turkey, they rapidly started going down with cholera and malaria. Just in a few weeks, a probable 8,000 men were suffering from these two diseases.

The Crimean War resulted in the formation of centralized states in Italy and Germany. France and Britain feared that Russians were about to encroach upon the Balkan States as Ottoman of Turkey was weak to oppose. The possibility of Russia gaining access to the Mediterranean by occupying the port city of Istanbul was feared

by them. Ottoman lost against Russia in a naval war and France and Great Britain declared war on Russia. The major part of the battle took place in Crimean region and ironically 5,00,000 casualties occurred due to diseases in the filthy field hospitals. The Russian fortress Sevastopol fell and the war ended. Russia had to give up some territories on the Danube River. After this war, the concept of great powers working united was shattered. The British became isolated and remained like that. Russia did not support Austria when it opposed to the building of the states by Germany and Italy.

Russo-Turkish War (1877–78)

In the midst of these revolts and wars, the European powers made a bid to mediate. They called a conference at Constantinople in January 1877, but it could not achieve anything. Meanwhile, on account of constant outrages against the Christians in Turkey, the Russians were enraged and declared war against Turkey in 1877.

Though the Turkish armies fought splendidly, the Russians advanced within few minutes of Constantinople. The Russians encountered tough resistance at Plevna, where they lost 50,000 men. In January 1878, the Russians crossed the Balkans and occupied Sophia after some gallant fighting. Ultimately, on 20 January 1878, the Russians entered Adrianople.

While Russia was making all these advances, there was a sharp demand for British armed intervention from British people. In early 1878, the British fleet moved to Besika Bay, but by the time it reached the Dardanelles, the Russians had captured San Stefano.

On 3 March 1878, Russia forced Turkey to sign the Treaty of San Stefano. This treaty provided for the creation of an autonomous principality of Bulgaria. Serbia and Montenegro were considerably enlarged and Bosnia-Herzegovina were given autonomous status. In short, the treaty sought to establish a dominant Slav State in the Balks, which would be a Russian dependency; destroyed Turkey's political and military power in Europe and blocked the Habsburg road to Salonika.

Treaty of Berlin (1878) and the Berlin Congress

The Treaty of San Stefano did not fulfill the ambitions of the member states and was followed by the Treaty of Berlin. Russia felt obliged to yield. The representatives of England, Russia, Germany, Austria, France, Italy and Turkish Congress met in 1878 at Berlin to settle the Near Eastern Question. To this Congress of Berlin came the most famous statesmen of the day; Bismarck, who was its President; Disraeli, who scored diplomatic triumphs as England's envoy; and Prince Gorchakov, who came as the champion of Russia. The Treaty of San Stefano was totally disregarded by the Congress, which proceeded to make quite another settlement of the Near Eastern Question.

The main provisions of the Treaty of Berlin were as follows:

1. Montenegro, Serbia and Rumania were declared entirely independent of Turkey.
2. 'Greater Bulgaria' was split into three parts: Bulgaria proper was made an autonomous state with the Sultan as her suzerain; Eastern Rumelia was given 'administrative autonomy' under a Christian governor and Macedonia was allowed to remain a part of Turkey.
3. To Austria-Hungary was given the right to occupy and to administer the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, but with the understanding that they were legally to remain a part of Turkey.

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4. Turkey also received special commercial and military privileges in the Sanjak, or County, of Novi Bazaar.
5. England was given the right to occupy the Island of Cyprus.
6. Russia, who alone had won the victory over Turkey, got almost nothing. It was allowed to exchange with Rumania the Dobrudja district for the strip of Bessarabia on the northern bank of the Danube
7. Russia also received Batum, Ardahan and Kars in the Caucasus. After thus partitioning most of the dominions of the Sultan, the Powers again solemnly guaranteed the 'integrity' of Turkey.
8. This Treaty of Berlin led to the partial dismemberment of Turkey with the consent of Europe.
9. Greece got the provinces of Thersalay and Epymys.
10. Russia's peculiar position in relation to Turkey was accepted. However, England promised to help Porte if Russia tried to conquer more territory in Asia Minor.

According to Stanley Lane Poole, a British orientalist and archaeologist, 'rightly or wrongly, in supporting the Christian provinces against their sovereign, the powers at Berlin sounded the knell of Turkish domination in Europe.'

Another expert on the matter, Allen, is highly critical of the Treaty of Berlin. He says, 'It was concluded in a spirit of shameless bargain with a sublime disregard of elementary ethics, and in open contempt of the rights of civilized people to determine their own future. It was essentially a temporary arrangement concluded between rival Imperialist States. And it sowed the seed of the crop of "nationalist" wars and risings in which the Balkan people were to be embroiled for the next half century.'

The Treaty of Berlin proved to be a temporary settlement because disorder grew at a very rapid speed in the Turkish Empire and created an atmosphere of general unrest, which ultimately culminated in the disastrous events of 1912-18.

In 1885, certain officers seized Philippopolis by a rebellion and declared the union of Eastern Rumelia with Bulgaria. Russia wanted the Sultan to intervene but he refused to do so. Even Britain supported the union between Eastern Rumelia and Bulgaria. Towards the close of the nineteenth century, the Ottoman Empire was surrounded by hostile elements.

The Tsar was openly hostile to Turkey; the French were indifferent and still entertained the hopes of possessing Syria; Italy openly indicated her desire to acquire Libya and Albania. Even Britain, the traditional friend of the Turks and a principal upholder of the doctrine of the integrity of Ottoman Empire, was hostile.

Under the circumstances, the Sultan of Turkey (Abdul Hamid) decided to adopt the policy of Pan-Islamism and cultivate intimate relations with Germany and Austria. The Policy of Pan-Islamism urged the union of all Muslims against the West. Abdul Hamid II incorporated the Pan-Islamic ideals in his political programme.

Despite this, the various European powers continued to make gains at the cost of Turkey. The rise of nationalism amongst the peoples of Balkans also contributed to the disintegration of the Turkish Empire.

The leaders of several minorities in the Turkish Empire talked of national autonomy viz., the Armenians and the Kurds. The Sultan tried to suppress nationalists in the hopes that the Pan-Islamic enthusiasm would preserve the empire.

Emergence of Young Turks and annexation by European powers

Distressed at the weakness and inefficiency of the Turkish army and Turkish government, a group of leaders known as Young Turks (which also included some, army officers) organized a revolt in 1908 and demanded a constitution to protect themselves against the autocracy of Abdul Hamid.

In 1909, the Young Turks deposed the Turkish Sultan and brought his spineless brother Mohammad V to the throne. Under the new ruler, the lesser nationalists grew restless. Taking advantage of this, both Italy and the Balkan States seized extensive territory. The other powers like Austria, which wanted to expand at the cost of Turkey, were greatly disturbed over the emergence of Young Turks because they feared that a strong Turkey would jeopardize their expansionist policies.

Therefore, in 1908, Austria annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina, the Macedonian provinces of Turkey, which had been placed under its administration by the Treaty of Berlin. Bulgaria annexed Eastern Rumelia, which had been left under the suzerainty of the Sultan. Crete declared itself as part of Greece.

All these developments strengthened the reactionary forces in Turkey and they prevailed upon the government to adopt repressive policies towards Christian minorities. On the other hand, the European powers backed the Christian minorities. Though the Young Turks were quite keen about finding a solution of the problem of Christian minorities, they could not achieve much success due to foreign intrigues and interventions.

In 1911, Italy attacked Turkey and annexed Tripoli. In 1912, Russia inspired Greece, Serbia and Bulgaria to form the Balkan League, which made a concerted onslaught on the Turkish Empire in the autumn of 1912. For the first time, the Balkan States defied the powers of Europe and acted on their own. They inflicted crushing defeats on Turkey and settled for all times the problem of Christian population of European Turkey. Thus, they paved the way for the creation of the Turkish nation, which arose out of the Ottoman Empire.

It is evident from the preceding account that on the eve of World War I, the Turkish Empire had been rendered very weak. The empire received a tottering blow during the war.

SUMMARY

- During 15th–19th centuries, European kingdoms were fighting to annex the small kingdom of Italy.
- The French revolution and the Napoleonic wars, which followed it, provided a fillip to Italian nationalism and contributed greatly towards the development of a sense of unity. Italians were highly inspired by the French revolutionary ideas and strongly resisted the external interference in their national life.
- Giuseppe Mazzini, the soul and spirit of the Carbonari, wanted a united Italy, besides a republican form of government. He created Young Italy in 1831, a syndicate for the purpose of spreading the ideas of unification, revolutions and republicanism, and brought the campaign of unification into the mainstream.
- Piedmont (Kingdom of Sardinia) was administered quiet efficiently by Camillo di Cavour after he became the prime minister in 1852. He felt that Piedmont being strong and influential should effect the unification.

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- Eventually Cavour, Garibaldi and Mazzini became the founding fathers of the Italian Nation.
- Germany was an enormous mosaic of states. It was a part of the Holy Roman Empire. The two biggest states in it were established from the territorial custodies of Austria and Prussia. There were a few secondary states in northern and central Germany. There were several other small states.
- The nationalist movement gained momentum only after 1848. The unification of Germany was the result of the policy of blood and iron pursued by Prussia in the three wars, which took place within the brief era of six years, i.e., 1864–1870.
- Bismarck was the Prussian Prime Minister who pursued the policy of iron and blood in order to unify Germany. Germany was unified after the wars with Denmark, Austria and France.
- In the united German National Federation, the Prussian Emperor was declared the Emperor of the whole of Germany. A cabinet of ministers and a bicameral legislature was set up to assist the new Emperor in this administration of the nation.
- The Ottoman Empire was known as the ‘Sick Man of Europe’, because it gradually lost the majority of its territory. In contrast to Britain, France or Russia, the Ottomans were militarily pathetic.
- The Greek War of Independence, also known as the Greek Revolution was a victorious war of independence waged by the Greek revolutionaries between 1821 and 1832. In this war, they took the help of several European powers such as Russia, United Kingdom and France. They fought against the Ottoman Empire, who was assisted by its vassals, the Eyalet of Egypt and partly the Vilayet of Tunisia.
- In 1848, the revolution in France caused the waves of revolution in Lombardy, Hungary and Danubian principalities.
- The period of 1842 to 1858 is often termed as the period of British influence over the Turkish monarch. During this period, the Turkish ruler was able to prevent Russian advances with the help of Britain.
- In July 1853, Russia occupied territories in the Crimea that had formerly been under the Turkish control. Britain and France were thinking about Russian expansion and made effort to achieve a negotiation withdrawal. Turkey, reluctant to grant concessions, declared war on Russia. This war is called the Crimean War.
- On 3 March 1878, Russia forced Turkey to sign the Treaty of San Stefano. This treaty provided for the creation of an autonomous principality of Bulgaria. Serbia and Montenegro were considerably enlarged and Bosnia-Herzegovina were given autonomous status.
- The representatives of England, Russia, Germany, Austria, France, Italy and Turkish Congress met in 1878 at Berlin to settle the Near Eastern Question. Here, the Treaty of Berlin was concluded.

- The Treaty of Berlin proved to be a temporary settlement because disorder grew at a very rapid speed in the Turkish Empire and created an atmosphere of general unrest, which ultimately culminated in the disastrous events of 1912–18.

KEY TERMS

- **Unification:** It refers to join people, things, parts of a country, etc., together so that they form a single unit.
- **Liberal:** It refers to a person willing to understand and respect other people's behaviour, opinions, etc., especially when they are different from his/her own; believing people should be able to choose how they behave.
- **Autonomy:** It refers to the freedom for a country, a region or an organization to govern itself independently.
- **Diplomat:** It refers to a person whose job is to represent his or her country in a foreign country, for example, in an embassy.
- **Realpolitik:** It refers to a system of politics or principles based on practical rather than moral or ideological considerations.
- **Maniots/Maniates:** They are the inhabitants of the Mani Peninsula, Laconia, in the southern Peloponnese, Greece.
- **Coalition:** It is a group formed by people from several different groups, especially political ones, agreeing to work together for a particular purpose.
- **Siege:** It refers to a military operation in which an army tries to capture a town by surrounding it and stopping the supply of food, etc. to the people inside.
- **Negotiation:** It refers to a formal discussion between people who are trying to reach an agreement.
- **Fleet:** It refers to a group of military ships commanded by the same person.
- **Treaty:** It refers to a formal agreement between two or more countries.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. (a) Republic, (b) Mazzini
2. (a) False, (b) True
3. (a) True, (b) True
4. (a) Metternich, (b) German
5. After the fall of the Byzantine Empire to the Ottoman Empire, maximum part of Greece came under the Ottoman rule.
6. The Treaty of San Stefano was signed by Russia and Turkey.
7. The representatives of England, Russia, Germany, Austria, France, Italy and Turkish Congress met in 1878 at Berlin to settle the Near Eastern Question.
8. In the Treaty of Berlin, England was given the right to occupy the Island of Cyprus.

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QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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Short-Answer Questions

1. Which factors hampered the Italian unification?
2. Review the impact of the French Revolution on the Italian Unification.
3. State the Franco-German relations before the unification of Germany.
4. State the causes and outcomes of the Greek War of Independence.
5. Why did Russia suggest 'dismembering' Turkey?
6. List the main features of the Treaty of Berlin of 1878.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the roles of Mazzini and Cavour in the Italian unification.
2. Explain the role played by Bismarck in the German unification.
3. Describe how the outcomes of Wars with Denmark and Austria shaped the German Unification.
4. Describe the status of the Ottoman Empire in the beginning of the 19th century.
5. Explain how the British managed to hold 'influence' over the Turkish Sultan.
6. Discuss the Crimean War and Russo-Turkish War of 1877–78. How did these wars shape the history of the Ottoman Empire on one hand, and of the European powers on the other?
7. Critically evaluate the main provisions of the Treaty of Berlin and the Berlin Congress.

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