

Working hours to complete the course				
Lecture	Assessment	Tutorial	Home Study	Total
45	25	15	50	135

Course Objectives:

By the end of this course, students should be able to:

- Understand the relationship between medieval and early modern social, cultural, political, and economic developments, and their effects on the modern world;
- Explain the emergence of the early modern state system.
- Assess the changing role of religion in early modern society.
- Analyze the structure of society in the early modern period.
- Explain the impact of intellectual developments.
- Trace the economic history of early modern Europe.

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2.1.2 Some Possible Factors for Renaissance

2.1.3. Humanism

2.1.4 The Spread and Consequences of Renaissance

————→ Quiz (10%)

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 - 5.1.6. The Rise of Cromwell and the Civil War
- 5.2. The Triumph of the Parliament
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- 7.2 The Rise of Prussia
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 - 7.3.1. Russia before the Rise of Peter the Great
 - 7.3.2. Russia under Peter the Great
- 7.4 The Partition of Poland

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- 8.3 The Final Military Engagement
- 8.4 The Aftermaths of the War

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- 9.2 France from Estates General to National Assembly
- 9.3 The Second Revolution: The Emergence of the Republic and the Regime of Terror
- 9.4 The Directory
- 9.5 The Age of Napoleon

Teaching and learning methods

- Gapped lecture
- Group Discussion
- Daily reflections
- Presentation

Mode of Assessment

- Quiz and Tests (35%)
- Assignment (15%)
- Presentation (10%)
- Final examination (40%)

Group Assignment: Write a term paper on the following topic

1. The exploration, great geographical discoveries and establishment of overseas empire by powerful European countries **Group 1** ➔
2. The Thirty Years War in Europe (1618-1648) **Group 2** ➔
3. The American war in independence **Group 3** ➔

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Unit One: The Political Background: The Late Middle Ages and Beginning of the Early Modern Period

1.1. The Political Setting of Europe

Tendency of the times was towards absolutism. Feudalism was on the decline. Strong monarchies were growing up. Now the king began to absorb the political power of the nobility and began to set up strong centralized government. It was also a time for the rise of nationalism.

The Holy Roman Empire, which was established by Charlemagne, spread in entire mid-Europe particularly the German States. It was declining gradually.

France had recovered from the disasters of Hundred Years of war. Its kings assumed absolute power and enlarged its territories.

Spain rose to be a powerful monarchy. It was due to the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile, consequently the unification of the two kingdoms. Conquest of Granada from the Moors in 1492 further helped in the unification of Spain.

It was during the middle of the 15th c that England was in the grip of civil war known as War of Roses. Richard III of the House of York was defeated in this war in 1485. This set in a new era of absolutism in England. Henry VII (1485-1509) of the House of Tudor united the warring factions by his marriage with Elizabeth of York and this strengthened his claim to the English Crown.

During the Middle Ages the weak kings, exercising little power over feudal lords, usually ruled only the Royal domain. Near the end of the Middle Ages, the king-particularly in England, France, Spain, Russia, Prussia and Austria, began to extend his rule at the expense of the nobles. By the 17th century, the king had become an autocrat or absolute monarch. His supremacy was acknowledged by commoners and lords. In England, however, only the Tudor monarchs approached absolutism.

Factors Strengthening Royal Power

- a) The crusades and other wars killed many feudal lords
- b) The rising middle classes supported king to assure protection of property and trade
- c) The introduction of gunpowder equipped the king with a powerful weapon that could destroy castles of feudal lords
- d) The reformation provided the king with power formerly held by the Catholic Church
- e) The awakening spirit of nationalism made the king the symbol of national unity

Divine Right of Kings This theory attempted to justify unlimited royal power.

- a) The king ruled by God's authority as His earthly representative
- b) Obedience to the king was obedience to God
- c) The King could do no wrong. The divine right concept contrasts with our democratic belief that those who govern derive their authority from the people

1.2. The Holy Roman Empire

It is from the year 800 AD, when a King of the Franks was crowned Emperor of the Romans by Pope Leo III, that the beginning of the Holy Roman Empire must be dated. The relationship between the Pope and the Holy Roman Emperor solidified in 800 AD, when at Mass on Christmas day in Rome, Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor, a title that had been out of use in the West since the abdication of Romulus Augustus in 476. Now the Papacy had implicit authority to crown the one who would be emperor. And the Holy Roman Empire (or Reich) had the responsibility to protect the Papacy. Indeed, it was the result of Charlemagne having defended the Pope against the rebellious inhabitants of Rome which initiated the notion of the *Reich* being the protector of the church. The Pope's crowning of Charlemagne as emperor in 800 set the pattern that later emperors would follow.

It was spread in entire mid-Europe particularly the German region. The balance of power began to shift in 800 AD when Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor. Now the Papacy's authority implicitly preceded that of the emperor. The spiritual Supremacy was thus achieved in the seventh century, the temporal sovereignty was attained in the eighth; it wanted only the pontifical supremacy –sometimes, although improperly, styled the temporal supremacy to make the Pope supreme over kings, as he had already become over peoples and bishops. It was in the year 1073 that the Papal chair was filled by Popes Gregory VII. Gregory fully grasped the potential of Papal power.

While the Holy Roman Empire nominally existed as an entity until 1806, its power was greatly diminished after the thirteenth century. The power of the Papacy likewise would soon diminish from its exalted estate. It was declining gradually. It was in 1555 at Augsburg that Charles V was obliged to let each member state of the Holy Roman Empire follow the religion of its own choice.

Unit Two: The Renaissance and Religious Reformation

2.1 Meaning and Essence of Renaissance

The Renaissance (1350-1550), meaning rebirth or revival of the study of old classics, brought about the transition from faith to reason; from dogma to science, was a period of approximately 300 years marking the transition between medieval and modern Western Europe.

- It was begun with the rediscovery of the ancient Greco-Roman civilization, which had been generally neglected by the religious minded Christian medieval world.
- It emphasized reason, a questioning attitude, and free inquiry—in contrast to the medieval concern with faith, authority, and tradition.
- It viewed life not as preparation for the hereafter, but as worthwhile for its own sake.
- It featured great achievements in literature, architecture, sculpture, painting art and science.
- It encouraged an intellectual revolt against the rigid rules & traditions of the medieval period.
- The greatest service rendered by the Renaissance was the release of the human mind & the birth of original thinking.

2.1.2 Some Possible Factors for Renaissance

The Vernacular Replaced Latin in Literature: In the Middle Ages, Latin was the language of literature, of the church, and of educated people in Western Europe. Over the centuries, however, other tongues had been evolving through everyday usage. These were the vernacular, or national, languages, such as French, Italian, Spanish, German, and English. At the end of middle Ages, writers began to use these vernacular languages and later writers discarded Latin entirely.

- Dante (1265-1321) was the first to write an important work in Italian language. His *Divine Comedy*, a long poem, ranks among the greatest literary masterpieces.
- Chaucer (1340-1400) used English in his *Canterbury Tales*, a collection of stories related by pilgrims journeying to the religious shrine at Canterbury.

The Invention of Printing: It encourages literature. About 1450 printing with movable type was invented by a German, Johann Gutenberg. As compared to medieval hand-copying of books, printing tremendously increased output and accuracy, and decreased cost. Inexpensive printed materials afforded all people opportunities for literacy & encouraged talented men to write.

The Renaissance arose in the Italian cities because:

1. **The center of Greco-Roman culture,** Italy contained sculpture, building, roads, and manuscripts that excited curiosity about classical civilization.
2. **Located on the Mediterranean,** Italy had absorbed stimulating new ideas from the advanced Byzantine and Muslim worlds.

3. **Benefiting from the revival of trade**, Italy had wealthy, influential people who became patrons (supporters) of literature, art, and sciences. The leading Renaissance patrons were certain popes in Rome, wealthy merchants in Venice, the Sforza family in Milan, and the Medici family in Florence.

2.1.3 Humanism

A literary movement started in 14th century Italy typified the Renaissance spirit.

1. Humanism concerned itself not with religious matters, but with every day human problems.
2. Humanism drew its inspiration from classical civilization. Humanists eagerly sought, studied, and publicized ancient Greek and Roman manuscripts.
3. Humanism revived interest, chiefly among educated people, in literature and writing.
4. Early humanists were the following:
 - a) **Petrarch (1304-1374)**. He studied the classics, and imitated the style of classical poets.
 - b) **Erasmus (1466-1536)**. In his book “praise of Folly”, he ridiculed superstition, prejudice, upper class privileges and church abuses. By satirizing social evils, Erasmus encouraged people to think about reforms.
 - c) **Sir Thomas Moore (1478- 1535)** wrote *utopia*, a book that portrayed an ideal country- free from war, injustice, poverty and ignorance. (The word utopia now refers to any ideal state)

2.1.4 The Spread and Consequences of Renaissance

In the 15thc, Renaissance ideas began to spread from Italy to France, the German states, Holland, and England. This cultural diffusion resulted from religious, military, and commercial contacts. Also many northern scholars traveled to Italy to absorb Italian art and learning.

Renaissance Achievements

A. Literature

- 1) **Machiavelli (1469- 1527)** discussed ethics and government in his book *The Prince*. It describes how rulers maintained their power by methods that ignored right or wrong.
- 2) **Rabelais (1494-1553)**, wrote *Gargantuan* and *Pantagruel*
- 3) **Montaigne (1533-1592)**, wrote *Essays*, condemning superstition and intolerance, and urging man to live kindly.
- 4) **Cervantes (1547-1616)**, criticized feudal society in his masterpiece, *Don Quixote*.
- 5) **Shakespeare (1564-1616)**, His best-known plays include *Romeo and Juliet*, *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, *Hamlet*, *Julius Caesar* and *Macbeth*.

B. Art

1. **Giotto (1266-1337)**, a painter, portrayed religious themes in his *St. Francis Preaching to the Birds*.
2. **Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519)** painted the *Last Supper* and *Mona Lisa*.
3. **Michelangelo (1475-1564)** carved massive statues of Old Testament figures, David and Moses

C. Science

1. **Copernicus (1473-1543)**, concluded that:
 - a. The sun is the center of our solar system
 - b. The earth is revolving about the sun
 - c. Disproved the Ptolemaic theory, which claimed that the earth is the center of the universe.
2. **Francis Bacon (1561-1642)**, popularized the new scientific method of observation and experimentation.
3. **Newton (1642-1727)**, invented calculus and formulated the laws of motion and the law of gravitation.

2.2 The Reformation: Beginning of Protestant Christianity

The Reformation was religious revolt, started in 1517, against the Roman Catholic Church. The Reformation established many Protestant sects. Thus, in Western Europe, the Reformation shattered Catholic religious unity and led to diversity in Christianity.

Causes of the Reformation

1. **Political** - Some rulers resented the Church claim of supremacy over civil authority. Nationalist-minded person, except in Italy, considered the pope a foreign ruler.
2. **Economic** - Some rulers opposed the Church's tax exemption, envied the Church's wealth, and desired to confiscate the vast Church properties. Some business people viewed church taxes and the Church prohibition of interest on loans as restrictions on economic enterprise. Nationalist-minded persons resented the flow of church taxes from their countries to the papacy in Rome.
3. **Intellectual**- Some educated persons prepared the way for a religious revolt by challenging Church teaching on astronomy, history and Bible interpretation.
4. **Church Abuses** - Some person were critical of the following church practices:

- a) **Worldliness**- the luxurious and materialistic life of certain popes and high Clergy.
- b) **Nepotism**- appointing relatives to church offices regardless of ability.
- c) **Simony**- selling appointments to church offices.
- d) **Sale of indulgence**- accepting money for church pardons, called indulgence, without requiring true repentance. These pardons were granted to reduce punishment in the hereafter for certain sins.

Martin Luther Started the Reformation (1517)

Martin Luther (1483-1546), a German, received an excellent education and entered a Catholic monastic order. Luther was appointed professor of Christian theology at the University of Wittenberg.

In 1517, Luther posted to the door of the church at Wittenberg a statement of his religious beliefs, the Ninety-Five Theses. The theses aroused tremendous popular support. Luther denied the pope's supremacy; proclaimed the Bible as the final authority; translated the Bible into German; urged each individual to read and understand the Bible; and criticized a number of Catholic practices. Excommunicated by the pope, Luther faced punishment from Charles V, the Holy Roman Emperor.

Powerful northern German rulers welcomed revolt against Rome. In addition to having religious reasons, they desired to seize church properties, weaken the Holy Roman Emperor, and end their submission to a non-German pope. Consequently, they protected Luther against punishment. Throughout southern Germany, these rulers accepted Luther's ideas as a new religion, Lutheranism. Scandinavian rulers in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark were converted to Lutheranism, established it as the official state religion, and confiscated Catholic Church properties.

Encouraged by Lutheran success in northern Germany and Scandinavia, protestant reformers elsewhere challenged Catholic Church authority.

- **Ulrich Zwingli** (1484-1531), a Swiss priest, taught that the Bible, not the pope, is the supreme religious authority.
- **John Calvin** (1509-1564), a French religious reformer, fled from Catholic France to safety in Geneva, Switzerland. He founded a simple form of worship frowned upon such pastimes as dancing and card playing, and inscribed a serious moral, and hard working life. Calvinism spread rapidly in Switzerland, Holland, Scotland, France and England.

- **John Knox** (1505-1572), a Scottish reformer and follower of Calvin, helped establish Presbyterianism as the official religion of Scotland.
- **King Henry VIII of England** (1509-1547) broke with the Catholic church because:
 - a) the pope refused to grant him a divorce from his Spanish wife, Catherine of Aragon
 - b) Henry desired the extensive Church properties in England. He persuaded parliament to pass the Act of Supremacy (1534), which instituted an independent **Anglican** church of England with the king as religious leader.

After Henry's divorce was granted by the Anglican Church, he married Anne Boleyn. Their daughter later became Queen Elizabeth I. During her reign (1558-1603), Anglicanism became firmly entrenched as the English religion.

The Catholic Reformation or Counter-Reformation

To defend itself against the protestant movement, the Catholic Church took a number of actions, known as the Catholic Reformation, or Counter Reformation.

1. **Effective Leadership** - A succession of capable, energetic popes provided strong leadership for Church reform. From all clergymen, they demanded devotion to duty and the highest religious standard.
2. **The Council of Trent (1545-1563)** - This Church Council:
 - a. Reaffirmed such basic Catholic doctrines as Papal supremacy and exclusive Church authority to interpret the Bible,
 - b. Prohibited Church abuses-nepotism, Simony and sale of indulgence.
 - c. Required the clergy to renounce worldly pleasures, and
 - d. Authorized an *Index*, a list of heretical books forbidden to Catholics.
3. **The Society of Jesus** - This monastic order was founded in 1534 by Ignatius Loyola. Its members, called Jesuits, helped preserve Catholicism in Poland, southern Germany, and Belgium. They also won new converts in India, Japan, and North America.

Effects of the Reformation

A) End of Religious Unity - Europe was divided according to religion as Follows:

- Predominantly Catholic were Italy, Spain, France, Belgium, Ireland, Southern German, Austria, Poland and Hungary.
- Predominantly Protestant were England, Scotland, Holland, Northern Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

B) Religious Wars - In the 16th and 17th centuries, Europe endured a series of wars, caused partly by religious differences.

1. **Civil Wars in German-** Catholic and Lutheran rulers in Germany fought several civil wars. The compromise peace of Augsburg (1555) permitted each German ruler to choose for himself and his people either Catholic or Lutheranism.
2. **Dutch war against Spain.** The protestant Dutch revolted against their Catholic ruler, Philip II of Spain, after he ruthlessly tried to suppress Protestantism in Holland. Led by William of Orange, the Dutch drove out the Spanish forces and in 1581 declared their political and religious independence. In 1648, after more fighting, Spain recognized Dutch independence.
3. **Spanish Naval War against England** - Philip II desired to:
 - a. Safeguard Spanish merchant ships and colonies against English raids.
 - b. Depose Queen Elizabeth of England, and
 - c. Restore Catholicism in England. To invade England, he organized huge war fleet, the Spanish Armada. In 1588 the armada was destroyed by the English, and Philip's plans were ruined.
4. **Civil Wars in France** - Protestant and Catholic claimants to the French throne engaged in a series of civil wars. In 1589 Henry became King Henry IV and he:
 - a. Adopted Catholicism, the predominant French religion, and
 - b. Issued the Edict of Nantes (1589), which granted religious freedom to the protestant minority, the Huguenots.
5. **Thirty Years' War** (1618-1648) - This war, the bloodiest of the period, originated as a religious struggle in central Europe between Protestant and Catholic rulers. The outstanding Protestant military leader was GustavusAdolphus, king of Sweden. The Thirty Years' War ended in 1648 with the Treaty of Westphalia:
 - a. Catholic France obtained most of Alsace.
 - b. Protestant Sweden acquired territory in northern Germany.
 - c. Calvinist as well as Lutheran and Catholic rulers in Germany gained the right to determine the religion of their people.
 - d. Holland and Switzerland, both protestant, received recognition of their independence.

C. **Strengthening of civil Authority**- The state gained power at the expense of the church.

In protestant countries, the governments:

1. Confiscated Catholic Church properties,
2. Abolished Catholic Church courts, and
3. Assumed control of the new Protestant churches.

D. **A Step toward Religious Tolerance** - During much of the Reformation, Europe experienced great intolerance. Later, governments permitted some religious diversity.

E. **Encouragement of Education** - Protestantism, stressing individual Bible reading in a person's own language, encouraged widespread teaching of reading.

Unit Three: The Great Geographical Discoveries and the Associated Developments

3.1. The Great Geographical Discoveries

The geographical knowledge of Europeans during the middle ages was limited to Europe, Northern Africa, and Western Asia. Beginning from the 15thc, Western European nations—first

Portugal and Spain, then England, Holland, and France—undertook expeditions that discovered new regions in Africa and the Far East, as well as the Americas. The main factors that encouraged these voyages were

- 1. Trade with the East** - Substantial trade between **Europe** and the East began during the Crusades. In the 15th c the lucrative Eastern trade attracted the attention of two nations on the Atlantic coast, Portugal and Spain. To smash the monopoly of the Asian middlemen and Italian city-states, Portugal and Spain financed expeditions seeking an all-water route to the Far East.
- 2. European Curiosity about the Far East** – Europeans were interested in the Far East because of the reports of travelers to eastern Asia; and the Renaissance quest for information about the world's size, shape and people.
- 3. Wealth and ambitions of the New National States** – By the 16th c the wealthy western European nations could finance expensive voyages of exploration. Furthermore, their rising middle classes desired increased trade, and their absolute monarchs sought colonial empires.
- 4. Scientific Progress** – Scientific achievements reduced the hazards of ocean travel. These advances were (a) geographical knowledge, especially the realization that the earth is round not flat; (b) improved maps; (c) a better compass for determining direction and (d) the greater use of the astrolabe for determining latitude.

Portugal is the First to Reach the East. Inspired by Prince Henry the Navigator, Portugal began to search for an all-water route around Africa to the East. Gradually, Portuguese sea captains pushed southward along the Atlantic coast of Africa. In 1488, Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern tip of Africa, the Cape of Good Hope. In 1497-/98, Vasco de Gama rounded the Cape and sailed on to India.

Spain Finances Two Significant Expeditions. In 1492, Christopher Columbus, an Italian navigator, sailed from Spain. Convinced that the earth is round, Columbus planned to reach East by sailing westward across the Atlantic Ocean. He failed because his ships were blocked by two continents which were not known to Europe. Although Columbus thought he had reached islands of the coast of Asia, he had actually discovered a new world. Because this region was publicized by the Italian explorer Amerigo Vespucci, it was later named the Americas. In 1519, Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese sea captain, led several ships from Spain. He rounded the southern tip of South America and crossed the Pacific, but was killed in the Philippine Islands. In 1522, one ship arrived in Spain, thereby completing the first circumnavigation of the world.

3.2. Portugal and Spain Overseas Empire

In Asia, Portugal established an important trading post at Goa in India. Spain annexed the Philippine Islands.

In the New World, Portugal settled Brazil. Spain settled the West Indies, Florida, Texas, California, Mexico, Central America, and South America, except for Brazil.

Unit Four: Wars and Revolution in the Late 16th and 17th Centuries Europe

4.1 Background: The Habsburg Dynasty under Charles V and Philip II

The Hapsburg Monarchy had been in place well before the year of 1500, but during the age of Absolutism the Hapsburg Monarchy was Europe's most powerful royal family. The Hapsburg Empire included Spain, Portugal, the Holy Roman Empire (present day Germany, Netherlands, Austria, Netherlands, Belgium, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Slovakia Luxembourg, Switzerland, Liechtenstein, and parts of Poland, France and Italy), and the empire in the Americas (present day Mexico, Southwestern United States, and Northern South America).

4.1.1. The Habsburg Dynasty under Charles V(1519 – 1556)

The Hapsburg Empire reached its greatest size in 1556 under the rule of Charles V who was the grandson of King Ferdinand I of Spain and Queen Isabella I of Spain. Charles V governed all of the Hapsburg land effectively and with pride. He gained international respect of his people and enemies with his smart use of power and diplomacy. Throughout his reign Spain was constantly at war and constantly trying to create wealth to finance the wars.

Charles of Hapsburg, absolute monarch of Spain and leading ruler of Europe, controlled the Netherlands, Sicily, southern Italy, Austria and other lands in central Europe. In 1520, he became Holy Roman Emperor. To defend his domains, Charles repeatedly fought the French, the Muslim Turks, and the Protestant Germans. A devoted Catholic, he most regretted his failure to halt Protestantism in Germany. In 1556, a weary Charles renounced his throne to withdraw into a monastery. His brother Ferdinand became ruler of Austria and Holy Roman Empire. Charles' son became King Philip II of Spain.

By 1556 Charles V was exhausted and he decided to abdicate (step down). Charles V always thought the Hapsburg Empire was too big to be ruled by just one man. For this reason, Charles V relinquished his throne and divided it between his brother Ferdinand II and his 29-year old son Philip II. Ferdinand II was given Austria and most of the Holy Roman Empire while Philip was

given Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, Milan & Naples (Italian lands), and the newly established American Empire of the New World.

4.1.2. The Habsburg Dynasty under Philip II (1556 – 1598)

Philip II, a devout Catholic as well, ascended to the Spanish throne in 1556 and did not give it up until his death 42 years later in 1598. Unlike his uncle, Ferdinand II, Philip II was able to establish an absolute monarchy in his Spanish Hapsburg Empire. For many reasons, Philip II is remembered as one of the hardest working and most devoted monarchs in history. Unlike many other monarchs of his time, Philip II devoted much of his time to government work and hardly any of his time towards leisure activities. Philip II was the epitome of an absolute ruler, who ruled with complete power over the government and the people. During his rule, Philip II had five objectives on his political agenda:

- 1) create wealth for himself and Spain,
- 2) create a powerful Spanish military,
- 3) expand Spain's borders and its political influence,
- 4) spread the Catholic religion throughout Europe,
- 5) make Spain the most powerful country in Europe.

Having the goal of expanding the Spanish Empire, Philip II waged many wars during his time on the Spanish throne. At the battle of Lepanto in 1571, which took place in Mediterranean Sea, Spain defeated the Ottoman Empire's naval fleet. In 1580 Spain overtook Portugal, and united the Iberian Peninsula (Spain and Portugal) under Spanish control.

Philip II's one downfall was his effort to achieve his 4th objective, which was spreading the Catholic faith throughout Europe. Failure to achieve this objective destroyed his achievement of the other objectives. The war he waged on the Protestant faith drained the wealth of Spain, led to the destruction of the heart of Spain's military (Spanish Armada), and ended Spanish border expansion. This ended any hopes of Spain being recognized as the most powerful country in Europe. Although Spain was on the decline before Philip II died, after his death in 1598 Spain would never be as powerful or as great as it was during the reign of Philip II. As Spain began to decline, England and France would compete for the recognition of being the most powerful country in the world.

4.2. The Revolt of the Netherlands against the Spanish Habsburg

4.2.1 Causes of the Revolt

The territory known as Netherlands comprised the modern kingdoms of Holland and Belgium. It was formerly belonged to the Dukes of the Burgundy and passed to the House of the Hapsburgs. Netherlands consisted of seven provinces. Each of them formed a separate state. There was a General Assembly known as States General for common purposes.

Charles V of the Hapsburgs wanted to unite all the provinces of Netherlands under a common system of law. He often intervened in the provincial affairs and put down Lutheran heresy. But despite that people of Netherlands did not put strong protest because they considered him as their own. But his son Philip II was considered as a stranger because he could not dispense with his haughty Spanish manners. Hence the opposition of the people of Netherlands started.

Philip wanted to centralize his authority in the Netherlands by excluding the local nobles from position.

The people of Netherlands opposed against the large army stationed in their territories Philip imposed many new taxes on the people. Philip could not tolerate that Protestantism should prevail in Netherlands.

4.2.2 The Revolt

Nobles headed by William of Orange directed their opposition against Inquisition (investigation) and certain unpopular officials like Granville. Nobles formed a League and prepared a document known as “Compromise,” by which Inquisition was declared as a hateful system. But it was rejected by the government, which led to the revolt of the Netherlands, although suppressed by the government.

Philip sent Duke of Alva to punish the Netherlands to crash the rebellion. Alva set up a Council for the trial of those who had taken part in the late disturbances. This tribunal spread terror throughout the land. The conflict turned into a struggle for national independence. Protestantism soon assumed a strong political significance and came to be associated with opposition to the foreigners. William of Orange reinforced its military force and started fighting the forces of Alva. But his forces were defeated by Alva.

Alva imposed a 10% tax up on every commercial transaction. This aroused great indignation among the commercial classes. The Netherlands made a sudden raid on the town of Brille and drove away the Spanish garrisons. They continued their attack on the Spanish army settled in other towns. The fall of Brille is considered to be of so great significance that the struggle for Dutch independence is dated from this event of 1572. At a meeting in Dordrecht in July of 1572,

the Provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht and Friesland named William of Orange Governor-General.

Faced with expensive wars with France and with the Ottomans in the Mediterranean, and harassed by English and Dutch pirates at sea, Spain was forced into declaring bankruptcy in 1575. In 1576 the Provinces of the Netherlands signed the Pacification of Ghent, which promised to drive the Spanish army from the Netherlands, establish religious toleration, and unite the Provinces under one government headed by William of Orange. In 1579, the Provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Guelders, Groningen, Brabant and Flanders signed the Union of Utrecht.

While the Revolt of the Netherlands was not legally settled until 1648 with the signing of the Peace of Munster between the Republic of the United Provinces and Spain, the *de facto* independence of the Northern Provinces, which called itself the United Provinces, was set in motion with the Union of Utrecht and had been achieved largely by 1588, when England and France recognized their independence. Spain partially recognized the republic's independence by signing a truce with the United Provinces in 1609.

4.2.3 The Consequence of the Revolt

William of Orange never accepted the division of the Netherlands, nor advocated the creation of a Republic. He was, however, assassinated in 1584 by an agent of Philip II. Failing to find a suitable sovereign, the United Provinces settled on becoming a republic. The revolt of the Netherlands resulted in the end of the Hapsburg project of a united Netherlands. Instead the Southern Provinces, considerably diminished during the 17th century by French expansion, became an entity ruled by the Spanish and by the Austrians after 1713. The Southern Netherlands (Belgium) lost its political, privileges and the local aristocratic and patrician forms of government. Instead, it was ruled by foreign princes and became almost exclusively Catholic. The Catholic provinces of the South continued to be ruled by Spain and were called Spanish Netherlands. It also lost its role as a European center of trade and its once pre-eminent manufacturing industries declined. While it remained a relatively prosperous society, its wealth became increasingly dependent upon its progressive and prosperous agriculture until well into the 18th century when its industries again began to grow.

The North, by contrast, began a period of unprecedented economic growth, which made it the richest state in Europe based upon its near monopoly for much of the 17th century of Europe's carrying trade, the development of Amsterdam as Europe's financial center, the growth of a large and diverse manufacturing sector, the largest fishing industry in Europe and a innovative and

prosperous agriculture. Militarily it was one of three or four European great powers, especially at sea but also on land, during the 17th century. Culturally, it was a relatively open and tolerant society, with a vibrant intellectual life in both the arts and sciences.

4.3. The Thirty Years War

4.3.1 Background to the War

The cause of the conflict was owed much to the religious and political crises caused by the Reformation and the competition between monarchs, particularly the Habsburgs of the Holy Roman Empire, various German princes, and the monarchs of Sweden and France. What began as an attempt to correct abuses within the Catholic Church eventually led to a number of violent conflicts within that institution as well as between nations. The immediate cause was the expulsion of two Catholic officials by Protestants from a window in Bohemia's capital, Prague. That event, known as the Defenestration of Prague, was the result of a meeting between Bohemian Protestants upset over Catholic oppression.

While Protestants all over Europe viewed the event as a blow against their enemies, Catholics were angered by the mistreatment of the emperor's men. Reaction in Bohemia was swift. Protestants openly rebelled and invited Frederick V, the elector palatine, to reign as king of Bohemia, a move encouraged by Frederick's advisers, among them Christian of Anhalt-Bernburg. Ferdinand II, who was king of Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary and would soon be the new Holy Roman emperor, naturally objected to the usurper.

The Thirty Years' War is typically broken into phases: the Bohemian, Danish, Swedish, and French periods. Each of those phases reflects the entry or impact of a particular state.

4.3.2. The Bohemian Rebellion 1618- 1623

Right after the defenestration of Prague the fighting begins between the Catholics and Protestants. The Protestants were mostly Czechs which makes sense since most of them were in Prague. They rose up and forced Ferdinand to leave office. To replace Ferdinand they chose Frederick V. Ferdinand was the Holy Roman Emperor and used money from the Catholic League and the Spanish Habsburgs to build an army. The Catholic League was a group of Catholic princes who pooled their money and armies to oppose the spread of Protestantism in Germany. Ferdinand with his huge army begins the war.

Things start off well for the Protestants until the battle of White Mountain, where the Protestants are crushed. Things looked bad for the Protestants after this. After White Mountain the Jesuits (Catholic Church members) went about trying to convert those Protestants that didn't want to

fight. The catholic forces took care of the Protestants on the battle field while the Jesuits worked away on the Protestants that were not on the battlefield.

During the fighting in Bohemia the Spanish Hapsburgs attacked the holdings of Frederick along the Rhine River. Frederick had his hands full fighting the emperor and was unable to win back his land along the Rhine.

4.3.4 The Danish Phase 1625-1629

King Christian IV of Denmark enters the war on the side of the Protestants. Christian's goal was to turn the tide of the war and help the Protestants win. The emperor issued the Edict of Restitution in 1629. The Edict outlawed all forms of religion, but Catholicism and Lutheranism. By 1630 the Hapsburg family were at the zenith of their power. The war was going the way they wanted it to. They seemed well on their way to controlling Germany. They had Spain under control with the Hapsburgs they had there.

4.3.5 The Swedish Phase of the Thirty Years War 1630-1635

This time king GustavusAdolphus of Sweden enters the war. Adolphus wanted the Protestants to win, but he also wanted some more land (alternative motives). The French, who were Catholics, subsidized the Swedish army. The catholic French are now supporting a protestant army. They wanted to undermine the Hapsburgs. Adolphus was having some success so the emperor was forced to bring back King of the Hapsburgs. Adolphus was injured in battle and shortly thereafter died in 1632. Without Adolphus things looked bad and by 1634 the Swedes were pretty much defeated.

4.3.6 French Intervention (1635 – 1648)

France was getting even more nervous now. They found themselves right between Hapsburg controlled Spain and Hapsburg controlled Germany. France goes for it and enters completely into the war, no longer just subsidizing other armies.

Finally in 1648 everybody meets at the bargaining table and starts to sign treaties. This meeting was known as the Peace of Westphalia. The peace recognized the sovereignty (government free from external control) of over 300 German princes. The peace also excluded the pope. He had nothing to do with the settlement. The peace upheld the Peace of Augsburg with the addition of Calvinism. The peace also nullified the Edict of Restitution.

4.3.7 The Consequence of the War

The Peace of Westphalia brought to a close the wars of religion that had followed in the wake of the Reformation. Because Germany had served as the principal battleground of the war, it was

devastated. It further fragmented an already politically divided region. While other countries worked toward greater unification, the German states remained independent. The German princes could choose their own religion. The northern principalities remained primarily protestant while the southern principalities remained mainly Catholic. The Netherlands and Switzerland both won recognition as independent states. This is where the Netherlands won their independence from Spain. German princes won the right to form alliances and sign treaties as long as they didn't declare war against the Holy Roman Empire. Sweden won a lot of money and became the dominate power in the Baltic with more land there. France won the region of Alsace.

The Habsburg dynasty, while it survived, no longer ruled as vast or powerful a territory as it had previously. New states, such as the Dutch Republic, and those that had weathered the war far more successfully, like France, came into new prominence. Spain loses territory and France gained it. France is now the most powerful nation on the continent. France also benefited from the weakening of the Holy Roman Empire and the Hapsburg family influence.

Exhausted by war and with agriculture, industry, and towns in ruins, most Europeans were disgusted with the cost of religious factionalism and began to embrace a new era of religious toleration.

Unit Five: The Making of Modern England and Its 17th Century Revolution

5.1. The Political Situation of England Before and During the Revolution

5.1.1 The Political Background

Over the course of many years, the Anglo-Saxons, Danes and Normans assimilated through intermarriage; creation of the English language, a mixture of Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French;

and development of common laws, traditions, customs and ideas. Thus an English nationality slowly evolved.

William the Conqueror (1066-1087), Duke of Normandy in northern France, claimed the English throne. His claim was opposed by the English Saxon nobles who supported their lord, Harold. In 1066, William led his army across the English Channel and defeated the Saxons at the battle of Hastings. Thereafter, he was crowned king.

William ordered a survey of England's landed property and other wealth. He used this information, recorded in the *Doomsday Book*, for levying and collecting taxes. He compelled all feudal lords to pledge him direct allegiance and military service.

William's successors likewise strengthened the central government. Gradually, they assumed national powers: making and enforcing laws establishing royal courts, and controlling foreign affairs.

Hundred Years' War (1337-1453) – Edward III of England claimed the French throne. War began when French forces advanced into English landholdings, and Edward invaded France. The resulting long intermittent struggle was called Hundred Years' War.

English forces invaded France and won notable battles at Crecy (1346), and Agincourt (1415). Late in the war however the English lost their military advantage. They met final defeat when the French armies, inspired by Joan of Arc, ended the English siege of the city of Orleans and drove the enemy from France.

War of The Roses (1455-1485) was resulted from conflicting claims to the English throne by two families of nobles, the House of York (whose badge was a white rose) and the House of Lancaster (whose badge was a red rose). After thirty years of bitter strife, the Lancastrians triumphed and had Henry Tudor Crowned Henry VII. The Wars of the Roses furthered the power of the monarchy in England.

Henry VII (1485-1509) reestablished the king's authority over the nobles, and furthered trade and prosperity. Henry VIII (1509-1547) replaced the Catholic Church with the Anglican Church controlled by the king. Elizabeth I (1558-1603) preserved Protestantism in England and achieved world power for England by humbling Catholic Spain. Elizabeth aided the Dutch revolt against Spain; encouraged such sea captains to raid Spanish merchant ships and New World Colonies; and organized a navy that defeated the Spanish Armada.

The Popular and leading Tudor rulers (1485-1603), particularly Henry VII, Henry VIII, and Elizabeth I:

1. Governed capably and intelligently,
2. followed a popular foreign policy by opposing Catholic Spain,
3. aided the middle class by encouraging trade and overseas expansion and
4. appeared to consult parliament but actually dominated it.

5.1.2. England under the New Ruling Dynasty: The Stuart

James Stuart, king of Scotland and distant cousin to Elizabeth, became the English king, James I. He and his descendants, the Stuart rulers, proved unpopular. Eventually, the people rebelled.

5.1.3. Source (Cause) of the Contradiction

The early Stuart kings, James I and Charles I:

- a. Ruled arrogantly and tactlessly, claiming “divine right”
- b. Followed an unpopular foreign policy by friendship for Catholic Spain,
- c. Discriminated against the puritans, a powerful Calvinist sect that considered Anglicanism too close to Catholicism and tried to “purify” Anglican practices,
- d. Harmed the middle class by taxing it heavily while neglecting to further trade.
- e. Violated English law by imprisoning opponents without fair trial, and
- f. Raised money by various means not approved by parliament. Popular resentment against Stuart policies encouraged parliament to reassert its authority.

5.1.4. The Growth of the Contradiction between Charles I and Parliament

Parliament Issues the Petition of Right (1628). In the petition of right, parliament protested the despotism of Charles I. In this document, parliament reaffirmed that according to English law the king may not:

- a. Levy taxes without parliament’s consent,
- b. Imprison persons without a specific charge and without provision for jury trial, and
- c. Quarter (board) soldiers in a private home without the owner’s permission.

Charles disregarded the petition of right and denied parliament’s authority to curb his “divine right” rule. For eleven years, Charles did not convene parliament. Ruling autocratically, he illegally raised money; imprisoned his opponents; Strengthened the Star Chamber courts, where accused persons often were compelled by torture to testify against themselves; Antagonized the puritans by demanding their conformity to church practices similar to Catholicism.

Charles I Calls and Clashes with Parliament (1640-1642). Desperate for additional funds to suppress a Scottish rebellion, Charles summoned parliament into session. Charles’ demand for

new taxes was resisted by the puritans, who insisted that he first abandon his autocratic policies. In 1642, his attempt to arrest the puritan leaders of commons caused the outbreak of civil war.

5.1.5. The Civil War between Parliament and the King

Parliament Wins the Civil War (1642-1645). Parliament rallied the middle class, the small landowners, and the puritans. Parliament also had the support of the Scots, who had rebelled against Charles' interference with their Presbyterian religion. Charles had the support of the nobility, the wealthy landowners, the high Anglican Clergy, and the Catholics. The parliamentary forces, led by Oliver Cromwell, an ardent puritan, decisively defeated the royalist armies in July 1644 /1645.

Charles I is Beheaded (1649). His most bitter foes in parliament accused him of treason, murder, and tyranny, and placed him on trial, Charles was convicted and executed. It reaffirmed that English kings had to rule, not by "divine right," but in accordance with the law.

5.1.6. The Rise of Cromwell and the Civil War

Oliver Cromwell Rules England (1649-1658). England was declared a republic, or commonwealth, and Cromwell, the victorious puritan general ruled as military dictator. In 1653 he took the title of Lord Protector of England. A highly capable leader, Cromwell furthered prosperity and maintained a successful ant-Spanish foreign policy.

5.2. The Triumph of the Parliament

5.2.1. The Restoration of Charles II and Parliament

Upon parliament's invitation, Charles II (the exiled son of Charles I) returned to England and assumed the throne. He pledged to observe Magna Carta and the petition of right, and to respect the authority of parliament. Ever mindful to his father's authority of parliament, Charles II avoided antagonizing parliament or the people.

James II Antagonizes parliament (1685-1688). Upon Charles II's death, his brother assumed the throne as James II. A convert to Catholicism, James outraged the people and parliament by:

- a) His pro-Catholic acts, and
- b) His efforts to dominate parliament and revive "divine right" rule.
- c) The birth of his son aroused fear of continuing Catholic rule in England.

5.2.2 The Glorious Revolution (1688-1689)

Parliament overthrows James II. Parliament secretly offered the English crown to William, protestant ruler of Holland, and his wife Mary (protestant daughter of James II). They accepted. When William arrived in England, James fled the country. Parliament declared the throne vacant

and proclaimed William and Mary the new king and Queen. By this bloodless revolution, Parliament:

- a) finally ended “divine right” in England, and
- b) Reaffirmed its supremacy over the king.

5.3 England after the Revolution

The revolution was the victory of the parliamentary cause. It popularized the idea of political liberty. Parliament Passes Laws Furthering Democracy. As part of this Glorious Revolution, parliament passed the following laws:

a. The Bill of rights (1689) Provided that:

- 1. the king may not make or suspend laws, levy taxes, or maintain an army without the consent of parliament,
- 2. The king may not interfere with parliamentary elections and debates,
- 3. Parliament must meet frequently.
- 4. the king must be Anglican in religion, and
- 5. the people are guaranteed basic civil liberties, the right to petition to the government and to an impartial, speedy jury trial; and protection against excessive bails and fines, and against cruel and unusual punishments

b. Hundred years later, this great document served as a model for the first ten amendments of USA Constitution- the American Bill of Rights.

c. The Toleration Act (1689) granted freedom of worship to non- Anglican protestant sects.

d. Political Parties - Political parties arose shortly before the Glorious Revolution. Each party consisted of people of similar interests who banded together to gain control of parliament. The Tories, later known as Conservatives represented the wealthy landowners. The Whigs, later known as Liberals, represented the middle class political parties. This furthered democracy by offering the voters a choice of candidates and ideas.

e. Cabinet Responsibility to Parliament - Cabinet responsibility, originating during the reign of William and Marty, means that the cabinet, or king’s chief ministers, is chosen from and is responsible to the majority party in Parliament.

f. Cabinet Executive Power - Cabinet executive power developed during the rule of King George I (1714-1727), a German prince who inherited the English throne. (His descendants have ruled England to this day and are known as the House of Windsor). Since George I spoke no English and was unfamiliar with the workings of the English

government, the cabinet and its leader, the prime minister, assumed full direction of executive affairs. (England's first prime Minister was a Whig statesman, Robert Walpole). Cabinet executive power proved to be a democratic gain, as the English King became a mere figurehead.

Unit Six: France under the Grand Monarch: The Triumph of Absolutism

6.1. France under Louis XIII (1610-1643): The Foundation of Absolutism

Louis XIII relied upon Cardinal Richelieu, his Chief Minister, to carry out his goals of establishing a centralized, absolute monarchy in France. Richelieu played a role as "Chief Minister" (1624-42). He was appointed by Louis XIII to be his "Chief Minister" (Prime Minister). Richelieu often regarded as Europe's first modern prime minister. Richelieu was

responsible for many of Louis XIII's reforms that sought to centralize the power of the monarchy and weaken the traditional powers of the nobility.

Cardinal Richelieu (1624-1642), a Cardinal of the Church and Minister to King Louis XIII, skillfully directed French affairs to attain supremacy for the king and world power for France. Richelieu destroyed the nobles' fortified castles; transferred local governmental functions from the nobles to royal officials; and levied taxes without consent of the French law-making body, the Estates-General. Richelieu led France into the Thirty Years' War in support of the Protestant cause. France defeated her Hapsburg rivals, Austria and Spain.

6.2 The Rise of Louis XIV (1643-1715)

1. Louis XIV: The Grand Monarch (ruled 1643-1715)

- a) **The Absolute Monarch** - Louis XIV represented the height of absolutism. Proclaiming that he ruled by divine right, Louis considered himself the Sun King. Near Paris, he built the magnificent Palace of Versailles, where he maintained an extravagant court. Louis exercised unlimited political powers. He did not convene the Estates-General.
- b) **Economic Affairs** – Louis entrusted economic matters to his able finance minister, Colbert. To further prosperity, Colbert promoted good farming methods, built roads, protected existing industries with tariffs, aided new industries with subsidies, and helped established French trading posts in India and colonies in North America. In 1685, to compel Catholic religious uniformity, Louis revoked the Edict of Nantes. This action damaged the economy because Thousands of Protestant Huguenots (mostly skilled workmen and enterprising businessmen) fled France. Many settled in England, Holland and America.
- c) **Foreign Affairs** – Louis pursued an ambitious, aggressive foreign policy. He sought for France her national boundaries, especially the Rhine River. Fighting three major wars, he acquired some territory but failed to achieve the Rhine boundary. In a fourth major war, Louis lost some overseas possessions but placed a Bourbon relative on the Spanish throne. At Louis XIV's death, France was the leading nation on the European continent. But the French people had wearied of wars, taxes and despotism. Louis XVI, a descendant of the Grand Monarch, was to experience the people's extreme reaction in the French Revolution.

6.3 Louis XIV and Europe

6.3.1 The War of the Spanish Succession 1702-1714

It was war with most of Europe over Spanish succession. Charles II of Spain died in 1700 and in his will, he left all his lands to Philippe, Duke of Anjou (Louis XIV's grandson). But the Emperor feared that Spain and France would unite. Louis started a war. Four fronts – with Germany, Spain, the Netherlands and Italy. The war was also fought in colonial North America. It resulted in heavy French defeats

6.3.2. The Treaty of Utrecht

The war was ended by the Treaty of Utrecht (1714). France kept her fortresses, Strasbourg and Alsace. Louis' grandson became Philippe V of Spain but had to renounce his place in French line of succession (so that France and Spain would never unite in future), and Britain emerged as the major power in North America and the West Indies and her navy controlled the Mediterranean (because they got Gibraltar).

Unit Seven: The Transformation of Eastern Europe 1648 to 1740

7.1. The Formation of an Austrian Monarchy

The Hapsburgs Acquired Austria (13th c). The Hapsburgs originated as lesser feudal lords with minor territories in Alsace, Switzerland, and Southern Germany. In 1273, Rudolf I of Hapsburg became Holy Roman Emperor, and soon afterwards, ruler of Austria. Rudolf laid the foundation

for future Hapsburg power. For over 600 years, his descendants governed Austria. Moreover, with few exceptions, they headed the Holy Roman Empire until its extinction (1806).

Strong Hapsburg monarchs greatly expanded the family domains. Their methods emphasized political marriages, territorial inheritance and alliances. In the late 17thc Hapsburg forces, aided by other Christian troops, raised the Turkish siege of Vienna and drove the Muslims from central Europe. By the 18thc the Hapsburg rulers exercised absolute power over a vast Austrian Empire of many nationalities: Austrians, Germans, Hungarians, Belgians, Czechs, Poles, Rumanians, Serbs, Slovenes, and Italians.

7.2 The Rise of Prussia

The Hohenzollerns, a family of German nobles from Brandenburg (the Berlin area), acquired Prussia, a land inhabited by Slavs and Germans. The early Hohenzollern rulers established autocratic government; created a well-trained army; and by war, marriage, and diplomacy, they extended their territory. For 500 years, the Hohenzollern family ruled Prussia. In 1871, when Prussia unified the German tribes, the Hohenzollern King of Prussia became Emperor of Germany.

Frederick the Great (1740-1786) was the most famous Hohenzollern absolute monarch and a military genius, pursued an aggressive foreign policy. In 1740, he seized from Austria the province of Silesia. His action culminated in a major European conflict, the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), in which he was pitted against powerful European coalition of Austria, Russia and France. Frederick, aided only by England, barely managed to retain Silesia. In 1772, sharing in the first partition of Poland, he annexed western Poland. Frederick thus converted 18thc Poland into an important European power.

7.3 Westernizing of Russia

7.3.1. Russia before the Rise of Peter the Great

In the 13th century, Russia was conquered by Asians, the Mongols, or Tartars. For over 200 years, Russia was controlled by the Mongols, who introduced Asian ways of living. Ivan the Great (ruled 1462-1505), Slavic Grand Duke of Moscow, ended Tartar domination. Thereafter, he struggled to extend his territories, subdue the nobles, and attain absolute power. So too did his grandson, Ivan the Terrible (ruled 1533-1584), who often employed great cruelty. Ivan the Terrible was the first ruler to assume the title Czar and autocrat of all Russia. After Ivan the Terrible Russia endured foreign invasions and civil wars, as the nobles fought for the control of

the throne. In 1613, an assembly of nobles chose a new Czar, Michael Romanov. For over 300 years, the Romanov family ruled Russia.

7.3.2. Russia under Peter the Great (1682-1725)

He strengthened absolutism by creating a strong army loyal to him; ruthlessly crushing a revolt of the nobles; appointing royal governors to replace local officials; and extending government control over the Russian Orthodox Church.

Peter wanted to model Russia after European culture, rather than Byzantine or Asian culture. Having traveled through Western Europe, he greatly admired its civilization. He introduced into Russia Western ideas on science, education, military training and industry. To imitate Western social customs, he ordered his subjects to shave their long beards and discard their oriental garments.

Unit Eight: The American War of Independence (1775-1783)

8.1 The Causes of the War and the Beginning of the Resistance

Basic Causes of the American Revolution:

- 1. Economic** - (a) Colonial manufactures and merchants were indignant over the English mercantilist laws, which hampered their industry and trade. They rejected the doctrine that colonies exist only to enrich the mother country; (b) Plantation owners and frontiersmen, eager for new land, disliked the prohibition against westward expansion; (c) Professional people opposed the stamp tax on printed matter, such as newspapers, pamphlets and legal documents; (d) Consumers resented import taxes, which raised living costs.
- 2. Political** – (a) The colonists maintained that they could be taxed only by their colonial legislatures; therefore, they considered taxes voted by parliament as “taxation without representation.” They dismissed the English argument that parliament legislates for the entire Empire; (b) The colonists regarded the quartering of English soldiers, the writs of assistance and denial of jury trials as violations of their “rights and Englishmen.” The colonists claimed that, as 17th century Englishmen had revolted against the tyranny of the Stuarts, they were revolting against the tyranny of George III.
- 3. Social** - (a) Many colonists of English stock no longer considered themselves Englishmen; after several generations, the new world environment had transformed them into Americans; (b) The non-English colonists such as the Irish, Dutch, and French came from countries traditionally hostile to England.
- 4. Misunderstanding** - The colonies were separated from England by the Atlantic Ocean, a body of water 3,000 miles wide and bridged only by slow moving ships. This great distance proved a barrier to understanding, negotiation, and compromise.
- 5. Effect of the French and Indian War (1754-1763)** - Although England won the French and Indian War; the English government considered the aid received from the American colonies greatly inadequate. King George III determined:
 - a. reestablish control over the colonies, and
 - b. Compel the colonies to bear part of the war’s cost.
- 6. Strict Control (After 1763)** -England then:
 - c. Vigorously enforced the Navigation Acts.
 - d. Combated colonial smugglers
 - e. Subjected colonists to an import tax, particularly on tea and sugar, and a stamp tax on printed materials.

The colonial patriots:

- a. Smuggled goods to evade import taxes.

- b. Boycotted English goods,
- c. Demonstrated against English soldiers,
- d. Organized committees to coordinate anti-English efforts, and

In 1773, Massachusetts colonists, protesting the import tax dumped British tea into Boston Harbor - an event called the Boston Tea party. This action provoked the British parliament to punish Massachusetts by restricting self-government and temporarily closing Boston Harbor—laws that the colonists called “intolerable.” The other colonies rallied to support Massachusetts and united in their action against England by forming the First continental congress. Tension increased between patriots and British officials. In 1775, at Lexington and Concord, colonial minutemen fired upon British troops marching from Boston to seize colonial military supplies and leaders.

8.2 The Declaration of Independence

In 1776, the second continental congress decided that the colonies were fighting for complete independence from England. The Declaration of Independence, chiefly by Thomas Jefferson, was a great democratic document. The Declaration outlines the basic principles that underline democratic governments:

1. “All men are created equal” and “are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable Rights” (rights that cannot be taken away), including “Life Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.”
2. To secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, “deriving their just powers from the Consent of the governed.”
3. “Whenever any form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government.”

8.3 The Final Military Engagement

The American patriots were experienced wilderness fighters. They were led by courageous, able men, notably the commander-in Chief, George Washington. They were aided by such capable foreign volunteers as the Frenchman Lafayette. They were joined in the conflict by France in 1778 and later by Spain and Holland. Thus, the American Revolution became part of a larger war, in which the colonists, with foreign assistance, achieved victory. By the Treaty of Paris (1783) or Versailles the thirteen American colonies secured their independence from England.

8.4 The Aftermaths of the War

In 1789, the constitution established the present government of the United States of America.

Representing many democratic gains, this written constitution:

- A) Created a federal republic headed by an elected president
- B) Stated the powers of and limitations upon, the government
- C) Separated governmental powers among three branches
- D) In 1791, included a Bill of Rights which protected the people from possible government tyranny.

In Latin America, the American Revolution inspired the New World colonies of Spain and Portugal to revolt in the early 19th century and achieve self-government

In England, the American Revolution,

- a) Discredited George II and his efforts to revive royal executive power, and
- b) To prevent colonial rebellion, England eventually granted self-government to most of her possessions, starting in 1867 with Canada.

In France, the American Revolution, by encouraging Frenchmen to replace their absolute monarchy with a more democratic government, helped inspire the French Revolution of 1789.

Unit Nine: The French Revolution

9.1 The Causes for the Revolution

1. Political

- a) The king was an absolute monarch ruling by divine right.
- b) The king selected his ministers on the basis of noble birth or favoritism, not ability.
- c) The king censored speech and press to stifle what he considered dangerous ideas.
- d) The king imprisoned his enemies indefinitely, without charge, bail, or trial.
- e) The king denied the people a voice in the government.

2. Social - The French people were divided into three rigid, distinct classes, called Estates. The First Estate consisted of the clergy; the Second Estate, of the nobility; the Third Estate, of the rest of the population: the bourgeoisie (Merchants, manufactures, professionals), city workers, and peasants. The First and Second Estates, totaling 3% of the population, were the privileged classes. They: a) Owned most of the land, b) collected special feudal dues from the peasant, c) received exemption from most taxes, d) held the best government and army

jobs, and e) enjoyed special treatment before the law. The Third Estates, or 97% of the population, was the unprivileged class.

3. Economic - The Third Estate bore almost the entire tax burden. The peasants, the most numerous Third Estate group, gave the following taxes:

- a) To the government: land tax, forced labor on roads and bridges, and tax on compulsory salt purchases.
- b) To the Church: the tithe, and
- c) To the lords: Feudal dues.

The bourgeoisies, the most influential group in the Third Estate, were hampered in manufacturing and trade by

- i. provincial tariffs,
- ii. guild restrictions, and
- iii. government mercantilist regulations

5. Influence of the English and American Revolution - Of all continental Europeans, the French had been most stimulated by the puritan and Glorious Revolutions in England and by the American Revolution.

6. Incompetent and Unpopular Government - King Louis XVI (ruled 1774-1792) was incompetent to rule France in such difficult times. Louis XVI Brings France to Financial Bankruptcy (1788). As a result of his predecessors' extravagances and wars, Louis XVI inherited an impoverished French treasury. Instead of instituting reforms, he worsened the situation as he:

- a) spent heavily to aid the American colonists against England,
- b) Maintained a lavish royal court at Versailles, and
- c) Refused to tax the privileged classes.

Louis ignored the advice of two able finance ministers- first Turgot and then Necker-to end court extravagance and tax the nobility. Heeding the courtiers, Louis dismissed these ministers without effecting any financial reforms. By 1788 France was in bankruptcy.

9.2 France from Estates General to National Assembly

For 175 years (Since 1614), French kings had ruled autocratically without convening the Estates-General. By breaking this precedent, Louis admitted that the king alone could not solve France's financial difficulties.

The Estates-General consisted of the privileged. First Estate—300 representatives; the privileged and the unprivileged Third Estate—600 representatives. The two privileged classes, constituting 3% of the population, thus had as many representatives as the unprivileged class, totaling 97% of the population.

The Estates-General voted by Estates, not by individual members. Each Estate had one vote. Therefore, the two privileged Estates, together having two votes, could outvote the Third Estate. The Third estate representatives brought cahier, or lists of complaints, from the people. These documents demanded far-reaching reforms—an end to Old Regime abuses.

The Third Estate members demanded that the Estates-General be transformed into a National Assembly with each member, not each Estate, having one vote. By this method of voting, the commoners, joined by some liberal clergy and nobility, would gain the assembly majority and enact a program of basic reform.

When the king rejected the proposed National Assembly, the representatives of Third Estate took two revolutionary actions:

- a. They declared themselves to be the National Assembly
- b. In the Tennis Court Oath, they pledged to provide France with a constitution.

These actions were supported by Paris mobs, who demonstrated against the king. There upon, Louis capitulated and consented to the formation of the National Assembly.

The Bastille is Destroyed (July 14, 1789) - Incited by rumors that the king had ordered troops to Paris to disperse the National Assembly, Paris mobs stormed and destroyed a symbol of the Old Regime- the hated prison called the Bastille. When this news reached the provinces, the aroused peasants attacked nobles' castles and destroyed the records of feudal dues. By such violence, the commoners:

- a) expressed their support for the National Assembly
- b) gave warning to the king and the nobility not to resist reforms. The French people celebrate July 14-the day of the fall of the Bastille-as their great national holiday.

9.3 The Emergence of the Republic and the Regime of Terror

Constitution of 1791 - The National Assembly wrote a constitution providing for a limited monarchy:

- a. The hereditary king retained limited executive powers and had only a temporary veto over legislation.

- b. The elected legislative assembly passed the nation's laws.
- c. Members of the Assembly had to be property owners elected by taxpaying citizens.

By these provisions, the bourgeoisies, in control of the National Assembly, expected to retain power in the new government. The limited monarchy did not survive the foreign invasion of France. As Austrian and Prussian armies moved toward Paris, French antiroyalists rioted. They accused the king of being in communication with the enemy. The French legislature thereupon deposed the king and called for elections to national convention, which was to draw up a new constitution.

1. The First French Republic - The national convention proclaimed France a Republic- the First French Republic. The convention then tried Louis XVI on charges of treason and sentenced him to death by guillotine, in defiance of the strong protests of the monarchs of Europe. Soon, France was invaded by additional foreign armies. Not only Prussia and Austria, but also England, Holland, and Spain sought to crush the Revolution.

2. Jacobin Domination: The Committee of Public Safety - In the face of foreign invasion, the radical Jacobins seized control of the convention. They were determined to protect the Revolution against its enemies, both foreign and domestic. The Jacobins centralized all governmental powers into the committee of public safety. This was a small dictatorial group led first by Danton and later by Robespierre.

3. Conscript Armies Repel Foreign Invaders - To protect the revolution against foreign enemies, the committee of public safety appealed to the nationalism of the French people. The committee obligated all Frenchmen to compulsory military service, called conscription or draft. Inspired by French Revolutionary ideals, the citizen-soldiers of the conscripted armies decisively drove out the invading mercenary forces.

4. The Reign of Terror Crushes Domestic Enemies - To protect the revolution against domestic enemies, the committee of public safety instituted the reign of Terror. The committee:

- a. Arrested all persons suspected of treason, no matter how farfetched the suspicion.
- b. Sentenced many thousands to death by guillotine, no matter how meager the evidence against them. This reign of terror brutally crushed all domestic opposition.

Eventually, the horrors of the Reign of Terror turned the French people against the Jacobins and brought an end to the reign of Terror. In 1794, the rival Jacobin leaders, Danton and

Robespierre, were both guillotined, on the day known as Thermidor. The moderates or anti-Jacobins, now regained control of the national convention.

5. Noteworthy Reforms - To promote its Revolutionary goals, the national convention:

- a. Abolished imprisonment for debt,
- b. Abolished negro slavery in French colonies
- c. Adopted the metric system of uniform weights and measures,
- d. Planned a national system of education and
- e. Prohibited primogeniture, a practice that required property to be willed, regardless of other children, entirely to the eldest son.

Also, the convention drew up a constitution for a republic headed by a Directory Government. In November 1799, Napoleon overthrew Directory Government

9.4 The Directory

The Directory was the government of France during the penultimate stage of the French Revolution. Administered by a collective leadership of five directors, it operated following the Committee of Public Safety and preceding the Consulate. It lasted from 2 November 1795 until 10 November 1799, a period commonly known as the Directory era. The Directory at first had some success in foreign policy, especially right after Napoleon's conquests in Italy. It annexed Belgium and the left (western) bank of the Rhine River, and set up satellite regimes in Switzerland, the Netherlands, and most of Italy. The conquered lands were forced to provide huge subsidies to the French treasury, which otherwise was bankrupt. On the domestic front however, conditions went from bad to worse and the Directory responded with repression.

The period was a time of economic depression in France, with famines and widespread distress following the crop failure of 1795. Inflation was raging. There was a major civil war in the Vendee region. The Army crushed it by massacring thousands of civilians. The government suppressed its critics, their clubs and their newspapers. The War of the First Coalition against Britain and its allies dragged on at great expense, and with an unpopular conscription (draft) of young men. In 1799 the enemies of France scored a series of major victories, pushing the French back to their borders. The bright spot seemingly was Napoleon's highly successful campaigns, but when he invaded Egypt, the British sank his fleet and his army became trapped, while the armies still in Europe suffered a series of defeats in 1799. The Directory had very little popular

or elite support left. Napoleon returned to Paris and overthrew the Directory on November 9, 1799.

9.5 The Age of Napoleon

Napoleon Bonaparte was born on the Mediterranean island of Corsica. By 1799, he had become master of France. His amazing rise was due to

1. His Character – Napoleon possessed a brilliant mind, a keen insight into human nature, and tireless energy. Above all, he had tremendous ambition; he believed himself a “man of destiny.”
2. His Military Ability – Educated in a French military academy, Napoleon became one of history’s greatest generals. He devised superior combat tactics, inspired his soldiers, and won astounding victories. Napoleon’s troops, who fondly called him the “Little Corporal”, supported his political ambitions.
3. France’s Desire for Orderly Government – By 1799, the French people had become weary of Revolutionary disorder and were displeased with the inefficient, Corrupt Directory. They wanted a government which would prove competent and orderly. For such government, Frenchmen were willing to accept the popular military hero, Napoleon.

The Course that Napoleon Passed to Come to Power

1. First Public Recognition (1793-1795) – Napoleon, as artillery officer, helped drive England troops from the French seaport of Toulon. Later, in 1795, Napoleon dispersed rioting Paris mobs that threatened the National Convention.
2. Italian Campaign (1796-1797) – Napoleon was now given command of the French army in Italy and won a series of impressive victories in which he routed the larger Austrian forces. He thus became a national hero.
3. Egyptian Campaign (1798-1799) – To secure a base for attacking England’s valuable colony of India, Napoleon invaded Egypt. Napoleon’s reports of great military victories enhanced his military popularity. At home, the incompetent Directory was daily losing public support. French armies were suffering reverses in Europe. The French fleet in the Mediterranean was destroyed by the British under Admiral Nelson in the Battle of the Nile. In 1799, Napoleon left his army in Egypt and returned to France.
4. Coup d’état (1799) – Napoleon ousted the Directory by a coup d’état. he prepared a new constitution, and it was approved by a plebiscite. The constitution retained the form of a

republic but concentrated governmental power in the First Consul. Napoleon ruled France officially as First Consul, but in reality as military dictator.

5. Proclamation of Empire (1804) – Napoleon changed the republic into an Empire and crowned himself Emperor Napoleon I. Impressed by Napoleon's military and governmental achievements, the people again voted overwhelming approval. The French Revolution had thus led to an undisguised dictatorship.

Napoleon Dominates Europe

In 1799, France was at war with the allies, a coalition of Europe's hereditary rulers who were determined to crush the French Revolution. Napoleon took command of the French forces, won significant victories, and in 1802 ended the war favorably for France.

After a brief peace, Napoleon and the Allies resumed the conflict. The Allies wanted to overthrow Napoleon and destroy French power. Napoleon wanted to dominate Europe. From 1803 to 1809, Napoleon achieved great triumphs, defeating Austria and Russia at Austerlitz, Prussia at Jena, and Russia at Friedland. Only England, with her powerful navy, remained safe. From 1810 to 1812, at the height of his power, Napoleon dominated continental Europe from the Atlantic coast to Russia.

Napoleon's Downfall: Reasons

1. Personal Weakness – Napoleon's ambition caused him to overreach himself. In conquering most of Europe, he created an Empire too complex to be ruled efficiently by one man. His lust for territory and power was limitless. And as he grew older, he became stubborn and unwilling to accept advice.
2. England's opposition to Napoleon – (a) Napoleon was the symbol of the excesses of the French Revolution. The English government, a limited monarchy controlled by the upper class, feared the shattering of tradition and the violence that had been generated by the revolution. (b) Napoleon sought to unite Europe under his rule, whereas England wanted no one continental nation to be all-powerful. In a divided Europe, England could shift her support from one nation to another and thereby wield the balance of power. (c) Napoleon aided French merchants and manufacturers in capturing continental markets from the British. Britain, the leading industrial and trading nation, suffered economic hardship and could not tolerate this blow at her economic well-being. (d) Napoleon planned to restore French colonial power. In the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), France had lost her major overseas territories, and

England had become the leading colonial nation. Now England considered the colonial ambitions of Napoleon as a threat to her possessions.

3. England's Control of the Seas – Napoleon Dominated on land, but England was “mistress of the seas.” Under Admiral Nelson, the British navy overwhelmed the French Fleets in the battle of the Nile (1798) and Trafalgar (1805). Naval Supremacy saved Britain from invasion and shattered Napoleon's dream of an overseas empire.
4. Russia's Opposition to Napoleon - As Napoleon achieved domination over Europe, Czar Alexander I feared that Napoleon's power threatened Russia. Also, the Russians suffered economic loss under the Continental System, which kept their grain from English markets.

Industrial Revolution

Meaning: the Industrial Revolution refers to the changes, beginning in the 18th century, in manufacturing methods. These were

- a) From slower, more expensive production by hand to quicker, less costly production by machine
- b) From work in the home to work in the factory.

First Phase of Industrial Revolution (1750-1870) - It consists of

- a) the invention of the first complex machines and the building of the first factories.
- b) The development of steam as a source of power for manufacturing and transportation.
- c) The expansion of the output of basic materials — coal, iron, and steel.
- d) The introduction of new methods of transportation and communication.

New or Second Phase of Industrial Revolution (1871-still Continuing) - In this phase, inventions came in greater number and brought even more sweeping changes to industry and society. This phase, still continuing, consists:

- a. The use of new sources of power -electricity , petroleum , and atomic energy -Which in turn makes possible new industries.
- b. The deliberate application of science to industry and the development of artificial or synthetic products such as nylon and plastics
- c. The construction of machines equipped with electronic brains capable of running other machines, a process called automation
- d. The invention of newer and faster means of transportation and communication such as the Airplane and radio

Roots of the Industrial Revolution

1. **Renaissance Spirit** - By emphasizing life in this world, the Renaissance encouraged men to seek material comforts. By furthering a scientific approach to problems, the Renaissance helped pave the way for inventions.
2. **Commercial Revolution** - European overseas expansion uncovered new markets and created a vast demand for goods, especially textiles. Merchants acquired large sums of money, and many invested their capital in new and faster manufacturing methods.

Industrial Revolution Starts In England: Favorable Conditions

1. **Markets** - As prosperous nation and leading colonial power, England experienced a heavy demand for goods from domestic and overseas markets.
2. **Population** - The English population included
 - a) skilled craftsmen who designed the needed machines
 - b) Wealthy capitalists who invested in such equipment
 - c) large numbers of workers who sought employment.
3. **Natural Resources** - England had coal to provide steam power, iron ore to make machines, and good harbors to facilitate trade. Furthermore, the English colonies provided valuable raw materials, including lumber and cotton.