2012 AP EURO HISTORY

Comprehensive Study Guide

Prepared by Steven Mercado
HOW TO USE THIS STUDY GUIDE

This comprehensive study guide contains much of the essential information you will need to succeed on the AP exam. However, it does NOT contain everything you will need. It is not intended as the definitive source for your studying. The lecture notes you get from your teacher as well as pertinent information in your textbook are absolutely necessary for your success. If you are using the HistorySage.com Euro notes, those will prove to be far more thorough and complete in getting you prepared. Yet, this resource will serve as a convenient “day-before-the-exam” study guide to use for your unit exams and will work well in preparing you for a number of multiple-choice and essay questions on the AP exam.

Good luck in your AP European History course and on the AP Exam in May, 2012.

Sincerely,

Steven Mercado
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2012 FRQ STUDY GUIDE

Most Often-asked Questions (by period) in the last 10 years (Form A)

20\textsuperscript{th} Century: 20+ questions in last 10 years
- Political/Economic/Social/Western (Eastern) Europe: 1945 to Present: 10 questions in last 10 years
- Political/Social/Western Europe (Eastern Europe): 1900 to 1945: 13 questions in last 10 years
- Intellectual/Cultural/Art: 3 questions in last 10 years

19\textsuperscript{th} Century: 19 questions in last 10 years
- Political/Economic/Social: 14 questions in last 10 years
- Intellectual/Cultural/Art: 5 questions in last 10 years

Russia: 11 questions in last 10 years

Reformation/Counter/Reformation/Wars of Religion (16\textsuperscript{th} and 17\textsuperscript{th} centuries): 10 questions in the last 10 years

Women/Family 15\textsuperscript{th}-20\textsuperscript{th} Centuries: 10 questions in last 10 years (no questions in 2009, 2011)

Commercial Revolution/Exploration/Colonization/“New Monarchs”: (15\textsuperscript{th} to 17\textsuperscript{th} centuries): 9 questions in last 10 years

Political/Absolutism/Constitutionalism: 8 questions in last 10 years

Scientific Rev/18\textsuperscript{th} Century Enlightenment/Enlightened Despotism: 8 questions in last 10 years
- Scientific Revolution: 3 questions in last 10 years: 2010, 2009, 2004
- Enlightened Despotism: 4 questions in last 10 years: 2010, 2009, 2008 (2)

Comparative/Cross Century: 8 questions in last 10 years

French Revolution and Napoleon: 6 questions in last 10 years

Art: 5 questions in last 10 years

Renaissance: 4 questions in last 10 years: 2011, 2010, 2006, 2004 (10 of last 10 years for Form B)

Compare Western Europe and Eastern Europe: 3 questions in last 10 years

PERIODS & DATES IN EUROPEAN HISTORY

Later Middle Ages: 1300-1450
   Hundred Years’ War (1337-1453)
   Fall of the Byzantine Empire (1453)
Renaissance: 1300-1600 (first in Italy, then into Northern Europe)
   “New Monarchs”/ rise of modern states: late 15th century, 1st half of 16th century
   Height of Hapsburg power: mid-16th century under Charles V
Commercial Revolution: c. 1500-c. 1700
   “Old Imperialism”; 16th and 17th centuries (in New World)
Reformation: 1517
Catholic Counter Reformation: 1545-1563 (Council of Trent)
Religious Wars:
   Spanish Armada, 1588
   French Civil Wars (1562-1594)
   30 Years’ War (1618-1648); Treaty of Westphalia: 1648
Scientific Revolution: 16th & 17th centuries (Copernicus to Newton)
   Agricultural Revolution: decades prior to 1750 (leads to population explosion)
   “Golden Age of Spain”: c. 1550—c.1650
   “Golden Age of the Netherlands”: 17th century (1st half); Dutch wars w/ England lead to decline
Age of Absolutism: c. 1650-1750: Louis XIV: 1643-1715; Peter the Great: 1682-1725
   Frederick William “Great Elector” (1640-1688); Frederick William I (1713-1740)
Baroque (art): 17th century
Constitutionalism in England: 17th century
   English Civil War 1642-49
   Glorious Revolution, 1688
   Act of Union, 1707: Great Britain created
Enlightenment: 18th century
Population explosion: c. 1750
Enlightened despotism: c. 1750-c.1800 (early 19th century for Napoleon)
   Frederick the Great (1740-1786); Catherine the Great: 1762-1796); Joseph II (1780-90)
Absolutism in Eastern Europe (17th century-early 18th century): Rise of Prussia, Russia and Austria;
   decline of Poland, Ottoman Empire, and Holy Roman Empire
   “Second 100 Years War” between Britain and France: 1689-1815: Balance of Power
   War of the League of Augsburg (1689-1697)
   War of Spanish Succession (1702-1713), Treaty of Utrecht
   War of Austrian Succession (1740-1748), Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle
   Seven Years’ War (1756-1763), Treaty of Paris
   American Revolution (1775-1783)
   French Revolution & Napoleonic Wars (1792-1815), Congress of Vienna
French Revolution: 1789-1799
   “Age of Montesquieu”: National Assembly (1789-1791); Legislative Assembly (1791-92)
   “Age of Rousseau”: National Convention (1792-1795); Directory (1795-1799)
Napoleonic Era (“Age of Voltaire”): 1799-1815 (Consul: 1799-1804; Empire: 1804-1815)
Congress of Vienna, 1815

Romanticism: 1780s-1850

Industrial Revolution: c. 1750- c. 1850 in England

Concert of Europe: 1815-1848; “Age of Metternich”

Realism: 1848-late 19th century

Second French Empire: 1852-1871; Third French Republic: 1871-1940

Age of Realpolitik: 1848-1871

- Unification of Italy and Germany, 1871

2nd Industrial Revolution: late 19th century – steel, oil, electricity, chemicals

Age of Mass Politics: 1871-1914 and beyond

“New Imperialism”: 1880s-1914

World War I: 1914-1918

Russian Revolution: 1917

- Lenin-1917-1924
- Stalin—1927-1953

Interwar Period (“Age of Anxiety”): 1919-1939 – Rise of fascism and Great Depression

World War II: 1939-1945

Cold War: 1946-1991

- de-Stalinization under Khrushchev (1955-1964)
- conservatism and re-Stalinization under Brezhnev (1964-1982)

 détente – 1972-1979

Gorbachev: glasnost and perestroika: 1985-1991

Revolutions of 1989 and fall of Soviet Union 1991

Decolonization: 1945-1970s; India, China, Egypt, Vietnam, Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia

European Union/Treaty of Maastricht, 1991

Counterculture and student protests: 1960s

1970s: economic stagnation

1980s: resurgence of conservatism and the Atlantic Alliance: Thatcher, Kohl, Reagan

1990s: Breakup of Yugoslavia, European Union


“Short 20th Century”: 1914-1991
## Contrasting the Renaissance and Later Middle Ages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Later Middle Ages</th>
<th>Renaissance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religion</strong></td>
<td><strong>Philosophy:</strong> Humanism – Emphasis on secular concerns due to rediscovery and study of ancient Greco-Roman culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominated politics; sought unified Christian Europe.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Church is supreme to the state.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inquisition started in 1223; dissenters dealt with harshly</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Scholasticism:</strong> Thomas Aquinas – reconciles Christianity with Aristotelian science.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Ideal:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ideal:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Man is well-versed in one subject and it is how to get to heaven</td>
<td>• Virtù – Renaissance Man should be well-rounded (Castiglione)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Literature:</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Based almost solely on religion.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Written in Latin</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Church was greatest patron of arts and literature.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Little political criticism.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Hand-written</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Religion:</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• The state is supreme to the church.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• “New Monarchs” assert power over national churches.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Rise of skepticism</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Renaissance popes worldly and corrupt</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sculpture:</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• More gothic; extremely detailed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Relief</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Painting</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Gothic style</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Byzantine style dominates; nearly totally religious.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Stiff, 1-dimentional figures.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Less emotion</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Stylized faces (faces look generic)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Use of gold to illuminate figures.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Lack of perspective.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Lack of chiaroscuro</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Patronized mostly by the church</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sculpture:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Greek and Roman classical influences.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Free-standing (e.g. Michelangelo’s David)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Use of bronze (e.g. Donatello’s David)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Painting:</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Increased emphasis on secular themes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Classic Greek and Roman ideals.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Use of perspective.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Chiaroscuro</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Increased use of oil paints.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Brighter colors</td>
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<tr>
<td>• More emotion</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Real people and settings depicted.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Patronized largely by merchant princes</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Renaissance popes patronized renaissance art</td>
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</tbody>
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### Later Middle Ages

**Architecture**
- Gothic style
- Pointed arches; barrel vaults, spires
- Flying buttresses
- Elaborate detail

**Technology**
- Depended on scribes

**Marriage and Family**
- Divorce non-existent
- Marriages arranged for economic reasons
- Prostitution in urban areas
- Ave. age for men: mid-late twenties
- Ave. age for women: less than 20 years old
- Church encouraged cult of paternal care
- Many couples did not observe church regulations on marriage
- Manners shaped men to please women
- Relative sexual equality

### Renaissance

**Architecture**
- Rounded arches, clear lines; Greco-Roman columns
- Domes (e.g. *Il Duomo* by Brunelleschi)
- Less detailed
- Focus on balance, symmetry and form

**Technology**
- Printing press
- New inventions for exploration

**Marriage and Family**
- Divorce available in certain cases (Protestant countries)
- More prostitution
- Increased marriages based on romance (but still more heavily based on economic considerations)
- Woman was to make herself pleasing to the man (Castiglione)
- Sexual double standard
- Increased infanticide

### THE RENAISSANCE

- Renaissance Italy: (c. 1300-1527)
- Origins of Renaissance: Jacob Burckhardt, a 19th-century historian, claimed the Renaissance period stood in distinct contrast to the Middle Ages
- Northern Italian cities developed international trade: Genoa, Venice, Milan
  - Profits from trade led to enormous patronage of the arts

**Politics among the Italian City-States**

- **Republic of Florence** (included Republic of Genoa) – **Medici family**
  - Medici power rested on banking and commerce
  - Cosimo de’ Medici (1389-1464): allied with other powerful families of Florence and became the unofficial ruler of the republic
    - Most powerful of the Medici rulers
  - Lorenzo “the Magnificent” de’ Medici (1449-1492): major patron of the arts
- **Duchy of Milan** -- **Sforza** family; **Caterina Sforza** (1463-1509): major art patron (e.g. Leonardo da Vinci)
  - Major enemy of Florence throughout much of the Renaissance
  - **Peace of Lodi** (1454): resulted in a balance of power and peace between Milan, Florence, and Naples that lasted until the French invasions of the 1490s
- **Rome, the Papal States** – controlled by the “Renaissance popes”
- **Naples, Kingdom of the Two Sicilies**: controlled by Spain after 1435
• **Venice, Venetian Republic**
  o Great naval and trading power
  o Longest lasting of the Italian city-states

• **Isabella d’Este** (1474-1539): most famous Renaissance female ruler (ruled Mantua)

• **Condottieri**: leaders of private armies hired by cities for military purposes

• **Girolamo Savonarola** (1452-1498)
  o After Medici were removed from power, he established a theocracy in Florence between 1494-98, with the help of France.
  o Earlier had predicted French invasions due to paganism and moral decay of Italian city-states
  o Burned at the stake in 1498 after the French were removed from Italy

• Charles VIII (r. 1483-1498), led French invasions of Italy that made it a battleground for international ambitions between France and Spain and effectively ended the sovereignty of most Italian city-states

• **Niccolò Machiavelli** (1469-1527) -- *The Prince* (1513)
  o Modeled *The Prince* after Cesare Borgia, Pope Alexander VI’s son, who sought to unite Italy under Roman rule
  o Most influential source on gaining and maintaining power in modern European History
  o Emphasized practical politics: “the end justifies the means”; “it is better to be feared than loved”

• Armies of Charles V, **sack of Rome in 1527**: symbolized end of Renaissance in Italy

→**Humanism** -- Revival of antiquity (Greece and Rome) in literature

• **Characteristics:**
  o Revival of ancient Greek and Roman philosophy, literature, and art
  o Strong belief in individualism and the great potential of human beings
    ▪ **virtú**: the quality of being a great man in whatever noble pursuit
  o Focused initially on studying ancient languages, especially Latin and later, Greek
  o Rejected Aristotelian views and medieval **scholasticism**
  o Believed in a liberal arts educational program that included grammar, rhetoric, poetry, history, politics and moral philosophy
  o **Civic Humanism**: education should prepare leaders who would be active in civic affairs
  o Often, more secular and lay dominated

• **Petrarch**
  o Saw the Medieval period as the “Dark Ages”
  o “Father of humanism” and first modern writer, literature was no longer subordinate to religion

• **Leonardo Bruni** (1370-1444) – wrote history of Florence; division of historical periods; narrative form; civic humanist; first to use the term “humanism”

• **Lorenzo Valla** (1407-1457)—expert in the study of Latin; translated Roman manuscripts
  o **Donation of Constantine** exposed false land claims of the Catholic Church

• **Marsilio Ficino** (1433-1499):
  o Founded Platonic Academy at the best of Cosimo de’ Medici
  o Translated many of Plato’s works into Latin

• **Pico della Mirandola** (1463-1494) *Oration on the Dignity of Man*;
  o Emphasized that humans are capable of achieving great things and are made in God’s image; (contrasts medieval view of humans as insignificant and inherently sinful)
  o Major figure in the Platonic Academy in Florence

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• Baldassare Castiglione (1478-1529) – *The Book of the Courtier*
  o Perhaps most important book on courtly manners written during the Renaissance.
  o Emphasized that a Renaissance man should be well-read in the classics, a gentleman, warrior, poet, musician, etc.
  o Women were essentially to be ornaments for their husbands.
• Printing press: Johann Gutenberg – spread of humanistic literature to rest of Europe.

Renaissance Art
• Patronage
  o Florence the leader in Renaissance art especially in the 1400s
    ▪ Giorgio Vasari (1511-1574) – contemporary Renaissance art historian who detailed the lives of many Renaissance artists
    ▪ Major merchant families, such as the Medicis, provided massive patronage
    ▪ Patronage also from local churches
  o Rome became the center of Renaissance art in the 1500s (up to about 1527)
    ▪ Pope Alexander VI (1492-1503): commissioned a fortune in Renaissance art
    ▪ Also, Julius II (1503-1513); and Leo X (1513-1521)
    ▪ Artists such as Michelangelo, Raphael and Bramante received numerous commissions
• New artistic techniques
  o Painting
    ▪ perspective: 3-D effects (developed largely by Brunelleschi)
    ▪ chiaroscuro: use of dark and light colors to create the illusion of depth
    ▪ Individualism in portrayal of human figures
    ▪ sfumato: blurring or softening sharp lines in painting; developed by Leonardo
    ▪ Giotto (1266-1336) – considered the first Renaissance artist; use of chiaroscuro
    ▪ Masaccio (1401-1428) painted real, nude human figures
    ▪ Sandro Botticelli (1444-1510) – painter: *Birth of Venus, La Primavera*
    ▪ Michelangelo (1475-1564): ceiling of the Sistine Chapel
    ▪ Raphael (1483-1520): *School of Athens*, numerous Madonna and Child paintings
    ▪ Leonardo (1452-1519): *Mona Lisa, The Last Supper*
    ▪ Titian (c. 1485-1576): greatest painter of the Venetian school
  o Sculpture
    ▪ Use of marble and bronze (as was the case in ancient Greece and Rome)
    ▪ Free-standing sculptures; designed to be seen in the round; contrapposto stance
    ▪ Glorification of the human body and emphasis on individualism
    ▪ Ghiberti (1378-1455): bronze doors for Florentine baptistery (“Gates of Paradise”)
    ▪ Donatello (1386-1466 – sculptor: *David*
    ▪ Michelangelo: *David, the Pieta*
  o Architecture
    ▪ Utilized Greek temple architecture in numerous structures
    ▪ Simplicity, symmetry and balance
    ▪ Brought back domes and Roman arches of the ancient Greco-Roman tradition
    ▪ Filippo Brunelleschi (1377-1446) – architect of cathedrals (*Il Duomo* in Florence)
    ▪ Leon Battista Alberti (1404-1472), architect of cathedrals.
    ▪ Michelangelo: dome atop St. Peter’s Basilica in the Vatican
• Humanism in Renaissance art
  o Pagan themes evident in Botticelli’s *Birth of Venus*, Raphael’s *School of Athens*
  o Glorification of the human body evident in such works as Michelangelo’s *David*, and the *Creation of Adam* on the Sistine Chapel
  o Bronze used in Donatello’s *David*; marble used in Michelangelo’s *David* and *Pieta*
  o Architectural works drew on ancient Greek and Roman designs such as domes (*Il Duomo* and St. Peter’s Basilica) and Greek Temple Architecture (Bramante’s *Tempietto* and front of St. Peter’s Basilica)

Northern Renaissance ➔ Christian Humanism:
• Characteristics:
  o Emphasis on early church writings (esp. New Testament) for answers to improve society
  o Studied Hebrew and Greek texts of the Bible and writings of the Church fathers
  o Emphasized education and power of human intellect to bring about institutional change and moral improvement
  o Writings led to criticism of the Catholic Church and paved the way for the Reformation.
• Erasmus (1466-1536)
  o *In Praise of Folly* (1513): Criticized the immorality and hypocrisy of Church leaders and the clergy; some say that “Erasmus lay the egg that Luther hatched”
  o Made new “purer” translations of the Greek and Latin versions of the New Testament
  o Most famous intellectual of his time
• Thomas More (1478-1536) – *Utopia*
  o Created an ideal society on an island; but to achieve harmony and order people had to sacrifice individual rights
  o Saw accumulation of property as a root cause for society’s ills: gap between rich & poor
• Jacques Lefevre d’Etables (1454-1536): leading French humanist; produced 5 versions of the Psalms that challenged a single authoritative Bible.
• Francesco Ximenes de Cisneros (1436-1517): reformed Spanish clergy and church, Grand Inquisitor of the Spanish Inquisition
• Francois Rableis (1494-1553)
  o Secular works portrayed his confidence in human nature and reflected Renaissance tastes.
  o *Gargantua* and *Pantagruel*: satirized French society, emphasized education, attacked clerical education and monastic orders
• Michel de Montaigne (1533-1592)
  o Developed the essay form, which became a vehicle for testing new ideas
  o **Skepticism:** Doubt that true knowledge could be obtained
     Believed that the skeptic must be cautious, critical and suspend judgment.
     Thus, one must be tolerant of others’ views
• William Shakespeare (1564-1616): Elizabethan era; comedies, tragedies, histories & sonnets
  o Greatest of the English Renaissance authors
  o His works reflected the Renaissance ideas of classical Greek and Roman culture, individualism and humanism
• Miguel de Cervantes (1547-1616): *Don Quixote* (1605-15)
  o Masterpiece of Spanish literature; critical of excessive religious idealism & chivalric romance

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Northern Renaissance Art

- Flemish style: the Low Countries produced especially important artists
  - Characteristics
    - Heavily influenced by the Italian Renaissance
    - More detail throughout paintings (especially the background) than the Italian Renaissance
    - Use of oil paints (in contrast to Italian Renaissance that used tempera)
    - More emotional than the Italian style
    - Works often preoccupied with death
  - Jan Van Eyck – (c. 1339 - c. 1441) Flemish painter
    - Most famous and innovative Flemish painter of the 15th century
    - Perfected oil painting; wood panel paintings used much religious symbolism.
    - Employed incredible detail in his works
    - Arnolfini and his Wife (1434) is perhaps his most famous work.
  - Bosch (c. 1450-1516) -- Netherlands
    - Master of symbolism and fantasy
    - His art often looks surrealistic (like Dali of the 20th century) and focused often on death and the torments of Hell.
  - Peter Brueghel the Elder (1520-1569)
    - Not influenced much by the Italian Renaissance
    - Focused on lives of ordinary people (e.g. Peasant Dance (1568) Peasant Wedding (c. 1568), and The Battle Between Carnival and Lent (1559)

- Germany
  - Albrecht Dürer (1471-1528)
    - Foremost northern Renaissance artist; master of the woodcut
    - First northerner artist to master Italian Renaissance techniques of proportion, perspective, and modeling
  - Hans Holbein the Younger (1497-1543):
    - Premier portrait artist of his era: painted Erasmus, More, numerous portraits of King Henry VIII and also his family members
    - The Ambassadors (1533) encompasses some of the major themes of the era: exploration, religious discord, preoccupation with death (the skull in the foreground) and the rising tide of international relations in an age of expansion
  - Fugger family in Germany, especially Jacob Fugger (1459-1525) was significant in patronizing art of the Northern Renaissance; international banking family

- Mannerism
  - Characteristics
    - Reaction against the High Renaissance ideals of balance, symmetry, simplicity and realistic use of color
    - Works often used unnatural colors while shapes were elongated or otherwise exaggerated
  - El Greco (1541-1614): quintessential mannerist who spent most of his creative life in Spain
    - Burial of Count Orgaz (1586) is among his most famous works
Women and the Renaissance

Upper-class women

- Querelles des Femmes ("The Problem of Women"): A new debate emerged over the proper role of women in society (starting with Christine de Pisan in the 14th century); the debate continued for six hundred years.
- Women enjoyed increased access to education
- However, lost some status compared to women in the Middle Ages; many women now functioned as "ornaments" to their middle-class or upper-class husbands
- Women were to make themselves pleasing to the man (Castiglione)
- Sexual double-standard: women were to remain chaste until marriage; same not true for men
- Important Renaissance noblewomen at court in education and culture
  - Christine de Pisan (c.1363-c.1434): The City of Ladies; The Book of Three Virtues
    - Chronicled accomplishments of great women of history.
    - Renaissance woman’s survival manual.
    - She was perhaps Europe’s first feminist
  - Isabella d’Este (1474-1539): “First Lady” of the Renaissance
    - Set an example for women to break away from their traditional roles as mere ornaments to their husbands
    - Ruled Mantua after her husband died; extremely well educated
    - Big patron of the arts
    - Founded a school for young women
    - Wrote over 2000 letters that provide a window into politics & courtly life
  - Artemisia Gentileschi (1593-1651/3) (considered a Baroque painter)
    - Perhaps the first female artist to gain recognition in the post-Renaissance era.
    - First woman to paint historical and religious scenes: e.g. her “Judith” paintings
    - Female artists at this time were consigned to portrait painting and imitative poses

Peasant and lower-class women

- Status did not change much compared to Middle Ages
- Marriage
  - European Family Pattern
    - Nuclear family (poor people tended to be unable to support extended families)
    - Wealthier people (and some landowning peasants) tended to have extended families
  - Based mostly on economic considerations; not love
    - Dowries were extremely important in wealthy families.
    - Women tended to play a more significant role in the economy in Northern Europe.
  - Average age for women: less than 20 (for men it was mid-late 20s)
    - Class issues: rich tended to marry earlier than middle classes, and poor tend to marry earlier too, or not to marry at all.
    - In Italy, the age gap between husbands and wives was larger than in Northern Europe
  - Increased infanticide and abandonment (among the poor)
    - Increase of foundling hospitals (2/3 of abandoned babies were girls)
    - Low rate of illegitimate births
    - Dramatic population growth until 1650
  - Divorce available in certain areas (but still very limited) compared to Middle Ages where divorce was non-existent
    - This was largely due to a modest increase in divorce in Reformation countries
- Rape not considered a serious crime
- More prostitution than in Middle Ages

- Female rulers
  - Caterina Sforza in Milan
  - Isabella I: Unified Spain along with her husband Ferdinand.
  - Mary Tudor (“Bloody Mary”): Ruled England (1553-1558)
  - Elizabeth I: Ruled England (1558-1603)
  - Catherine de Médicis: Ruled France as regent from 1559 to 1589

- Persecution of witches
  - 70,000-100,000 people killed between 1400 and 1700
  - Causes
    - Popular belief in magic
      - “Cunning folk” had been common in European villages for centuries: played a positive role in helping villagers deal with tragedies such as plagues, famines, physical disabilities, and impotence.
    - Claims to power often by the elderly or impoverished, and especially women
    - The Catholic Church claimed that powers came from either God or the Devil
      - Used witch hunts to gain control over village life in rural areas.
    - Women seen as “weaker vessels” and prone to temptation: constituted 80% of victims
      - Most between age 45 and 60; unmarried
      - Misogyny (hatred of women) played a role as Europe was a highly patriarchal society
    - Most midwives were women; if babies died in childbirth midwives could be blamed
    - Religious wars and divisions created panic environment: scapegoating of “witches”
      - Leaders tried to gain loyalty of their people; appeared to be protecting them
  - End of witch hunts
    - Scientific Revolution of the 16th and 17th centuries increasingly discredited superstition
    - Advances in medicine and the advent of insurance companies enabled people to better take care of themselves when calamities struck.
    - Witch trials had become chaotic; accusers could become the accused (thus, using witch trials for political gain could be very risky)
    - Protestant Reformation emphasized God as the only spiritual force in the universe.
      - Yet, witch trials did occur in great numbers in Protestant countries as well
    - Some literature of the 16th & 17th century implied that people had a large degree of control over their own lives and did not need to rely on superstition.

- Joan Kelly: “Did Women Have a Renaissance?” (1977)
  - Middle-class women especially suffered a marked decline in their status along with that of noble women during the Italian Renaissance
  - Middle class women were exclusively relegated to the private sphere while men monopolized political and economic issues in the public sphere.
  - Sexual chastity was essential for both women of the nobility and the bourgeoisie; a double-standard existed as chastity was not expected of men
  - Medieval feudalism permitted homage to female vassals but in Renaissance Italy feudalism came to be replaced by powerful city-states. Thus, the political power of women in many cases vanished.
    - Noble women thus experienced a state of almost universal dependence on her family and husband
Non-military education by tutors for young noblemen (and women) had often been done by females in the Middle Ages. During the Renaissance female tutors were replaced with male humanistic tutors or boarding schools (that emphasized patriarchal and misogynous bias), thus reducing the educational influence of women.

“New” Monarchs (c. 1460-1520)

- Consolidated power and created an early foundation for Europe’s first modern nation-states in France, England and Spain
  - New Monarchies were not, however, nation-states (in the modern sense) since populations did not necessarily feel that they belonged to a “nation”
    - Identity tended to be much more local or regional
    - Modern notion of nationalism did not emerge until the late 18th and early 19th centuries.
  - Characteristics of New Monarchies
    - Reduced the power of the nobility through taxation, confiscation of lands (from uncooperative nobles), and hiring of mercenary armies or the creation of standing armies
      - The advent of gunpowder increased the vulnerability of noble armies and their knights
      - Many nobles in return for their support of the king gained titles and offices
    - Reduced the political power of the clergy
    - Created more efficient bureaucracies
    - Increased the political influence of the French bourgeoisie (at the expense of the nobility)
    - Increased the public (national) debt by taking out loans from merchant-bankers
  - Opposition to the “new monarchs”
    - Nobles resented the decline of political influence
    - Clergy members saw the pope as their leader, not the monarch
    - Independent towns resisted more centralized monarchical control

- France
  - Valois dynasty: oversaw France’s recovery after the 100 Years’ War
    - Louis XI “Spider King” (1461-83):
      - large royal army
      - ruthlessly suppressed nobles
      - taxes
      - power over clergy
      - actively encouraged economic growth
  - Francis I (1515-1547):
    - Concordat of Bologna (1516): king now appointed bishops to the Gallican Church
      - Major reason why Reformation did not take hold in France
    - taille: direct head tax on all land and property
    - Large royal army

- England: Rise of the Tudor dynasty
  - War of the Roses: House of York defeated House of Lancaster; gave rise to the Tudor dynasty
    - Henry VII (1485-1509)
      - Reduced the power of the nobility
        - Star Chamber: nobles were tried without a jury and were often tortured
        - Nobles not allowed to have own private armies
      - English Parliament still had influence over taxation and government policy
  - Henry VIII (1509-1547) can be viewed as a “new monarch” although some would consider him part of the more powerful next generation of rulers. (See page 23)
Spain
- 1469, marriage of **Ferdinand of Aragon** (1478-1516) & **Isabella of Castile** (1474-1504) began the process of centralizing power.
- **1492**: unified Spain
  - **Reconquista**—removed last of Moors
  - Expulsion of Jews (between 30,000 and 60,000)
- **Hermandades**: alliance of cities to oppose nobles; reduced power of the nobility
- Spanish Inquisition: Isabella sought to enforce the authority of the national church
  - **Tomás de Torquemada**, a Dominican monk, oversaw the Inquisition
  - Often targeted **conversos**, Jews who had converted to Christianity, but who were suspected of backsliding into Judaism
  - Began a wave of anti-Semitism in certain parts of Europe

⇒ **Habsburg Empire**: (Holy Roman Empire)
- HRE consisted of about 300 semi-autonomous German states
- Most powerful European political entity in the 16th century (under the reign of Charles V)
  - NOT a “new monarchy” in that the emperor did not have centralized control, could not levy taxes and raise armies outside of his own hereditary lands in Austria
- Center of Hapsburg power was in Austria and in nearby German states
- **Maximilian I** (r. 1493-1519): gained much territory in eastern France with his marriage to Mary of Burgundy
  - This sparked a fierce dynastic struggle between the Valois in France and the Hapsburgs that would last until 1559 (Hapsburg-Valois Wars).
- **Charles V** (r. 1519-1556): most powerful ruler in Europe (1st Holy Roman Emperor)
  - Ruled Spanish and Austrian Hapsburg branches, sacked Rome in 1527
  - Sought to prevent spread of Protestant Reformation in Germany

**COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION** (16th century: approx. 1500-1700)
⇒ Significance: brought about age of discovery and exploration
- **Causes**:
  - Roots existed in the Middle Ages such as the Hanseatic League
  - Population growth created larger markets: 70 million in 1500; 90 million in 1600
  - **“Price revolution”:** (long slow upward trend); increased food prices, increased volume of money, influx of gold & silver
  - States and emerging powers sought to increase their economic power
  - Rise in capitalism (laissez-faire): **entrepreneurs**; bourgeoisie at the forefront
- **Features**
  - Banking: Fuggers (in Germany), Antwerp in 16th century, Amsterdam in 17th century
  - The **Hanseatic League** evolved from within the German states in the Middle Ages that eventually controlled trade in much of northern Europe well into the 16th century.
  - Chartered companies: state provided monopolies in certain regions (BEIC, DEIC)
  - Joint-stock companies: investors pooled resources for common purpose (forerunner of modern corporation)
  - Stock markets: e.g., Bourse in Antwerp
  - First Enclosure movement in England (for sheep raising)
  - “Putting-out” Industry emerged in the English countryside for production of cloth.
New industries: cloth, mining, printing, book trade, shipbuilding, cannons & muskets
Consumer goods: sugar (most important), tea, rice
Mercantilism: certain nations such as France, England and the Netherlands, sought self-sufficient economy and a favorable balance of trade; “bullionism”
The Columbian Exchange (see p. 119)

Significance
Slow transition from a European society that was almost completely rural and isolated to a society that was more developed with the emergence of towns.
Enabled the emergence of more powerful nation states
Brought about the age of exploration as competing nations sought to create new empires overseas
The “price revolution”
Bourgeoisie grew in political and economic significance
Increased standard of living
African slave trade emerged

AGE OF EXPLORATION AND CONQUEST (“Old Imperialism”)
Causes for exploration:
“God, glory, and gold” were the primary motives
Christian Crusaders in 11th & 14th centuries created European interest in Asia and Middle East
Francis Xavier (1506-1552): most important Catholic missionary in the East Indies
Rise of nation states (“New Monarchs”) resulted in competition for empires and trade
Portugal and Spain sought to break the Italian monopoly on trade with Asia.
Impact of the Renaissance: search for new knowledge
Revival of Platonic studies, especially mathematics
Awareness of living “at dawn of a new age”
Invention of printed book: publication and circulation of accurate texts and maps
Cartography improvements facilitated improved navigation
Ptolemy’s Geography, 1475: map making
Martin Behaim: terrestrial globe, 1492
Waldseemuller’s world map (1507)
Mercator’s map (ca. 1575)
Technology
Astronomy
Magnetic compass (ca. 1300): helped determine direction
Quadrant (c. 1450), astrolabe (c. 1480) and cross staff (c. 1550): determined latitude
Ships
Portuguese caravel (ca. 1450): lighter, faster ships; could sail into the wind
Lateen sail and rope riggings: maneuverable sails took advantage of wind power from any direction
Axial rudder (side rudder): improved ability of ships to change direction
Gunpowder and cannons: provided protection from hostile ships and enabled European domination of indigenous peoples
Commercial revolution resulted in capitalist investments in overseas exploration
Religious desire to convert pagan peoples in the New World
• **Portuguese exploration**
  o **Prince Henry the Navigator** (1394-1460): financed exploration along coast of West Africa
  o **Bartholomew Diaz** (1450-1500): rounded southern tip of Africa
  o **Vasco da Gama** (1469-1525): rounded south of Africa and found all-water route to India
    ▪ Major blow to Italian city-states’ monopoly on trade with Asia.
  o Pedro Cabral (1467-1520): discovered Brazil
  o **Amerigo Vespucci** (1454-1512): perhaps first European to realize a new continent had been found; “America” named after him

• **Spain**: Explorers
  o **Christopher Columbus** (1451-1506)
    ▪ 1492, first European to reach the New World since the Vikings c. 1000
    ▪ Significance: a wave of European explorers, conquerors and settlers followed
    ▪ **Bartholomew de las Casas** (1474-1566) – writings about Columbus and his successors’ cruel treatment of Indians helped spread “black legend” Protestant countries regarding the Spanish empire
  o **Treaty of Tordesilla** (1494): New World divided by Spain and Portugal; Pope Leo VI
  o Vasco Nunez de Balboa (1475-1517): first to sight the Pacific Ocean; explored the isthmus of Panama
  o **Ferdinand Magellan** (1480-1521): his ship was the first to circumnavigate the globe

➡️ **Spanish Empire**

• **Conquistadores** began creating empires by conquering Indians
  o **Hernando Cortés** (1485-1547): conquered Aztecs in Mesoamerica
  o **Francisco Pizarro** (1478-1541): conquered Incas in South America

• Spanish empire resembled the “New Imperialism” of the late-19th and early 20th centuries than the “Old Imperialism” of the 16th and 17th centuries
  o 1545, world’s richest silver mines at Potosí in Peru ushered in Spain’s “golden age”
  o **Audencias**: Board of 12 to 15 judges served as advisor to viceroy and highest judicial body.
  o **Encomienda**: Indians worked for owner certain # days per week; retained other parcels to work for themselves
  o **Mestizos**: children of mixed white and Indian descent
  o **Creoles**: American-born Spaniards

➡️ **“Old Imperialism”** in Africa and Asia
  o Characterized by establishing posts and forts on coastal regions but not penetrating inland to conquer entire regions or subjugate their populations

• **Portugal**
  o Vasco Da Gama set up posts in India
  o Alphonso d’Albuquerque (1453-1515):
    ▪ Laid foundation for Portuguese imperialism in the 16th and 17th century
    ▪ Established empire in Indonesia after 1510
  o Francis Xavier: led Jesuit missionaries to Asia where by 1550 thousands of natives had been converted to Christianity in India, Indonesia, and Japan
  o Dutch Republic (Netherlands)
    ▪ **Dutch East India Company** founded in 1602 and became the major force behind Dutch imperialism (especially in Indonesia)
• Expelled Portuguese from Ceylon (Sri Lanka) and other Spice Islands (Indonesia)
• By 1650, began challenging Spain in the New World and controlled much of the American and African trade.

• France: Samuel de Champlain (c. 1567-1635) founded modern-day Canada in 1608
• England:
  o Came into exploration late
  o Established first colony in Virginia, 1607
  o Tens of thousands of Englishmen came to the eastern coast of North America in the 17th & 18th centuries
    ▪ Far more English came to the New World than France, Spain and Portugal

• The Slave Trade
  o Portugal first introduced slavery in Brazil to farm the sugar plantations
    ▪ In Europe, blacks were seen as exotic, highly prized in certain areas
    ▪ “American form” of slavery existed in Mediterranean sugar plantations
  o After 1621, Dutch East India Co. transported thousands of slaves to the New World
  o England’s Royal African Co. entered slave trade in late-17th century
  o Estimated 50 million Africans died or became slaves in the 17th and 18th centuries

• The Columbian Exchange
  o Both Europe and the New World were transformed as a result of the Age of Exploration and the exchanges that occurred between the two regions
  o By 1600, 90% of the New World’s population had perished; mostly due to disease

### The Columbian Exchange

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From the New World to Europe</th>
<th>From Europe to the New World</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diseases:</strong> syphilis</td>
<td><strong>Diseases:</strong> small pox, measles, bubonic plague, influenza, typhus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plants:</strong> potatoes, corn, tomatoes, pineapple, tobacco, beans, vanilla, chocolate</td>
<td><strong>Plants:</strong> wheat, sugar, rice coffee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Animals:</strong> turkeys</td>
<td><strong>Animals:</strong> horses, cows, pigs, sheep, goats, chickens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gold and silver</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Life in the 16th and 17th centuries
• Hierarchy:
  o Countryside: manorial lords, peasants, landless workers
  o Cities: merchants (bourgeoisie), artisans, laborers
• Demography: population growth leveled by 1650; cities saw larger increase than countryside
• Family: nuclear family; patriarchal; avg. life spans: men = 27, women = 25!; divorce rare
• Food and Diet: commoners relied on bread (& beer); upper-classes enjoyed meats, cheese, sweets; English ate the best; famines were reality in many parts
THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION

- Causes of the Reformation
  - Crises of the 14th and 15th centuries hurt the prestige of the Catholic church and its clergy
    - Babylonian Captivity
    - Great Schism
    - Conciliar Movement
  - Corruption in the Catholic Church:
    - simony: sale of church offices
    - pluralism: official holding more than one office
    - absenteeism: official not participating in benefices
    - sale of indulgences: paying a fee to the Church so that a person (or his loved ones) could escape purgatory and go to heaven
    - nepotism (favoring family members e.g. Medicis)
    - moral decline of the papacy, especially the “Renaissance popes” Alexander VI, Julius II, and Leo X
    - clerical ignorance: many priests were illiterate
  - Critics within the Church emphasized a personal relationship with God as primary
    - John Wyclif (1329-1384): England
      - Stated the Bible was the sole authority
      - Stressed a personal relationship with God
      - His followers were known as Lollards
    - John Hus (1369-1415), Bohemia
      - Ideas were similar to Wyclif’s
      - Eventually burned at the stake for his criticism of the Church
    - The Brethren of the Common Life: Thomas à Kempis, The Imitation of Christ (c. 1400)
      - Encouraged Christians to live simply and make religion a personal experience
    - Erasmus (1466-1536): In Praise of Folly (1513)
      - Criticized the corruption in the church and the hypocrisy of the clergy
      - A contemporary remarked that “Erasmus laid the egg that Luther hatched.”
  - Impact of Renaissance humanism
    - Christian humanists of the Northern Renaissance criticized the church (e.g. Erasmus) and questioned the validity of the Latin Vulgate (Catholic Bible)
      - Eventually led to reforms in the Catholic church during the Catholic Reformation
    - The Italian Renaissance was at times marked by a de-emphasis on religion while emphasizing secularism and individualism among high church leaders
    - Ulrich Zwingli (see below) was trained as a humanist and as a preacher he used Erasmus’ edition of the Greek New Testament
    - John Calvin (see below) was influenced by humanism, especially the writings of Erasmus
    - After Martin Luther’s reformation, humanists turned many monasteries into schools
    - Catholic church abuses were reformed
Martin Luther (1483-1546)

- 95 Theses (1517): Criticized the Church’s sale of indulgences
  - Johann Tetzel (1465?-1519) had been authorized by Pope Leo X to sell indulgences
    - “As soon as a coin in the coffer rings, the soul from purgatory springs.”
  - John Eck (1486-1543): debated Luther at Leipzig in 1520
    - Luther denied both the authority of the pope and the infallibility of a general council
    - Luther was excommunicated by Pope Leo X in 1520
  - Diet of Worms (1521) Tribunal of the Holy Roman Empire with power to outlaw and sentence execution through stake-burning
    - Edict of Worms: Luther outlawed by Charles V and the Holy Roman Empire
  - Confessions of Augsburg, 1530: Written by Luther’s friend Philip Melanchthon
    - Attempted compromise statement of religious faith to unite Lutheran and Catholic princes of the HRE; rejected by Catholic princes
    - Became the traditional statement of Lutheran beliefs:
      - Salvation through faith alone
      - Bible is the sole authority
      - “Priesthood of all believers:” Church consists of entire Christian community
      - Only two sacraments are valid: baptism and communion

Conflict over Lutheranism

- Numerous princes in northern German states adopted Lutheranism as their states’ faith
  - Enabled princes to remove Catholic influence from their states and confiscate Church lands
  - Denmark and Sweden became Lutheran states as well
- Charles V sought to stop Protestantism and preserve the hegemony of Catholicism in Europe
- Peasants’ War (1524-1525) (also known as Swabian Peasant uprising)
  - Twelve Articles, 1525: peasants demanded an end to feudalism
    - Inspired by Luther’s writings
  - Yet, Luther was opposed to violence and peasant movement
    - Luther was a conservative in that he believed people should obey their secular rulers.
  - About 100,000 peasants were killed as both Protestant and Catholic armies crushed the revolt
- Northern Germany
  - League of Schmalkalden, 1531: formed by newly Protestant (Lutheran) princes to defend themselves against emperors drive to re-Catholicize Germany.
    - Francis I of France allied with League (despite being Catholic)
  - Habsburg-Valois Wars: five wars between 1521 and 1555 (Francis I vs. Charles V)
    - France tried to keep Germany divided (although ironically, France was Catholic)
    - Political impact of Lutheranism in Germany: division lasted until late 19th century.
    - Wars ended by the Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis (1559)
  - Peace of Augsburg, 1555
    - Temporarily ended the struggle in Germany over Lutheranism
    - Princes in Germany could choose either Protestantism or Catholicism
    - Resulted in the permanent religious division of Germany
→ Spread of Protestantism

- **Anabaptists** (founded in 1525)
  - Beliefs
    - Voluntary association of believers with no connection to any state (“left wing of the Protestant Reformation”)
    - Rejected child baptism
    - Believed the end of the world was near
    - Rejected the Trinity
  - Münster became a radical Anabaptist stronghold in 1532
    - Led by **John of Leyden**
    - Polygamy instituted
    - Woman held some leadership positions
    - All books except the Bible were burned in the city.
    - Some Lutherans and Catholics in the city were killed
    - **Tragedy at Münster**—Protestant and Catholic forces captured the city and executed Anabaptist leaders
  - Mennonites: founded by Menno Simmons later became descendents of Anabaptists
  - Quakers in England shared similar beliefs; many came to America (founded Pennsylvania)
  - Unitarianism: denied deity of Christ but believed in Christian principles.
  - Luther did not believe in the legitimacy of any other faith except mainstream Protestantism

- **Ulrich Zwingli** (1484-1531), established a theocracy in **Zurich**, Switzerland
  - Disagreed with Luther over the Eucharist (Communion); saw it as only symbolic while Luther believed the spirit of Christ existed in the Eucharist—**consubstantiation**; Catholics believed in **transubstantiation**—that the wine and bread consumed during Communion turned into the actual body and blood of Christ in the believer.
  - Colloquy of Marburg (1529): Zwingli splits with Luther over issue of Eucharist
    - Zwingli and other sects were excluded from the Confessions of Augsburg

→ **Calvinism**: most significant of the new Protestant sects

- **John Calvin** (1509-1564) *Institutes of the Christian Religion* (1536)
  - **Predestination**: belief that God is all-knowing and therefore has already chosen who has been saved and who has not; “good works” was not sufficient for salvation
  - Calvin established a theocracy in **Geneva**
  - Calvinism was the most militant and uncompromising of all Protestants
  - **Michael Servetus** (1511-1553): Unitarian beliefs; burned at stake
  - Protestant work ethic: Calvinists later emphasized the importance of hard work and accompanying financial success as a sign that God was pleased

→ Spread of Calvinism: far greater impact on future generations than Lutheranism

- **Presbyterianism** in Scotland. **John Knox** (1505-1572); presbyters governed the church
- **Huguenots** – French Calvinists; brutally suppressed in France
- **Dutch Reformed** – United Provinces of the Netherlands.
- **Puritans and Pilgrims** (a separatist minority) in England; established colonies in America
- Countries where Calvinism did not spread: Ireland, Spain, Italy – heavily Catholic
Reformation in England

- Early English reformers
  - John Wycliff’s followers, the Lollards, still existed in the 16th century
  - William Tyndale: produced the first English version of the Bible (highly illegal!); executed

- Henry VIII: 2nd of Tudor kings
  - Initially was a strong ally of Pope: Defense of Seven Sacraments; “Defender of the Faith”
  - Sought a divorce from his wife, Catherine of Aragon, because they could not conceive a son.
  - Pope refused to have the marriage annulled; Cardinal Thomas Wolsey: failed to get Henry’s divorce
  - Henry then broke away from the Catholic church and gained his annulment which was granted by Thomas Cranmer
  - Henry excommunicated by Pope Paul III

Church of England (Anglican Church)

- Act of Supremacy (1534): King is now the head of the English Church
- Catholic lands (about 25% of all English lands) were confiscated by the King
- Monasteries closed down
- Execution of Thomas More occurred when he refused to take an oath of loyalty to Henry
- 1539, Statute of the Six Articles: Henry attempts to maintain all 7 Catholic sacraments
- Thomas Cromwell: Oversaw development of king’s bureaucracy

Edward VI (1547-1553)

- Son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymour (Henry’s 3rd wife)
- England moved towards Calvinism during his short reign
- New practices
  - Clergy could marry
  - Iconic images removed from the Anglican Church
  - Communion by the laity expanded
- New doctrines
  - Salvation by faith alone
  - Denial of transubstantiation
  - Only two sacraments: baptism and communion

Mary Tudor (“Bloody Mary”) (r. 1553-1558) tried to reimpose Catholicism

- Daughter of Henry VIII and Catharine of Aragon
- Married Philip II, future heir to the Spanish throne
- Mary rescinded reformation legislation of Henry’s and Edward’s reign
- 300 people executed including bishops and Archbishop Cranmer; her opponents called her “Bloody Mary”

Elizabeth I (r. 1558-1603) – the “Virgin Queen”

- Daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn (Henry’s 2nd wife)
  - Held strong Protestant beliefs; Catholics saw her as “illegitimate”

Effectively oversaw the development of Protestantism in England

- Politique: she was a practical politician who carefully navigated a middle ground between Anglicanism and Protestantism
“Elizabethan Settlement”: Elizabeth and Parliament required conformity to the Church of
England but people were, in effect, allowed to worship Protestantism and Catholicism
privately
- Some church practices, including ritual, resembled Catholic practices.
  - Book of Common Prayer instituted in 1559.
- Catholicism remained, especially among the gentry, but could not be practiced openly.
- Services given in English
- Monasteries not re-established
- Clergy allowed to marry
- Everyone required to attend church services of the Anglican Church (fined if absent)
- 1563, Thirty-Nine Articles: defined creed of Anglican Church under Elizabeth I
- Some Catholics plotted to assassinate Elizabeth and replace her with Mary Stuart (former
  Queen of Scotland and a Catholic)
  - Mary Stuart (“Mary, Queen of Scots”) executed on Elizabeth’s order
- Puritans and Pilgrims (Separatists) sought to reform the church; Pilgrims left for Holland and
  then America

Impact of the Reformation on Women
- Protestant Women:
  - Luther:
    - stressed that marriage was a woman’s career in the Christian home
    - women should be educated – schools for girls (Philip Melancthon)
      - Mothers were often expected to teach their daughters to read
    - relationship between a husband and wife should be companionate
      - Sex was an act to be enjoyed by a husband and wife
      - Luther and his wife Katherina von Bora were a good example of this view
  - Calvin
    - Women should be subjugated
    - Protestant churches had greater control over marriage than did the Catholic church
      - Suppressed common law marriages (which had been common in Catholic countries)
    - Protestant women lost opportunities in church service that Catholic women enjoyed (e.g.
      becoming nuns)
    - Protestant women eventually lost rights to manage their own property or to make legal
      transactions in their own name
- Catholic Women
  - Women continued to enjoy opportunities in the Church through religious orders
  - Angela Merici (1474-1540): founded Ursuline Order of Nuns during the Catholic
    Reformation
  - Teresa de Avila (1515-1582): major Spanish leader of the reform movement for convents
    and monasteries
## Contrasting Protestant and Catholic Doctrine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protestant</th>
<th>Catholic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role of Bible emphasized</td>
<td>Bible + traditions of Middle Ages + papal pronouncements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Priesthood of all believers” – all individuals equal before God. Sought a clergy that preached.</td>
<td>Foundation of the church establishes special nature and role of the clergy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglicans rejected papal authority. Monarch was Supreme Governor of the church. Lutherans rejected authority of the pope but kept bishops. Most Calvinists governed church by ministers and a group of elders, a system called Presbyterianism. Anabaptists rejected most forms of church governance in favor of congregational democracy. Rejected infant baptism.</td>
<td>Church is hierarchical and sacramental: believers, priests, bishops and pope.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Protestants denied efficacy of some or all of sacraments of the medieval church – the Eucharist (communion) was the most controversial.</td>
<td>All seven sacraments:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consubstantiation – Lutherans: bread and wine did not change but spiritual presence of Christ is in the bread and wine. (Real Presence) Zwingli (&amp; Calvin) saw event of communion as only symbolic: a memorial to the actions of Christ, or thanksgiving for God’s grant of salvation (main reason for Zwingli’s break with Luther)</td>
<td>Transubstantiation – bread and wine retain outward appearances but are transformed into the body and blood of Christ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lutherans believed in Justification by faith – salvation cannot be earned and a good life is the fruit of faith. Calvinists: predestination; a good life could provide a sign of predestined salvation – “visible saints” or the “elect.”</td>
<td>Salvation through living life according to Christian beliefs and participating in the practices of the church -- good works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lutherans and Anglicans believed state should control the Church; gov’t was not a theocracy Calvinists and Zwingli believed in a theocracy Anabaptists believed church was separate from the state. As pacifists, they should not have to go to war on behalf of the state.</td>
<td>Catholics believed state should be subservient to the church.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services emphasized the sermon</td>
<td>Services emphasized the Eucharist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage was a contract: divorce rare; acceptable for impotence, abandonment, or infidelity Clergy allowed to marry</td>
<td>Marriage was a sacrament; couldn’t be dissolved Clergy could not marry; had to remain celibate</td>
</tr>
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THE CATHOLIC COUNTER REFORMATION (also called Catholic Reformation)

Memory Device for the Catholic Reformation: SAINT PAUL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Society of Jesus</th>
<th>Pope Paul III</th>
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<td>A buses reformed in Church practices</td>
<td>Anti-Protestant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Index of Prohibited Books</td>
<td>Ursuline Order of Nuns</td>
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<td>No significant change in Church doctrine</td>
<td>Latin Vulgate</td>
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<td>Trent, Council of</td>
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- **Pope Paul III** (1534-1549): Most important pope in reforming the Church and challenging Protestantism
- New Religious Orders
  - **Ursuline Order of Nuns** (1544): Sought to combat heresy through Christian education
    - Founded by **Angela Merici**
  - **Teresa of Avila**: Spanish mystic who revived and popularized mystical piety of medieval monasticism
- **Jesuits (Society of Jesus)** (1540):
  - 3 goals: reform church through education, preach the Gospel to pagan peoples, fight Protestantism
  - **Ignatius Loyola** (1491-1556): founder; organized the Jesuits in military fashion
    - *Spiritual Exercises*: contained ideas used to train Jesuits
  - Beginning in 1542, oversaw **Spanish and Italian Inquisitions**
    - Spain: persecution of Christian Moors & Christian Jews
    - Succeeded in bringing southern German and eastern Europe back to Catholicism
    - Sacred Congregation of the Holy Order, 1542, in papal states: Roman Inquisition
      - **Index of Forbidden Books**: catalogue of forbidden reading
      - Ended heresy in Papal States; rest of Italy not affected significantly
- **Council of Trent** (3 sessions 1545-1563): established Catholic dogma four next four centuries
  - Equal validity of Scripture, Church traditions, and writings of Church fathers
  - Salvation by both “good works’ and faith
  - 7 sacraments valid; transubstantiation reaffirmed
  - Monasticism, celibacy of clergy, and purgatory reaffirmed
  - Approved the *Index of Forbidden Books*
  - Church reforms: abuses in sale of indulgences curtailed, sale of church offices curtailed, Bishops given greater control over clergy, seminaries established to train priests

➡ Results of the Catholic Reformation:
  - Stabilized and reinvigorated the Catholic church
  - Helped slow or prevent the further spread of Protestantism in central and eastern Europe.
Baroque Art reflected the ideas of the Catholic Reformation

- Began in Catholic Reformation countries to teach in a concrete and emotional way and demonstrate the glory and power of the Catholic Church
  - Style later spread to Protestant countries such as the Netherlands, northern Germany and England
- Sought to overwhelm the viewer: emphasized grandeur, emotion, movement, spaciousness, and unity surrounding a certain theme

- Architecture and sculpture
  - Bernini (1598-1650)
    - Colonnade for piazza in front of St. Peter’s Basilica in Rome was his greatest architectural achievement.
    - Sculpted the Canopy over the high altar of St. Peter’s Cathedral
    - His altarpiece sculpture, The Ecstasy of St. Teresa, evokes tremendous emotion
    - His statue of David shows movement and emotion
- Painting
  - Characteristics
    - Tenebrism: stressed broad areas of light and shadow rather than on linear arrangements of the High Renaissance.
    - Color was an important element as it appealed to the senses and more true to nature.
    - Not concerned with clarity of detail as with overall dynamic effect.
    - Designed to give a spontaneous personal experience.
  - Caravaggio (1571-1610), Roman painter, perhaps 1st important painter of the Baroque era
    - Depicted highly emotional scenes
    - Used sharp contrasts of light and dark to create drama.
  - Peter Paul Rubens (1577-1640), Flemish painter
    - Worked much for the Hapsburg court in Brussels (the capital of the Spanish Netherlands)
    - Emphasized color and sensuality; animated figures and melodramatic contrasts; monumental size.
    - Nearly half of his works dealt with Christian subjects.

Results of the Reformation

- The unity of Western Christianity was shattered: Northern Europe (Scandinavia, England, much of Germany, parts of France, Switzerland, Scotland) adopted Protestantism.
- Germany remained fragmented; unification stunted until the late 19th century
- Religious enthusiasm was rekindled – similar enthusiasm not seen since far back into the Middle Ages.
- Abuses remedied in the Catholic Church: simony, pluralism, immoral or badly educated clergy were considerably remedied by the 17th century.
- Religious wars broke out in Europe for well over a century.
RELIGIOUS WARS: 1560-1648

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<th>Memory Device for Religious Wars: “30 FEDS”</th>
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<td>30 Years’ War</td>
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<td>F rench Civil Wars</td>
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- Catholic Crusade under Philip II
  - **Philip II** (1556-98): fanatically seeks to reimpose Catholicism in Europe (like his father, Charles V)
    - Built the **Escorial**: new royal palace (and monastery and mausoleum)
  - **Battle of Lepanto**: Spain defeated Turkish navy off coast of Greece (reminiscent of earlier Christian Crusades)
  - **Dutch Revolt**
    - **United Provinces of the Netherlands** formed in 1581 (Dutch Republic)
      - **William of Orange I** led 17 provinces against the Spanish Inquisition; Philip sought to crush the rise of Calvinism in the Netherlands
    - **Spanish Netherlands** (lower 10 provinces) remained in control of Spain (modern-day Belgium)
    - Dutch closure of the Scheldt River resulted in the demise of Antwerp as Europe’s economic center
  - **Spain v. England**
    - Queen Mary Tudor (Philip’s wife) reimposes Catholicism in England
    - Queen Elizabeth I reverses Mary’s edict; refuses to marry Philip II
    - Elizabeth helps United Provinces of the Netherlands gain independence from Spain
    - **Spanish Armada, 1588**: Philip ordered the invasion of England
      - Spain’s navy largely destroyed thus ending plans for invasion
      - Signaled the rise of England as a world naval power

- **French Civil Wars** (at least 9 wars between 1559 and 1589)
  - Power struggle between three noble families began in 1559
  - **Catherine de Medicis** (1519-1589): dominated her sons who were French kings as she tried to maintain Catholic control over France
    - She was a member of the Valois faction who opposed the Catholic Guise faction and the Huguenot Bourbon faction
  - **St. Bartholomew Day Massacre**: 20,000 Huguenots massacred at Catherine’s order after Huguenots rioted in protested of a Guise assassination of a Huguenot leader.
    - Led to the War of the Three Henrys
  - **War of the Three Henrys** (1584-98): civil wars between Valois, Guise, and Huguenot factions
Henry IV (of Navarre) (1553-1610): first Bourbon king
- His rise to power ended the French Civil Wars
- Edict of Nantes, 1598: granted religious toleration to Huguenots
- Henry was a politique: a monarch who favor practical solutions (rather than ideological)
  - Similar to Elizabeth I of England

Thirty Years’ War (1618-1648) – most important war of the 17th century
- Failure of Peace of Augsburg, 1555: religious tension in the Holy Roman Empire continued into the early 17th century.
- Four phases of the war:
  - Bohemian Phase:
    - Defenestration of Prague, 1618: triggers war in Bohemia
    - Protestant forces eventually defeated; Protestantism eliminated in Bohemia
  - Danish Phase: height of Catholic forces during the war
    - Albrecht von Wallenstein (1583-1634): paid by emperor to fight for HRE
    - Edict of Restitution (1629): HRE emperor declared all church territories secularized since 1552 automatically restored to Catholic Church
  - Swedish Phase: Protestants liberate territory lost in previous phase
    - King Gustavus Adolphus (1594-1632): pushed back Catholic forces to Bohemia
    - Holy Roman Emperor annuls Edict of Restitution
  - French Phase: “International Phase”
    - Cardinal Richelieu allied with Protestants (like in earlier Hapsburg-Valois Wars) to defeat the HRE

Treaty of Westphalia (1648): ended Catholic Reformation in Germany
- Renewal of Peace of Augsburg (but added Calvinism as accepted faith in Germany)
- Dissolution of Holy Roman Empire confirmed
  - Dutch and Swiss independence
  - 300+ German states became sovereign
  - Prussia-Brandenburg emerged as a major power (under Frederick William, the “Great Elector”)
- Results of 30 Years’ War
  - Germany physically devastated (as much as 1/3 of pop. in certain areas perished)
  - End to wars of religion
  - Beginning of rise of France as dominant European power; also Britain & Netherlands
    - Balance of power diplomacy emerged in Europe

Memory Device for Treaty of Westphalia: EF-CHIP
End of Wars of Religion
France emerges as Europe’s most powerful country
Calvinism added to the Peace of Augsburg
Holy Roman Empire effectively destroyed
Independence for the Netherlands and Switzerland
Russia emerges as a great power
Reformation was disastrous for German unity
- Germany divided along Catholic and Lutheran groups (later Calvinism in 17th c.)
  - Peace of Augsburg, 1555
  - Treaty of Westphalia, 1648: 300+ German states become sovereign
- France worked to keep Germany divided
  - Hapsburg-Valois wars: Francis I vs. Charles V (France supported Lutherans)
  - 30 Years’ War: Richelieu supported Protestants during the “French Phase”
- 30 Years’ War devastated Germany (1/3 of population killed)

English Civil War
- Biggest reason for the war: Persecution of Puritans by Anglicans and the king
- James I (r. 1603-1625): belief in “divine right of kings”
  - Leadership of Church went to those with Arminian beliefs (predestination but with “good works”)
  - Archbishop Laud tried to impose Catholic-style ritual; Puritans dismayed
  - King claimed “no bishop, no king” to Puritan demand to end bishop control.
  - Monarchy plagued by lack of revenue (expensive wars of Elizabeth drained the treasury)
- Charles I (1625-1649): sought to rule without Parliament and to control the Anglican Church
  - Petition of Right, 1628: Parliament attempt to bribe king (taxes) in return for accepting Parliament’s right to tax, habeas corpus, no quartering, and no martial law in peacetime
  - Charles dissolved Parliament in 1629; did not reconvene until 1640
  - Religious persecution most important reason for civil war: led by Archbishop Laud
    - In return for granting taxation, Parliament made demands:
      - Certain high Anglican leaders be tried: (Laud was eventually executed)
      - Star Chamber abolished
      - Parliament could not be dissolved w/o its consent
- The English Civil War (Puritan Revolution; Great Rebellion) – 1642-1649
  - Cavaliers: supported the king
  - Roundheads. Puritans opposed the king:
    - Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) led the “New Model Army”
  - Major issues of the war
    - 1643, Scots allied with Cromwell after Parliament agreed to accept a Presbyterian system of Church government (England would no longer attempt to impose the English Common Book of Prayer on the Scots)
    - Division resulted between Presbyterians in Parliament (majority) and soldiers who were independent and sought congregationalism (Puritans)
  - “Rump Parliament”: Pride’s Purge (1648) removed all non-Puritans and Presbyterians from Parliament (Charles I tried to win Presbyterians and Scots over to his side)
  - Charles I beheaded in 1649
- Interregnum: 1649-1660 rule without king
  - The Commonwealth (1649-1653): a republic – abolished the monarchy and House of Lords
  - The Protectorate (1653-1659), Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector (Puritan dictatorship)
    - Created in response to Parliament’s desire to disband Cromwell’s army
    - Puritans tried to regulate lives of the people: illegalized drinking, theater and dancing
o Creation of “Great Britain”
  ▪ Cromwell invaded Ireland to suppress Catholic opposition
  ▪ Cromwell conquered Scotland

• The Restoration (1660-1688)
  o Parliament in 1660 reelected according to the old voting system: Anglicans back in power
  o Charles II “The Merry Monarch” (1660-1685): Stuarts restored to the throne

ABSOLUTISM IN WESTERN EUROPE: 1589-1715

➔ Absolutism: derived from belief in “divine right of kings”

• Sovereignty: embodied in the person of the ruler

• Jean Bodin (1530-96): gave theoretical basis for absolutist states; wrote during Fr. civil wars

• Bishop Bossuet (1627-1704): gave theoretical basis for “divine right” of kings during reign of Louis XIV

• Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679): Leviathan, 1651
  o State of nature: anarchy results; central drive in every man is power
  o Man’s life in a “state of nature” was “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short strong,”
  o Ideas most closely identified with Voltaire: Enlightened Despotism (18th c.)

➔ French Absolutism in late 16th through mid-17th centuries

• Henry IV (Henry of Navarre) (1589-1610) – Bourbon dynasty
  o Weakened the power of the nobility
    ▪ The old “nobility of the sword” not allowed to influence the royal council
    ▪ The new “nobility of the robe” purchased their titles from the monarchy and became high officials in the government and remained loyal to the king.
  o Duke of Sully (1560-1641): Finance Minister whose reforms enhanced the power of the monarchy
    ▪ Mercantilism: increased role of state in the economy
    ▪ Reduced royal debt, reformed tax collection
    ▪ Improved transportation

• Louis XIII (1610-43):
  o His regency plagued by corruption & mismanagement (mom ruled until he was of age)
  o Cardinal Richelieu (1585-1642): laid foundation for absolutism in France (politique like Henry IV)
    ▪ Intendant System: sought to weaken nobility
      ▪ Replaced local officials w/ civil servants who reported directly to the king; largely filled by middle-class
      ▪ Further developed mercantilism
      ▪ Increased taxation to fund the military
    ▪ Peace of Alais (1629): Huguenots lost fortified cities & Protestant armies
      ▪ Began dictionary to standardize the French language
      ▪ Foreign policy, esp. 30 Years’ War, weakened Hapsburg Empire
Louis XIV (r. 1643-1715) – the “Sun King”

- The quintessential model of absolutism in Europe
  - *L’état, c’est moi* (“I am the state”)
  - France became the undisputed power in Europe during his reign
    - France had largest population in Europe (17 million); 20% of Europe’s population
  - French culture dominated Europe
    - French language became the international language of diplomacy (like English is today) and the language of the well-educated (like Latin in the Middle Ages)
    - France remained the epicenter of literature and the arts until the 20th century
    - French classicism in art most evident in the works of Nicholas Poussin (1593-1665)
    - French drama became extremely influential
      - Molière (1622-1673)
        - Plays were written in the classical style (e.g. adherence to the three unities)
        - Wrote some of the most intense emotional works for the stage.
      - Jean Baptiste Racine (1639-1699)
        - His plays often focused on social struggles
        - Made fun of the aristocracy, upper bourgeoisie and high church officials
  - Cardinal Jules Mazarin (1602-1661): controlled France while Louis XIV a child
    - The Fronde: failed revolution by nobility directed against Mazarin; inspired Louis later to suppress the nobility
  - Intendant system continued to increase the power of the king at the expense of the old nobles.
  - Versailles Palace: grandest and most impressive palace in Europe
    - In effect, became a pleasure prison for the French nobility, over which Louis gained control
    - Cost of maintaining the palace: 60% of all royal revenues!
  - Religious Policies
    - Louis considered himself the head of the Gallican Church and thus did not allow the pope to exercise political power in France
    - Edict of Fountainbleau (1685): revoked the Edict of Nantes, thus ending religious toleration for Huguenots
    - Repressed Jansenism (a kind of Calvinism within Catholic Church)
  - Mercantilism brought to its apex by Jean-Baptiste Colbert (1661-1683)
    - State control over a country’s economy in order to achieve a favorable balance of trade with other countries.
    - Colbert’s goal was economic self-sufficiency for France
      - Promoted “bullionism”: a nation’s policy of accumulating as much precious metal (gold and silver) as possible while preventing its outward flow to other countries.
      - Built roads & canals; gov’t supported monopolies; cracked down on guilds; reduced local tolls and tariffs; organized French trading companies for international trade: East India Co. and the West India Co.
      - Most important accomplishment: developed the merchant marine
    - By 1683, France leading industrial country: textiles, mirrors, lace making, foundries for iron making and firearms
    - Weaknesses:
      - Poor peasant conditions (esp. taxation) resulted in large emigration
      - Louis opted for army instead of navy; France later lost naval wars w/ England
      - War in later years nullified Colbert’s gains; Louis at war for 2/3 of his reign
Wars of Louis XIV: initially successful but eventually ruinous to France
- France created a massive modern army with the potential to dominate Europe
  - A system of balance of power developed to keep France in check
- William of Orange (later, King William III of England) thwarted Louis’ expansionism
  - War of Devolution (First Dutch War), 1667-68: France gained 12 fortified towns along the French-Belgian border but gave up Burgundy in return.
  - Second Dutch War (1672-78) – Invasion of the Dutch Rhineland
    - France took Franche-Comté from Spain, gained some Flemish towns, and took Alsace
    - Represented the furthest extent of Louis XIV’s expansion
- War of the League of Augsburg (1688-97): eventually ended in status quo
  - League of Augsburg (formed in 1686 to counter France’s growing power): included the HRE, Spain, Sweden, Bavaria, Saxony, Dutch Republic
- War of Spanish Succession (1701-13)
  - The will of Charles II (Spanish Hapsburg king) gave all Spanish territories to grandson of Louis XIV; other countries feared France would dominate
  - Grand Alliance sought to preserve the balance of power: England, Dutch Rep., HRE, Brandenburg, Portugal, Savoy
  - Treaty of Utrecht (1713): most important treaty since Westphalia (in 1648)
    - Britain was biggest winner: gained the asiento (slave trade) from Spain; gained Gibraltar and Minorca.
    - Spanish Netherlands (Belgium) was given to Austria (became the “Austrian Netherlands”)
    - Although Louis XIV’s grandson enthroned, the treaty prevented the unification of Bourbon dynasties.
    - Kings recognized in Sardinia (Savoy) and Prussia (Brandenburg)
- Costs of Louis XIV’s wars:
  - Destroyed France’s economy
  - 20% of French subjects died
  - Huge debt placed on the Third Estate
    - French gov’t was bankrupt
  - Financial and social tensions sowed the seeds of the French Revolution later in the century

Decline of the Spanish Empire (although it remained most powerful military until mid-17th c.)
- Foundation for absolutism in Spain was laid by Charles V (1519-1556) and Philip II (1556-1598)
- Spanish Armada, 1588: symbolized the rise of England as a world power and the limits of Spanish dominance
- Loss of middle class: Moors and Jews had been expelled in large numbers (Spain’s population declined by over 25%)
- Spain’s trade with its colonies fell 60% between 1610 and 1660
- Spanish treasury became bankrupt
- National taxes particularly hurt the peasantry
- Inflation from the “Price Revolution” hurt domestic industries that were unable to export goods
- Poor work ethic among the upper classes stunted economic growth (lack of capitalism)
- Religion overshadowed politics in domestic affairs
- Defeat in 30 Years’ War: politically and economically disastrous
1640, Portugal reestablished independence.

**Treaty of the Pyranees** (1659): marked end of Spain as a Great Power
- Spain lost parts of Spanish Netherlands and territory in northern Spain to France
- Population in 1660 had declined to 5.5 million from 7.5 million in 1550

Spain had lost many possessions at the Treaty of Utrecht (1713)

→ **The Baroque**
- Began in Catholic Reformation countries to teach in a concrete and emotional way and demonstrate the glory and power of the Catholic Church
  - Style later spread to Protestant countries (Netherlands, northern Germany and England)
  - Sought to overwhelm the viewer: emphasized grandeur, emotion, movement, spaciousness, and unity surrounding a certain theme
- Architecture and sculpture
  - **Bernini** (1598-1650)
    - *Colonnade* for piazza in front of St. Peter’s Basilica in Rome was his greatest architectural achievement.
    - Sculpted the *Canopy over the high altar of St. Peter’s Cathedral*
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  - Characteristics
    - Stressed broad areas of light and shadow rather than on linear arrangements of the High Renaissance.
    - Color was an important element as it appealed to the senses and more true to nature.
    - Not concerned with clarity of detail as with overall dynamic effect.
    - Designed to give a spontaneous personal experience.
  - **Caravaggio** (1571-1610), Roman painter, perhaps 1st important painter of the Baroque era
    - Depicted highly emotional scenes
    - Used sharp contrasts of light and dark to create drama.
  - **Peter Paul Rubens** (1577-1640), Flemish painter
    - Worked much for the Hapsburg court in Brussels (the capital of the Spanish Netherlands)
    - Emphasized color and sensuality; animated figures and melodramatic contrasts; monumental size.
    - Nearly half of his works dealt with Christian subjects.
  - **Diego Velázquez** (1599-1660)
    - Perhaps the greatest court painter of the era
    - Numerous portraits of the Spanish court and their surroundings
  - **Artemisia Gentileschi** (1593-1652)
    - Famous for vivid depictions of dramatic scenes and her “Judith” paintings
- In the 17th century, the Baroque reflected the Age of Absolutism
  - Versailles Palace typifies Baroque architecture
    - Hapsburg emperor Leopold I built *Schönbrunn* in Austria in response to the Versailles Palace
    - Peter the Great in Russia built the *Winter Palace* in St. Petersburg largely on the influence of Versailles
    - Frederick I in Prussia began building his palace in Berlin in 1701
Music
  o Characteristics
    ▪ Belief that the text should dominate the music; the lyrics and libretto were most important
    ▪ Baroque composers developed the modern system of major-minor tonalities.
    ▪ Dissonance was used much more freely than during the Renaissance
  o Claudio Monteverdi (1547-1643) developed the opera and the modern orchestra
  o J. S. Bach (1685-1750): greatest of the baroque composers
    ▪ Often wrote dense and polyphonic structures (in contrast to the later balance and restraint
      of the Classical Period—Mozart & Haydn)
    ▪ Wrote in a variety of genres, both choral and instrumental, for a variety of instruments
  o George Frideric Handel (1685-1759)
    ▪ Like Bach, wrote in a variety of genres
    ▪ His masterpiece is the oratorio The Messiah

The Dutch Style: 17th century painting
  o Characteristics
    ▪ Did not fit the Baroque style of trying to overwhelm the viewer
    ▪ Reflected the Dutch Republic’s wealth and religious toleration of secular subjects
    ▪ Reflected the urban and rural settings of Dutch life during the “Golden Age of the
      Netherlands”
    ▪ Many works were commissioned by merchants or government organizations
  o Rembrandt van Rijn (1606-1669), painter
    ▪ Perhaps the greatest of all Baroque artists although he doesn’t fit neatly into any category.
    ▪ Scenes covered an enormous range throughout his career
    ▪ Used extremes of light in the Baroque style
    ▪ His works were far more intimate and psychological than typical Baroque works
    ▪ Painted with the restraint of the classicist style
  o Jan Vermeer (1632-1675)
    ▪ Paintings of interior domestic settings of ordinary people in simple scenes

Rococo style (in France)
  o Characteristics: elegance, pleasantness, frivolity; contrasts emotional grandeur of Baroque

CONSTITUTIONALISM IN WESTERN EUROPE

Constitutionalism: Government power is limited by law. There is a delicate balance between the
power of government and the rights and liberties of individuals. Constitutionalism took root
essentially in three countries in the 17th century:
  o England
  o Netherlands
  o Sweden
English society in the 17th century
- Capitalism played a major role in the high degree of social mobility in England
  - **Gentry**: wealthy landowners who dominated politics in the House of Commons
    - Relied heavily on legal precedent to limit the power of the king on social and economic matters
  - Middle class began to rise up the social ladder
    - Influenced by the “Protestant work ethic”
- Both King James I and Charles I believed in “divine right” of kings; Parliament disagreed

**Petition of Right**, 1628: Parliament sought to guarantee certain civil liberties in exchange for granting Charles I’s request for taxes. These rights included:
- Only Parliament had the right to levy taxes
- No one should be imprisoned or detained without due process of law.
- All had right to *habeas corpus* (trial)
- No forced quartering of soldiers in homes of private citizens.
- Martial law could not be declared in peacetime

The English Civil War resulted in Parliament’s defeat over the forces of Charles I (he was beheaded in 1649) (see above)

**The English Civil War** resulted in the emergence of new sects:
- **Levellers**: Radical religious revolutionaries; sought social and political reform.
- **Quakers**: believed in “inner light”; rejected church authority; pacifists; women allowed to minister
- **Diggers**: radical group (foreshadowed anarchy in 19th century)

**Interregnum**: 1649-1660 rule without a king; **Oliver Cromwell**
- The Commonwealth (1649-1653): a republic – abolished the monarchy and House of Lords
- The Protectorate (1653-1659), Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector (Puritan dictatorship)
  - Puritans tried to regulate lives of the people: illegalized drinking, theater and dancing
- Creation of “Great Britain”
  - Cromwell invaded Ireland to suppress Catholic opposition; conquered Scotland

**The Restoration** (1660-1668)
- Parliament in 1660 reelected according to the old voting system: Anglicans back in power
- **Charles II** “The Merry Monarch” (1660-1685): Stuarts restored to the throne
  - Declaration of Breda: Charles agreed to abide by Parliament’s demands
  - The Clarendon Code, 1661: Anglicans excluded Puritans from politics
  - Declaration of Indulgence, 1673: Charles II granted free worship to Catholics
  - **Test Act of 1673**: all officeholders must take communion in Anglican Church
  - **Habeas Corpus Act** (1679): no arbitrary arrest and right to a speedy trial
  - Parliament was split and fragmented into two political parties
    - **Tories**: king’s supporters, nobles
    - **Whigs**: middle-class and merchants; also high aristocracy
  - Scotland gained its independence in 1660 as result of the Restoration
    - Charles II attempted to impose Anglicanism in Scotland and a war resulted
- **James II** (1685-1688): sought to re-Catholicize England; Parliament forced him to abdicate
Glorious Revolution (1688)
- Final act in the struggle for political sovereignty in England
- William III (William of Orange) and Mary were declared joint sovereigns by Parliament
  - Act of Toleration, 1689: granted religious freedom (except to Catholics, Jews, and Unitarians)
    - Bill of Rights (1689): created a constitutional monarchy
  - British Constitution: consisted of habeas corpus act, petition of right, and bill of rights
  - Provisions:
    - The monarch could not be Roman Catholic
    - Laws could only be made with the consent of Parliament
    - Parliament had right of free speech
    - A standing army in peacetime was not legal without parliamentary approval
    - Taxation was illegal without parliamentary approval
- John Locke (1632-1704), Second Treatise – natural rights: life, liberty and property
  - Philosophical justification for the supremacy of Parliament in the “Glorious Revolution”
- Act of Settlement (1701): only Anglican could succeed to the throne
- Queen Anne (1702-1714): last of the Stuart monarchs
  - Act of Union (1707) – English and Scottish Parliaments merged = Great Britain
  - Royal veto used for last time

Cabinet System of preparing laws for Parliament developed during early 18th century
- System evolved during reign of the Hanoverian Kings: George I, George II, George III
- Prime minister became leader of the cabinet and responsible to majority party in the House of Commons.
  - Robert Walpole (1721-1742) became first prime minister
- Weaknesses of British democracy (c. 1800): limited suffrage, unfair representation (“rotten boroughs”), open voting, religious-property requirements for office, hereditary House of Lords

United Provinces of the Netherlands: 1st half of 17th century = “Golden Age of the Netherlands”
- Government dominated by Calvinist bourgeoisie (burghers)
  - Organization – confederation of 7 provinces (each led by a stadtholder)
  - Limited interference from the central government
- Religious toleration
  - Factions: Calvinist (majority) vs. Arminianism (Calvinism without belief of predestination)
  - Catholics and Jews enjoyed religious toleration but had fewer rights
  - Fostered a cosmopolitan society that promoted trade
- Commerce
  - Netherlands were the wealthiest and most civilized country in Europe
  - Amsterdam became the banking and commercial center in Europe (replaced Antwerp)
  - Did not have government controls or monopolies that interfered with free enterprise
  - Mercantilist economic system
  - Fishing and shipping were the most important
  - Dutch East India Co.; Dutch West India Co.: cooperative ventures with the state
- Foreign policy
  - Netherlands gained independence from the Holy Roman Empire in the Treaty of Westphalia.
  - Impacted negatively by England’s Navigation Laws that sought to reduce Dutch trade in the Atlantic
  - War with France & England in 1670s hurt the economy
  - Treaty of Utrecht (1713): beginning of the end of the Dutch as a dominant economic force
Sweden:
- **Gustavus Adolphus** reorganized the gov’t
- Nobles dominated the army & bureaucracy
- The Riksdag, an assembly of nobles, clergy, townsmen, and peasants, theoretically had the highest legislative authority, but not in reality

**ABSOLUTISM IN EASTERN EUROPE**

- Three aging empires (‘‘HOP’’) gave way to new empires of **Russia, Austria, & Prussia** (‘‘RAP’’)
  - **Holy Roman Empire**: religious divisions and war in 16\(^{th}\) and 17\(^{th}\) century
  - **Ottoman Empire**: could not maintain possessions in eastern Europe and the Balkans
  - **Poland**: **liberum veto** – voting in Polish parliament had to be unanimous (= weak gov’t)
- Differences between absolutism in eastern Europe and western Europe
  - Eastern Europe had a powerful nobility, small weak middle class, and serfdom among the peasantry; Western Europe (esp. in France) controlled the nobility, had a stronger middle-class and little to no serfdom.
- Constant threat of war European and Asian invaders were important motivations for eastern European monarchs’ drive to consolidate power.
  - Reduced the power of the nobility but nobles gained more power over the peasantry in return
  - Absolutism reached its height in eastern Europe under the reign of Peter the Great of Russia
- **serfdom**: beginning in 16\(^{th}\) century and continuing into 18\(^{th}\) century, mass of peasantry became serfs
  - **robot**: non-serf peasants owed lord 3 to 4 days a week of forced labor

**Austrian Empire**

- Multinational empire developed in 17\(^{th}\) century: Austrian, Hungarian, & Bohemian kingdoms
  - No single constitutional system or administration existed in the empire as each region had a different legal relationship to the Emperor.
  - Empire had a cosmopolitan aristocracy with the institution of serfdom
- Austria continually dealt with the threat of the Ottoman Empire
  - **Suleiman the Magnificent** (d. 1566): nearly conquered Austria in 1529, captured Belgrade (Serbia), nearly 1/2 of Eastern Europe including all Balkan territories, most of Hungary, and part of southern Russia.
  - Turkish threat: relatively religiously tolerant empire
    - Highly talented Christian children from the conquered provinces were incorporated into the Ottoman Empire’s bureaucracy
    - **“Janissary corps”**: Christian children not selected for the bureaucracy were dedicated fully to the Ottoman military
- **Leopold I** (1658-1705): successfully repelled Turks
- **Siege of Vienna, 1683**: last attempt by Turks to take Central Europe
- **Pragmatic Sanction** (1713) issued by **Charles VI**: Europe’s major powers agreed that Hapsburg territories were indivisible; all Hapsburg lands would transfer to future Hapsburg rulers (e.g. Maria Teresa)
Prussia: House of Hohenzollern

- Frederick William – The “Great Elector” (1640-1688)
  o Brandenburg-Prussia: rule consolidated after 30 Years’ War via military force & taxation
  o Junkers: nobility sided with the king for stability; hereditary serfdom in 1653
  o Created most efficient army in Europe
- Frederick I (Elector Frederick III) “The Ostentatious” (1688-1713); 1st “King of Prussia”
  o Allied with Habsburgs in War of League of Augsburg and War of Spanish Succession to preserve the balance of power in Europe
- Frederick William I (1713-1740) “The Soldiers’ King”
  o Established Prussian absolutism
  o “Sparta of the North”: Largely a military state – best army in Europe
  o Junkers became officers caste in army in return for king’s absolutism

Russia/Muscovy

- Mongols from Asia took control of Russia in 13th century and a left legacy of ruthless rule
- Muscovy
  o Ivan III “Ivan the Great” (1442-1505)
    ▪ Ended Mongol domination of Muscovy
    ▪ Established himself as hereditary ruler of Muscovy
    ▪ Saw Moscow as the “Third Rome”: Assumed leadership of Orthodox Christian Church
    ▪ Ivan reduced power of the Russian nobles (boyars) in return for granting them more power over the serfs
- Ivan IV “Ivan the Terrible” (1533-1584), first to take title “tsar”
  o Conquered Baltic, Far East, and Black Sea region
  o Began westernizing: encouraged trade with England and the Netherlands
  o Peasants fled oppressive rule: became “Cossacks”; led to more severe serfdom by gov’t edict
  o “Time of Troubles”, 1584: period of chaos after Ivan’s death
- Romanov Dynasty (1613-1917)
  o Michael Romanov (1613-1645)
    ▪ Created a Russian empire across Asia to the Pacific (largest nation by 1689)
  o “Old Believers” (The Raskolniki): resisted westernization, severely persecuted.

Peter the Great (1682-1725)

- 1698, put down revolt by strelski (Moscow Guards), thus securing his reign
- Military spending dominated his budget (75% by 1725)
  ▪ Standing army had over 200,000 men; additional 100,000 Cossacks and foreigners
  ▪ Each Russian village required send recruits to the army; 25-year enlistments
  ▪ Royal military and artillery academies were established
  ▪ Built large navy on the Baltic (though it declined after his death)
  ▪ Non-nobles were able to rise up the ranks
- Great Northern War (1700-1721)
  ▪ Russia defeated Sweden and gained Baltic states, Russia’s “window to the West”
- Promoted westernization (modernization): mostly for military purposes
  ▪ Imported large numbers of western technicians and craftsmen to build large factories
  ▪ By 1725, Russia out-produced England in iron production (but not Germany or Sweden)
    ▪ Industrial serfdom existed where workers could be bought or sold
- State-regulated monopolies were created (modeled after mercantilist France)
  - This actually stifled economic growth
  - Industrial serfs created inferior products
- Government became more efficient
  - Tsar ruled by decree (example of absolute power) but explained his decrees to gain more popular support
  - **Table of Ranks**: educational training for new civil service (mostly of nobles)
    - Peter sought to replace old Boyar nobility with a new service-based nobility loyal to the tzar.
  - Russian secret police ruthlessly crushed opponents
  - Heavily taxed trade, sales, and placed a head tax on each male
  - Turned Russian Orthodox Church into a gov’t department in 1700
- **St. Petersburg** begun in 1703 on Baltic; largest city in Northern Europe by his death.
  - Sought to create a city like Amsterdam
  - “Winter Palace” sought to emulate Versailles.
  - Became new capital of Russia
  - Peter ordered noble families, merchants, artisans and peasants to move to the city

### SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION: 16th and 17th Centuries
- Scientific Revolution was the major cause of the new world view in the 16th and 17th centuries
- **16th century**
  - **Nicolaus Copernicus** (1473-1543)
    - heliocentric view (refutes the Medieval geocentric view): earth revolves around the sun
    - By the early 16th century, the Catholic Church viewed Copernicus’ theory as heretical
  - **Tycho Brahe** (1546-1601) – Built best observatory in Europe and compiled a mass of scientific data from observations of the heavens
    - Data used later by Kepler, Galileo and others
  - **Johann Kepler** (1571-1630) – 3 laws of planetary motion: orbits are elliptical
- **17th century**
  - **Galileo Galilei** (1564-1642) – used the **telescope** to prove Copernicus’s heliocentric theory
    - Forced by the Roman Inquisition to retract his support of the Copernican theory
    - Also developed laws of motion
  - **Scientific Method**
    - Bacon’s inductive method, coupled with Descartes deductive reason formed the backbone of the modern **scientific method**.
  - **Francis Bacon** (1561-1626)
    - empiricism: first-hand study of scientific subjects
    - inductive method: scientific conclusion is reached after much observation
- Rene Descartes (1596-1650)
  - deductive method: conclusion is reached by logic
    - “I think, therefore I am” (cogito ergo sum)
    - Believed science must:
      - start with clear and incontrovertible facts
      - subdivide each problem into as many parts as necessary, using a step-by-step logical sequence
  - Cartesian dualism: divided all existence into the spiritual and the material
    - The spiritual can only be examined through deductive reasoning (logic)
    - The material is subject to the experimental method
  - Developed analytical geometry

- Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1747): Principia – law of universal gravitation
  - Incorporated the astronomy of Copernicus and Kepler with the physics of Galileo into an overarching theory explaining order and design to the universe.
  - This view came to be the foundation of the Enlightenment view of God: deism

- Royal Society founded in England (1662) to promote scientific research; other academies founded in Europe
  - Governments/monarchs encouraged scientific inquiry as a means to further the prestige of the state and remain at the cutting edge of technology
  - Scientific societies created a means by which scientists could communicate with each other internationally; this helped forge an international scientific community

Significance of scientific revolution: leads to
- Enlightenment
- Clash with religion
- Agricultural Revolution
- Improvement in exploration
- Decline in witch hunts

Memory Device for Scientific Revolution:

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THE ENLIGHTENMENT

- Secular world view: first time in human history; marked the end of the age of religion
  - Emphasized natural science and reason
  - Deism: God created universe and then stepped back and left it running (like a clock)
    - Grew out of Newton’s theories regarding natural law
    - Thomas Paine, *Age of Reason*: advocates deism
  - Progress: improve society through natural laws
  - Baruch Spinoza (1632-77): equated God and nature; impersonal mechanical universe; denied free will

- John Locke
  - *Two Treatises on Civil Government*: justified supremacy of England’s Parliament; natural rights
  - *Essay Concerning Human Understanding* (1690): *tabula rasa* (“blank slate”)
    - All human knowledge is the result of sensory experience: thus, human progress is in the hands of society—education!
  - The ideal of toleration was popularized by many scholars who made the Enlightenment accessible to the public (e.g. Bernard de Fontenelle and Pierre Bayle)

- The French Philosophes
  - Characteristics
    - Committed to fundamental reform in society
    - Significant in popularizing Enlightenment ideas to the masses
    - Believed in progress through discovering the natural laws governing nature and human existence
    - Radically optimistic about how people should live and govern themselves
  - Voltaire (1694-1778): perhaps most influential of all Enlightenment *philosophes*
    - Advocated religious toleration and blasted the Church’s oppression – “Crush the infamous thing” (meaning religious intolerance)
    - Advocated “enlightened despotism” (his ideas were somewhat similar to Thomas Hobbes)
    - *Candide* (1759): satire on the evils of society
  - Baron de Montesqueiu (1689-1755): *Spirit of the Laws* (1748): advocated separation of powers in government via three branches to provide for checks and balances
  - Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-78):
    - Social Contract (1762): general will (the majority) should govern the nation
    - Believed that man in a simpler state of nature was good—a “noble savage”—and was corrupted by the materialism of civilization.
    - Emile (1762): encouraged progressive education and self-expression; “learning by doing”;
    - Rousseau can be seen as a transitional figure between the Enlightenment and the Romanticism
  - Denis Diderot (1713-1784), *Encyclopedia* (1751-72): compendium of the greatest and most representative intellectual achievements of the philosophes
  - Marquis di Beccaria (1738-94): sought to humanize the criminal law based on Enlightenment concepts of reason and equality before the law; criticized torture
    - Influenced the “Enlightened despots”: Frederick the Great, Catharine the Great, Joseph II
  - Economic theory
    - Francois Quesnay (1694-1774) – “physiocrats”: opposed to mercantilist economic theory advocated reform of the agrarian order; too much land ownership by nobles stifled agricultural production
Adam Smith (1727-1790): *Wealth of Nations* (1776):
- The “Bible” of capitalism; *laissez faire*
- Believed the economy is governed by the natural laws of supply and demand

**Women in the Enlightenment**
- Several women played an important role in organizing **salons**
  - Madame de Geoffren, Madame de Staël, and Louise de Warens
- de Geoffren also played major role patronizing Diderot’s *Encyclopédia*
- Mary Wollstonecraft (1759-97): English woman who promoted political and educational equality for women

**Later Enlightenment**
- Became more skeptical
- Baron Paul d’Holbach (1723-1789): humans were machines governed by outside forces. Freewill, God, and immortality of soul were foolish myths; severe blow to unity of the Enlightenment
- David Hume (1711-76): emphasized limitations of human reasoning; human mind is nothing but a bundle of impressions; later became dogmatic skeptic that undermined Enlightenment
- Jean de Condorcet (1743-1794) *Progress of the Human Mind*
  - His utopian ideas undermined the legitimacy of the Enlightenment
- Rousseau believed rationalism and civilization was destroying rather than liberating the individual; emphasized nature, passion—influenced early Romantic movement
- Immanuel Kant (1724-1794): Greatest German philosopher of the Enlightenment
  - Separated science and morality into separate branches of knowledge.
  - Science could describe natural phenomena of material world but could not provide a guide for morality

**Classical liberalism:** the political and economic outgrowth of the Enlightenment
- Belief in liberty of the individual and equality before the law (but NOT democracy)
- “Natural rights” philosophy played a profound role in the American and French Revolutions of the late-18th century
- Impact of Locke and Montesquieu was clearly evident in the American Constitution and in the French *Declaration of the Rights of Man*
- Rousseau’s idea of the “general will” influenced the French Revolution after 1791.
- Belief in *laissez faire* capitalism
- Belief in progress through reason and education
- Religious toleration
- Freedom of speech & the press
- Just punishments for crimes
- Equal treatment before the law

**Significance of the Enlightenment:** leads to
- Emergence of a secular world view of the universe (for the first time in Western history)
- Enlightened despotism
- American and French Revolutions (as a result of classical liberalism)
- educational reform
- *laissez faire* capitalism (in the 19th century)
New Christian groups opposed the Enlightenment

- German pietism: argued need for spiritual conversion and religious experience
- **Methodism**: taught need for spiritual regeneration and a moral life that would demonstrate the reality of the conversion
  - **John Wesley** (1703-91): founder of Methodism in England
- **Jansenism** (Catholic sect) in France argued against idea of an uninvolved or impersonal God

**ENLIGHTENED DESPOTISM** - some monarchs adopted certain Enlightenment ideas

Overview: In sum, reforms were made but very modest improvements occurred and life of the peasantry remained hard in the 18th century.
- Progressive reforms included tolerance of religious minorities, simplified legal codes, and promotion of practical education.
- Yet, Absolutists more vigorously sought reforms to strengthen the state and allow them to compete militarily with their neighbors.
- In essence, continued state building of their predecessors.

**“Frederick the Great”** (Frederick II: 1740-1786) of Prussia

- At war for first half of his reign
  - **War of Austrian Succession** (1740-1748)
    - Prussia, France, Bavaria & Spain vs. Austria and Russia
    - Took Silesia from Austria; Prussia now most powerful German state: “Great Power”
    - Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle (1748): legitimized Frederick’s conquest.
  - **Seven Years War** (1756-1763)
    - Prussia alone in fighting France, Russia & Austria (outnumbered 15-1)
    - **“Diplomatic Revolution of 1756**: Britain allied with Prussia (but of little value) while France allied with the Austrian Hapsburgs
    - Peter III of Russia let Prussia off the hook at a critical moment
    - **Treaty of Paris** (1763): Prussia retained Silesia; remained a “Great Power”

- Became a reformer during 2nd half of his reign – saw ruler as the “first servant of the state”
  - Reforms essentially geared to increase the power of the state
  - Religious freedom (although less so for Jews)
  - Promoted education in schools and universities
  - Codified laws
  - Ended serfdom on crown lands (peasants were needed for the army)
  - Improved state bureaucracy by requiring examinations for civil servants
  - Reduced censorship
  - Promoted industry and agriculture
  - Encouraged immigration
  - Social structure remained heavily stratified: serfdom; extended privileges for the nobility, **Junkers** became heart of the military; difficult upward mobility for middle class leadership

**Catherine II of Russia** (r. 1762-1798) **“Catherine the Great”**

- Least “enlightened” of the Enlightened Despots, although one of greatest rulers in Euro history
- Westernization: architecture, sculpture, music—supported the *philosophes*
- Reforms:
  - Reduced torture
- Allowed some limited religious tolerance (Jews granted civil equality)
- Some educational improvement; more books published during her reign
- Increased local control

- **Pugachev Rebellion** (1773): largest peasant uprising in Russian history;
  - Catherine gained support from nobility by granting greater control over serfs: high point for nobles—low point for serfs
- Nobility was the only class that benefited from Catherine’s policies
- Territorial expansion
  - Annexed Polish territory: **3 partitions of Poland** in 1772, 1793, and 1795
  - Gained Ottoman land in the Crimea (controlled by Tartars)
  - Began conquest of Caucasus
  - In 17th century, effectiveness of Russian monarchs limited by vast Russian territories

-> Austria

- **Maria Theresa** (r. 1740-1780): NOT considered an “Enlightened despot”
  - Wars of 1740s led to internal consolidation
  - She centralized control of the Hapsburg empire
  - Brought the Catholic Church in Austria under state control
  - Reduced serfdom (more than any other eastern European ruler except her son)
  - Promoted economic development
  - NOT enlightened as she did not support enlightenment ideas and did relatively less to support religious toleration

-> Joseph II (r. 1765-1790): greatest of Enlightened despots (“greatest good for greatest number”)
  - Abolished serfdom in 1781
  - Freedom of press
  - Freedom of religion & civic rights to Protestants and Jews
  - More equitable justice system
  - Made German the official language (to assimilate minorities)
  - Increased control over Catholic education, expanded state schools
  - Ultimately, left the empire in economic and political turmoil: Leopold II rescind many laws (e.g., serfdom)

-> France: rise of aristocratic power and liberalism resulted in end of absolutism

- **Louis XV** (1715-1774):
  - Nobility gained influence during his reign
  - **Madame de Pompadour**: most famous mistress of the 18th c. as she charmed the king and gained decision-making power
  - Parlement of Paris (partial to nobles) blocked Louis’ absolutist ambitions
    - Consisted of many “nobility of the robe”
    - René de Maupeou: dissolved Parlement of Paris
- **Louis XVI** (1774-1792)
  - Reinstated Parlement of Paris (due to strong public opinion) & dismissed Maupeau
  - Royal struggle with aristocracy and bourgeoisie resulted in the French Revolution.
ECONOMIC EXPANSION IN THE 18TH CENTURY

- Economic and demographic changes
  - 1700, 80% of western Europeans were farmers; higher % in eastern Europe
  - Most people lived in poverty
  - Dramatic population growth until 1650; slows down until 1750 and then explodes

- Open-field system: greatest accomplishment of Medieval agriculture
  - Village agriculture; 1/3 to ½ of fields lay fallow
  - Serfs in eastern Europe were the worst off; many were sold with lands (like slavery)

Agricultural Revolution: major milestone in human civilization

- Features
  - Production: increased crop and animal yields fed more people.
  - Cultivation: growing crops on reclaimed wastelands and uncultivated common lands
  - Selective breeding: livestock raising linked to crop growing; increasing yields in each area.

- Use of science and technology applied to agriculture
  - Impact of the scientific revolution’s experimental method was great
  - Low Countries were leaders
    - Population growth
    - Capitalism – good markets
    - Drainage of swamp lands: Cornelius Vermuyden
      - Significant impact on southern England
  - England
    - Dramatic increase in agriculture
    - Crop rotation (most important feature)
      - Viscount Charles Townsend experimented with turnips when rotating crops
      - Nitrogen-rich crops: turnips, peas, beans, clover, potatoes
      - Enriched soil and provided food for livestock
      - No need to mass slaughter livestock in winter; fresh meat replaced salted meat in winter
      - Drained extensively, manured heavily
    - Jethro Tull: seed drill (more efficient than scattering seeds by hand)
    - Robert Bakewell: Selective breeding of livestock
      - More wool, milk, meat, leather, soap and candle tallow
      - More manure available for fertilizer

- Enclosure movement (England)
  - Began in 16th century; intensified in 18th century
    - End to common lands and open-field system
    - Enabled almost all land to be cultivated
  - Resulted in commercialization of agriculture; investment of capital
    - Increased number of large and middle-sized farms
    - Greater economic prosperity = more investment in technology (machinery, breeding, cultivation methods).
  - Parliament legalized the movement
    - 1819, Corn Laws passed to benefit landowners
Impact on the peasantry

- Many peasants became impoverished farm laborers
- Many moved to towns looking for work in factories or joined workhouses (poorhouses)
- Women had no way to raise animals on common lands for extra money
- Game laws in England prohibited peasants from hunting game caused considerable friction in the countryside in 17th and 18th centuries

- A strict hierarchical society replaced the peasantry
  - A few large landowners
  - A large mass of landless cottagers as wage earners
  - Small, independent peasant farmers who owned land
  - Strong, prosperous tenant farmers who rented land
- Freed men from farming to pursue other opportunities (e.g. cottage industry)
- Struggles between landlords and villagers (e.g. game laws)
- Traditional view of enclosure (Marx): poor people driven off the land
- Recent scholarship: negative impact of enclosure has been exaggerated
  - As much as 50% of lands enclosed already by 1750 (much by mutual consent)
  - 1700: ratio of landless farmer to landowner = 2:1; not much greater in 1800

- New crops from the New World (e.g. corn, potato) (see Columbian Exchange above)

Population Explosion after 1750

- Limits to population growth before 1700: famine, disease, war
- Reasons for population growth:
  - Disappearance of plague
  - Improved sanitation
  - Improved transportation for food distribution (canal and road building in western Europe)
  - Increased food supply due to agricultural revolution (esp. potato),

Cottage Industry: first and foremost a family enterprise (also called the “putting-out” system)

- Occurred during and as a response to the Agricultural Revolution
- Putting-out system: city manufacturers took advantage of cheaper labor in the countryside
  - The growing rural population was eager to supplement its agricultural income.
  - Began to challenge urban craft industry
- Inventions during proto-industrialization
  - 1733, John Kay: flying shuttle for faster weaving
  - 1764, James Hargreaves: spinning jenny for thread spinning
  - 1769, Richard Arkwright: water frame, which improved thread spinning.
  - 1779, Samuel Crompton invented the spinning mule which combined the best features of the spinning jenny and the water frame.
Atlantic Economy in the 17th and 18th Centuries

- Characteristics
  - World trade became fundamental
    - Sugar was most important
    - Slave trade was enormous
  - Spain and Portugal revitalized their empires and began drawing more wealth from renewed development.
  - Netherlands, Britain, and France benefited most; Great Britain was the leading maritime power.

- Characteristics of mercantilism
  - Main goal: economic self-sufficiency for a nation
  - A country or empire sought to create a favorable transfer of trade by exporting more than it imported
    - Tariffs (customs duties) were placed on imports
  - Bullionism: countries sought to build up large reserves of gold and silver and prevent the flow of these precious metals out of their country
  - Colonies were acquired to provide raw materials (and markets) for the mother country
  - States granted monopolies to large companies (e.g. British East India Co., Dutch East India Co.)
  - Encouraged development of domestic industries so that a country would not have to buy a finished product from a rival country

Britain became the world’s leading maritime power by the 18th century.

- British empire based on mercantilism
  - Navigation Laws: aimed to reduce Dutch trade in the Atlantic (1st in 1651 under Cromwell)
  - Colonies existed solely for the benefit of mother country
  - The Bank of England (1694) provided an important source of capital for economic development
  - The Act of Union (1707) unified England and Scotland; the Scots sought the benefits of trade within the English empire.
  - British mercantilism differed from France in that gov’t economic regulations often served the private interest of individuals and groups as well as public needs of the state.

- North American colonies were the most valuable to Britain – tobacco, fish, lumber, grain
  - Huge market for British goods: 2.5 million people by 1775
  - The Triangular Trade
    - Revolved around the West Indies in the Caribbean and included North America and Africa.

The decline of the Dutch Republic in the Atlantic trade in the late-17th and 18th centuries

- The first half of the 16th century was the “golden age” of the Netherlands
- 3 Anglo-Dutch wars in the mid-17th century hurt Dutch shipping and commerce and gave Britain the advantage in the Atlantic
- Wars of Louis XIV further weakened the Netherlands
- Netherlands shifted their attention to banking instead of trade and managed to remain intact.
  - Ended Netherlands’ “golden age”: during 1st half of the 17th century
Colonial Wars: Britain vs. France

- Treaty of Utrecht (1713) ended the War of Spanish Succession (1701-1713)
  - Britain received asiento (slave trade) from Spain
  - Britain allowed to send one ship of merchandise annually into Panama.
- Treaty of Paris (1763) ended the Seven Years War (1756-1763)
  - Britain gained all French territory in North America
  - Britain controlled more of northeastern India (Bengal)
  - France got back islands in West Indies and some territories in India
- American Revolution: France helped the U.S. defeat Britain; this weakened the British empire
- Spain’s Latin American colonies: helped revitalize the Spanish empire in the 18th century
  - Gold and silver mining recovered
  - Significant trade between Spain’s colonies and the mother country
  - Creoles elite came to rival top Spanish authorities (about 10% of population)
  - Mestizos increased to about 20% of population
  - Black slavery existed in Cuba and Puerto Rico
- Portuguese Brazil: about 50% of population was African by the early 19th c.
- More successful in blending races than in Spanish colonies or United States

CHANGING SOCIETY IN THE 18TH CENTURY

- Marriage and family
  - Pre-1750
    - Average age for marriage was higher prior to 1750
    - The nuclear family was most common in pre-industrial Europe
    - Rate of births outside of wedlock was fairly low
  - New patterns of marriage and legitimacy emerged after 1750
    - The growth of the cottage industry with its increased income resulted in higher rates of people marrying for love instead of just purely economic reasons.
    - The explosion of births was caused by increasing illegitimacy: 1750-1850.
    - Women in cities and factories had limited independence
  - Attitudes towards children began to change during the 18th century
    - Infanticide was rampant due to severe poverty
    - Foundling hospitals emerged throughout Europe
    - Child rearing
      - Children were often treated indifferently and with strict physical discipline
        - Parents were reluctant to become too emotionally attached to their children due to high child mortality rates
      - “Spare the rod and spoil the child” – term coined by novelist Daniel Defoe
        - Many children worked in factories at a young age and were severely disciplined.
        - Many believed the task of parents was to break their will to make them obedient.
        - Humanitarianism and Enlightenment optimism regarding human progress emphasized better treatment of children
    - Work away from home
      - Boys increasingly worked away from home
      - Girls increasingly left home to work in such industries as the domestic industry and in many cases, prostitution
Education
- The beginnings of formal education for the masses took root in Protestant countries
- 1717, Prussia led the way with universal compulsory education
- Enlightenment commitment to greater knowledge through critical thinking reinforced interest in education during the 18th century
- Significant increase in literacy resulted by 1800 (e.g. 90% of Scottish males; 2/3 of males in France; over 50% of male Brits)

- Increased life-expectancy
  - Increase from age 25 to age 35 in the 18th century
  - Development of public health techniques important breakthrough of 2nd half of 18th century.
    - Improved practices in sanitation.
    - Mass vaccinations such as the small-pox vaccine developed by Edward Jenner
      - Better clothing (due to proto-industrialization)
      - Improvements in developing warm dry housing.
      - Adequate food (due to the agricultural revolution)
      - Humanitarianism led to hospital reform

American Revolution
- Strong classical liberalism ideals
- Declaration of Independence: huge impact of Locke and the Enlightenment (e.g. natural rights)
- French aid to the U.S. was important in defeating the British army
- American Revolution became a world war
  - Spain joined France hoping to drive Britain from Gibraltar
  - Netherlands joined in against Britain; sought increased trade with U.S.
  - League of Armed Neutrality: Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, Ottoman Empire
    - Formed to protect their commerce from British blockade

Impact on Europe:
- Inspired liberals to seek republicanism (especially during the French Revolution)
- The war overburdened the French treasury and was a direct cause of the French Revolution
FRENCH REVOLUTION

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<td>(Constitutional Monarchy)</td>
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<td>1789-1792</td>
<td>1792-1799</td>
<td>1799-1815</td>
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- **Nat’l Assembly: 1789-1791**
  - Tennis Court Oath
  - Storming of the Bastille
  - Great Fear and abolition of feudalism
  - Civil Constitution of the Clergy
  - Declaration of the Rights of Man

- **Nat’l Convention: 1792-1795**
  - Creation of the Republic
  - Execution of Louis XVI
  - Committee of Public Safety
  - Reign of Terror
  - Thermidorian Reaction

- **Consulate: 1799-1804**
  - Code Napoleon
  - Concordat of 1801
  - War of the 2nd Coalition

- **Legislative Assembly: 1791-92**
  - Constitution of 1791
  - Jacobins vs. Girondins
  - War of the First Coalition
  - Paris Commune
  - September Massacres

- **The Directory: 1795-99**
  - Ruling bourgeoisie vs. aristocracy and sans-culottes
  - Coup d’état Brumaire

- **Napoleonic Empire: 1804-15**
  - Confederation of the Rhine
  - Continental System
  - Treaty of Tilsit
  - Peninsular War
  - Russian Campaign
  - Waterloo

- **Historical interpretations of the French Revolution:**
  - Traditional view: clash between the bourgeoisie and the aristocracy
  - Recent scholarship: bourgeoisie and aristocracy (especially “nobility of the robe”) on parallel ladders leading to clash with the monarchy

- **Short-term cause: bankruptcy of the gov’t and enormous debt**
  - **King Louis XVI** (1774-1792), financial mismanagement; ½ of budget went to pay interest
    - **Jacques Necker**: finance minister who tried to raise taxes; privileged classes refused
    - Parlement of Paris blocked tax increases
    - **cahiers de doléance**: Each estate expected to compile list of suggestions and grievances and present them to the king during upcoming Estates General

- **Long-term causes**
  - Enlightenment (e.g. classical liberalism) led to rising expectations among French citizens
    - French physiocrats: advocated reform of the agrarian order; opposed to mercantilism
    - American Revolution intrigued many with ideal of liberty and equality
  - Social Stratification
    - **First Estate**: clergy, Gallican Church (less than 1% of population)
    - **Second Estate**: nobility (2-4% of population)
    - **Third Estate**: rest of population (paid both *tithe* to church and *taille* to gov’t)
    - Peasantry: owned 40% of land; *corvée*—forced labor several days per year for nobles
    - *Lettre de cachet*: gov’t could imprison anyone without trial or jury
    - **Bourgeoisie**: upper middle class; well-to-do but resented 1st and 2nd Estates had all the power and privilege

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Estates General, May 1789: 1st time meeting since 1614
- Parlement of Paris ruled voting would be done by estate (3 total votes)
- 3rd Estate furious that vote would not be proportional to population
  - Abbé Sieyès: What is the Third Estate? Answer: everything!
  - Rousseau’s Social Contract: the "general will" should prevail (3rd Estate)
- 3rd Estate prevailed in voting method argument after 6 weeks

National Assembly, 1789-1791 – “Age of Montesquieu”
- Tennis Court Oath:
  - June 17, 3rd Estate declared itself the true National Assembly of France
  - Oath: swore not to disband until they had given France a constitution
  - Bourgeoisie dominated the National Assembly
- Storming of the Bastille – July 14, 1789
  - “Parisian” revolution due to food shortages, soaring bread prices, unemployment, and fear of military repression
  - Significance: inadvertently saved the National Assembly from king’s repression
- Great Fear of 1789: wave of violence and hysteria in countryside against propertied class
  - Peasants (with help of middle class) destroyed records of feudal obligations
  - August 4, National Assembly abolished feudalism (manorialism); peaceful revolution
- Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizens: became constitutional blueprint for France
  - Provisions: due process of law, sovereignty of the people, equality, freedom of expression & religion, tax only by common consent, separate gov’t branches
  - “citizen”: included everyone, regardless of class
  - Women did not share equally in rights
    - Olympe de Gouges: The Rights of Woman, 1791: demanded equal rights and economic and educational opportunities
    - Mary Wollstonecraft: Vindication of the Rights of Woman, 1792: supported Gouges
    - Madame de Stael: ran a salon and wrote books deploring subordination of women
- October 5, 1789: as part of bread riot, women march to Versailles; accelerate the revolution
  - Forced king and family to move to Tuleries in Paris
- Constitution
  - Established a constitutional monarchy
  - The Civil Constitution of the Clergy: created national church with 83 bishops and diocese; biggest blunder of the National Assembly
  - 83 Departments: country politically divided into districts
  - Assignats: new paper currency; former church lands guaranteed value of currency
- International Reaction
  - Edmund Burke: Reflections on the Revolution in France
    - Conservative viewpoint: opposed the revolution as mob rule
  - Thomas Paine: Rights of Man: responded to Burke’s indictment by defending the Enlightenment principles of the revolution
 Legislative Assembly, 1791-1792

- New factions emerged:
  - **Jacobins**: political club that dominated Legislative Assembly
  - **Girondins**: radical Jacobins who were advanced party of the revolution and brought the country to war

- Declaration of Pillnitz, August, 1791: issued by Prussia and Austria in August, 1791
  - **Émigrés**: French nobles who fled France sought support of foreign countries.
  - **Emperor Leopold** declared he would restore gov’t of France if the other powers joined him; it was really only a bluff
  - French revolutionaries took Leopold at his word and prepared for war.

- War of the First Coalition
  - Legislative Assembly declared war in April, 1792
  - Austrian armies defeated French armies but divisions over eastern Europe saved France
  - **Brunswick Manifesto**: Prussia & Austria threatened to destroy Paris if royal family harmed
    - Revolutionary sentiment led by Robespierre, Danton, and Marat
    - Marked beginning of “2nd French Revolution”

- Paris Commune: Revolutionary municipal gov’t set up in Paris, which usurped powers of the Legislative Assembly
  - Legislative Assembly suspended 1791 constitution
  - **September Massacres** (led by Paris Commune)
    - Rumors of aristocratic and clerical conspiracy with foreign invaders led to massacre of over 1,000 priests, bourgeoisie, and aristocrats

 National Convention, 1792-1795 – “Age of Rousseau”

- France proclaimed a republic, September 17, 1792
  - Monarchy was abolished.
  - New gov’t based on ideals of equality, liberty, fraternity

- Two factions emerged:
  - **The Mountain**: radical republicans; urban class (Danton, Robespierre, Marat)
  - **Girondins**: more moderate faction; represented countryside

- The sans-culottes became extremely influential (not part of National Convention)
  - working-class; extremely radical
  - Kept revolution moving forward: stormed Bastille, march to Versailles, drove king from the Tuleries, September Massacres

- Louis XVI beheaded January, 1793

- In February 1793, National Convention declared war on Britain, Holland and Spain, in addition to its war with Austria and Prussia—**First Coalition**

- Mountain ousts Girondins, May 1793: urged to do so by sans-culottes who feared Girondins might ally with conservatives and royalists to maintain power.

 Committee of Public Safety, formed in Summer 1793 as emergency gov’t

- Led by Maximilien Robespierre; also Louis Saint-Just
- **Carnot Lazare**: in charge of universal military conscription (levee en masse)
- **Law of Maximum**: a planned economy to respond to food shortages and other economic problems; foreshadowed socialism
- Slavery abolished in French West Indies
• **Reign of Terror (1793-94):** most notorious event of French Revolution
  - **Law of Suspects:** Created Revolutionary Tribunals at the local level to hear cases of accused enemies brought to “justice”
  - guillotine: created as an instrument of mercy.
  - Queen Marie Antoinette beheaded
  - Girondins executed in September
  - **Vendée:** region in western France that opposed revolution saw thousands executed
  - Danton and followers executed in 1794
• **Cult of the Supreme Being:** deistic naturalist religion; Catholics now opposed to the revolution
  - Notre Dame Cathedral was turned into the **Temple of Reason**

→ **Thermidorian Reaction (1794):** ended “Reign of Terror”
• Robespierre executed, July 1794
• Constituted significant political swing to the right (conservative)
• Girondins readmitted into the National Convention
• Economic controls lifted: ended influence of sans-culottes
• Revolutionary Calendar: new non-Christian calendar instituted

→ **The Directory:** 1795-1799
• Constitution of 1795 restored some order but the new gov’t was very ineffective
• Upper bourgeoisie in control but constituted a very narrow social base of the country
• Royalist uprising against the Directory in 1795 was defeated by Napoleon Bonaparte
• Conspiracy of Equals led by “Gracchus” Babeuf failed: sans-culottes faction that sought to overthrow gov’t and abolish property; precursor to communism
• Elections in 1797 a victory for royalists but annulled by gov’t
  - Dictatorship favorable to the revolution established: “Post-Fructidorian Terror”
• Victory over the First Coalition enabled the Directory to remain in power
• **Coup d’État Brumaire,** November 1799: Napoleon invited by Abbé Sieyès to lead France
  - Directory overthrown and Napoleon becomes First Consul
# French Social Classes in the Revolution & Empire: 1799-1815

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<tr>
<th>Social Class</th>
<th>The “Age of Montesquieu” (Constitutional Monarchy) 1789-1792</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Monarchy</strong></td>
<td>Power no longer absolute: Constitutional monarchy</td>
<td>• King and queen executed</td>
<td>Napoleon became emperor with absolute power</td>
<td>Constitutional monarchy; Bourbons were restored</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Clergy</strong></td>
<td>• Civil Constitution of the Clergy made Church a dep’t of the gov’t • Clergy members required to take an oath to the gov’t • Church lands confiscated</td>
<td>• Revolutionary Calendar replaced the Christian calendar • The Cult of the Supreme Being further undermined the Catholic Church</td>
<td>• Concordat of 1801 restored relations with the Catholic Church • “Refactory clergy” reinstated while clergy loyal to the Revolution were removed • Church was far weaker than in 1789</td>
<td><strong>Church never did regain the influence it had prior to 1789</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Nobility</strong></td>
<td>• Political influence eclipsed by the bourgeoisie • Feudalism (seigneurialism) abolished</td>
<td>• Imprisoned or fled the country as émigrés between 1791-95 • Later influence undermined the Directory • In rural areas, patriotic nobles remained most politically and economically powerful group</td>
<td>• Many émigrés returned to France • Increased influence in Napoleon’s imperial nobility</td>
<td><strong>Significant influence politically (though not as much as before 1789)</strong> • Feudalism abolished since 1789 • Nobles continued to dominate rural areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle Class (Bourgeoisie)</strong></td>
<td>• Took control of France in July, 1789 • Noble privileges abolished • Declaration of the Rights of Man resulted in codification of political, social and civil rights • Reforms in higher education</td>
<td>• Lost influence between 1792-95 as a result of the San culottes and the Reign of Terror • Back in control during the Directory but under attack from the right and the left</td>
<td>• Constitution of 1799 did not guarantee human rights or liberty • Political freedoms of bourgeoisie wiped away • Some gained noble titles &amp; served in Napoleon’s gov’t</td>
<td><strong>Reduced influence until the Revolution of 1830</strong></td>
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| Urban Working Class | • Saw increased influence in Paris (e.g. storming of the Bastille)  
• Guilds dissolved providing more job opportunities for artisans.  
• Le Chapelier Law (1791) outlawed strikes, workers coalitions and assemblies  
• Bread was more affordable | • San-culottes enjoyed major influence from 1791-95 | • Ban on trade unions continued  
• Workers were restricted in their travel  
• Established reasonable prices for bread & flour | • Guilds remained illegal  
• Little influence until after 1830  
• Increased socialist influence during Revolution of 1848 |
| Peasantry | • “Great Fear” resulted in some gains for the peasantry  
• Feudalism abolished  
• Wealthy peasants bought confiscated church lands | • Land gains remained but lords continued to hold the most political and economic power in rural areas  
• Heavily taxed by the Republic | • Napoleon supported the ban on feudalism  
• Indirect taxation was as bad as during the Old Regime | • Wealthier peasants were only group to improve between 1799 and 1815  
• Rural poor gained little from the Revolution |
| Women | • Women influential in March on Versailles and in San-Culottes  
• Gained equal right to divorce as men in 1792  
• Workshops in cities employed more poor women | • Women’s political clubs closed by Jacobins by 1793-94  
• Reign of Terror also targeted certain women (e.g. Olympe de Gouges)  
• Directory in 1795 disbanded women’s workshops and urged women to tend to their homes | • Divorce laws rewritten to favor husbands  
• Gains in inheritance and property rights were removed | Women essentially gained little from the Revolution (although their actions did inspire future reformers) |
NAPOLEONIC ERA (1799-1815) – “Age of Voltaire”

**Consulate Period: 1799-1804 (Enlightened Reform)**
- **Napoleon Bonaparte**, First Consul: can be viewed as the last of the “enlightened despots”
  - plebiscite: general referendum overwhelmingly voted for Napoleon
- **Code Napoleon**: legal unity provided first clear and complete codification of French law:
  - code of civil procedure, criminal procedure, commercial code, and penal code.
  - Equality before the law
  - Abolition of serfdom
  - Drawbacks: denied women equal status, denied true political liberty (due to absolutism), nepotism by placing family members as heads of conquered regions
- **“Careers Open to talent”**: promotions in gov’t service based on merit (in theory)
  - New imperial nobility created to reward the most talented generals and officials.
  - Granted amnesty to over 100,000 *émigres* in return for a loyalty oath; many soon occupied high posts in the gov’t
- **Religion**
  - **Concordat of 1801**: Napoleon ended the rift between the church and the state
    - Papacy renouncing claims over church property seized during the Revolution
    - French gov’t officially allowed to nominate or depose bishops.
    - In return, priests who had resisted the Civil Constitutions of the Clergy would replace those who had sworn an oath to the state
    - Replaced the Revolutionary Calendar with the traditional Christian Calendar
    - Extended legal toleration to Catholics, Protestants, Jews, and atheists who all received same civil rights
- **Financial unity**
  - **Bank of France**: served interests of the state and financial oligarchy
  - Gov’t balanced the national budget and established sound currency and public credit
  - Economic reforms stimulated the economy
- **Educational reform**: public education under state control
- **Police state created to root out opponents of Napoleon’s regime**

**Napoleonic Wars**
- **War of the Second Coalition**: 1798-1801
  - Napoleon ultimately victorious
  - Resulted in Austria’s loss of her Italian possessions.
  - German territory on west bank of the Rhine incorporated into France

**Empire Period**, 1804-1814
- Napoleon crowned himself Emperor
- **Grand Empire**: consisted of an enlarged France and satellite kingdoms
- **War of the Third Coalition**: (1805-1807)
  - **Battle of Trafalgar** (1805), Horatio Nelson of Britain destroyed French navy
    - Established supremacy of British navy for over a century
    - Napoleon forced to cancel invasion of Britain
  - **Battle of Austerlitz** (Dec. 1805): Napoleon smashed Austrian army and gained more territory
    - Third Coalition collapsed leaving Napoleon the master over much of Europe
- Treaty of Tilsit (1807): symbolized height of Napoleon’s success
  - Prussia lost half its population.
  - Russia accepted Napoleon’s reorganization of western and central Europe.
  - Russia also agreed to accept Napoleon’s Continental System.
- Germany reorganized by Napoleon
  - Consolidation of 300 states into 38
  - Confederation of the Rhine: 15 German states minus Prussia, Austria, and Saxony
    - Napoleon became “Protector” of the Confederation
    - Holy Roman Empire abolished
    - Feudalism abolished
- Continental System: aimed to isolate Britain and promote Napoleon’s mastery over Europe
  - Berlin Decree, 1806: British ships not allowed in European ports
  - Milan Decree, 1807: Napoleon proclaimed any ship stopping in Britain would be seized when it entered the Continent.
  - Continental System a major failure: failed to hurt Britain; European countries grew tired of it
- The Peninsular War (1808-1814) in Spain: first great revolt against Napoleon’s power
  - Guerrilla war against France aided by Britain and led by Duke of Wellington
- Russian Campaign (1812):
  - Battle of Borodino (1812): ended in draw but Napoleon overextended himself
  - French troops invaded all the way to Moscow but eventually driven back and destroyed
- War of the Fourth Coalition (1813-1814): Britain, Prussia, Austria, Russia
  - Battle of Leipzig (“Battle of Nations”), 1813: Most of Napoleon’s Grand Army destroyed
  - Napoleon abdicates April, 1814; Bourbons restored to throne
- King Louis XVIII creates Charter of 1814: constitutional monarchy; bicameral legislature
  - “first” Treaty of Paris (1814)
    - France surrendered all lands gained since 1792
    - Allies imposed no indemnity or reparations

➔ Congress of Vienna (1814-1815)
- Klemens Von Metternich (1773-1859): dominant figure at the Congress; conservative
- Principles of Settlement: Legitimacy, Compensation, Balance of Power
- “Hundred Days” (March 20-June 22, 1815): Napoleon returns from exile and organizes new army
  - Capitalized on stalled talks at Congress of Vienna
  - Battle of Waterloo, June 1815: Napoleon defeated by Duke of Wellington
  - Napoleon exiled to St. Helena
- “2nd” Treaty of Paris: dealt more harshly w/ France; large indemnity, some minor territories
BALANCE OF POWER: 1689-1815 (“2\textsuperscript{nd} Hundred Years’ War”)
- France vs. Britain during this period can be seen as a “2\textsuperscript{nd} 100 years War”
- Wars of Louis XIV: coalition of countries kept France from dominating Europe
  - War of the League of Augsburg: France vs. Britain, Netherlands, HRE, Spain, Sweden, Bavaria, Saxony
    - Dutch Stadholder William of Orange became King William of England and led England into the war against France
- War of Austrian Succession (1740-1748):
  - Prussia under Frederick the Great threatened the balance of power in Eastern Europe
    - Gained Silesia from Austria
  - France and Britain fought over territories in North America
- Seven Years’ War (1756-1763):
  - Austria and Russia (with support from France) sought to destroy Prussia
  - “Diplomatic Revolution of 1756”: France sided with Austria against Britain and Prussia.
  - Prussia was outnumbered severely by Russia and Austria but still managed to survive the war.
  - Treaty of Paris (1763): France lost its North American possessions to Britain
- American Revolution: France helped U.S. win its independence from Britain
- French Revolution
  - War of the First Coalition: France vs. Britain, Austria, Prussia
- Napoleonic Wars: France vs. Britain, Prussia, Austria, Russia
  - Waterloo, 1815
  - Congress of Vienna, 1815: balance of power, legitimacy, and compensation

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION
- Roots of the Industrial Revolution
  - Commercial Revolution (1500-1700)
  - Rise in capitalism (laissez-faire): bourgeoisie at the forefront
  - Mercantilism: economic self-sufficiency; “bullionism”
  - Overseas colonization: esp. Atlantic economy
  - Scientific revolution: new inventions and experimentation in better agricultural practices
  - Rise in population: between 1750 & 1850 pop. nearly doubled to 266 million
- Proto-industrialization (cottage industry)
  - Flourished first in England
  - Inventions (due to growing worldwide demand for textiles)
    - 1733, John Kay: flying shuttle
    - 1764, James Hargreaves: spinning jenny
    - 1769, Richard Arkwright: water frame--improved thread spinning.
    - 1779, Samuel Crompton combines spinning-jenny & water frame into the mule.
Reasons favorable to England:

- Economic and social factors
  - Geographic isolation from the Continent offered protection
  - Good supply of iron and coal
  - Excellent waterways for transportation

- Agricultural revolution
  - Resulted in population growth and abundance of cheap available labor

- Large amount of capital (e.g. Bank of England, 1694)

- Entrepreneurs
  - Inventive and technologically skilled managers, stable gov’t supportive of industry
  - Many were driven by “Protestant work ethic”

- Colonial empire
  - Strong Atlantic economy & navy
  - Gave Britain access to raw materials

- Stable and supportive gov’t policies

- Rise of the world’s first great textile factories
  - Made production of textiles cheaper, faster and more profitable
  - 1780s, Arkwright: first to use steam engine to power looms; factory production of textiles.
  - 1784, Edmund Cartwright (1753-1823) invents loom powered by horses, water, or steam.
  - Metallurgical industries flourished as they provided the machinery

- Steam engines and coal
  - 1769, James Watt (1736-1819) invented and patented the first efficient steam engine.
    - Industrial Revolution’s most fundamental advance in technology
  - Iron industry radically transformed by the steam engine
    - Heavy industry: manufacture of machinery and materials used in production

- Transportation Revolution
  - Duke of Bridgewater: developed canal system (with use of steam power)
  - John McAdam (1756-1836): hard-surfaced roads in England
  - 1807, Robert Fulton, Clermont: first useful steamship; went up the Hudson River (U.S.)
  - Railroad’s impact:
    - Revolutionized travel overland; fast, cheap, and in any terrain
    - Growing regional and national market
    - 1825, George Stephenson’s (The Rocket) made railway locomotive commercially successful.

- Britain’s economy by 1850:
  - Produced 2/3 of world’s coal.
  - Produced more than ½ of world’s iron.
  - Produced more than ½ of world’s cotton cloth.
  - GNP rose 350% between 1801 and 1850; 100% growth between 1780 and 1800.
  - Population increased from 9 million in 1780 to almost 21 million in 1851.
  - Per capita income increased almost 100% between 1801 and 1851.
  - The Crystal Palace, built in 1851, symbolized Britain’s economic might
⇒ Continental Europe industrializes after 1815
- Napoleonic Wars retarded growth of the Continental economy until after 1815
- Continental countries eventually borrowed (or stole) British technology
- Industrialization differed in each country after 1815
  o Belgium, Holland, France began in 2nd decade of 19th century.
  o Germany, Austria, and Italy in mid-19th century; Germany eclipsed Britain by 1890s
  o Eastern Europe and Russia at end of the 19th century.
- Strong sovereign central governments and banking systems to promote native industry
  o Credit Mobilier in France: financed major industrial projects
  o Tariff policies used to protect native industries: Zollverein in Germany
  o Significance: increased production and availability of manufactured goods.

⇒ Social Implications from Industrial Revolution:
- New social order replaced traditional stratification (clergy, nobility and masses)
- Rise of the middle-class: bourgeoisie
  o Upper bourgeoisie: great bankers, merchants and industrialists
  o “Petit bourgeoisie”: small industrialists, merchants and professionals who demanded security and stability from the government.
- Proletariat: new wage-earning class of factory workers
  o During the first century of the industrial revolution a surplus of labor resulted in poor conditions for workers
  o Poorhouses emerged to provide work for those who were unemployed
  o Friedrich Engels (1820-1895): lashed out at middle-class abuse of wage-earners
  o Luddites: attacked factories, broke machinery; believed factories taking their jobs
  o After 1850, industrial revolution more favorable to workers than negative.
- Struggle between labor and capital
  o Union movement: workers began to organize to improve wages & working conditions
  o Combination Acts (1799): Parliament fearful of radicalism of French Revolution, made unions illegal; largely ignored by workers; repealed in 1824
  o Robert Owen (1771-1858): in 1834, founded Grand National Consolidated Trades Union
    ▪ Movement failed; after 1851 unions were moving toward craft unions
  o Chartists: sought political democracy for all men
  o Union action combined with general prosperity and a developing social conscience, to improve working conditions, wages, and hours first of skilled labor, and later of unskilled labor.
- Changes in working conditions
  o factory work: more discipline required; increased loss of personal freedom
  o exploitation of children
  o Factory Act of 1833: limited hours per day; prohibited children under age 9
  o Mines Act of 1842: prohibited all children under age 10 from working underground

⇒ Urbanization of the world: Industrial Revolution’s most important sociological effect (e.g. Manchester)
Working class injustices, gender exploitation and standard-of-living issues became the 19th century’s great social and political dilemmas

- Family structure: productive work taken out of the home to the factory
  - Gender issues: women’s work now seen as less valuable; increasingly associated with domestic duties.
  - Men separated from wives and children: leaving home to go work or working in different factories
- The “dismal science”: economics
  - David Ricardo (1772-1823): “iron law” of wages -- argued that the high pressure of population would cause wages to always be low.
  - Thomas Malthus (1766-1834): late 18th century economist who believed food supply could not keep up with population growth (pop. growth exponential; food production increased geometrically)
- Historical debate on Industrial Revolution:
  - Capitalists view it as a positive step toward fulfilling human wants and needs
  - Socialists and communists view it as the further exploitation of the have-nots by the haves

19TH CENTURY POLITICS: 1815-1848

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Congress of Vienna (1814-15) met to end the Napoleonic wars and to keep France in check.

- Represented a temporary triumph for the old conservative order
  - Worked to suppress liberal and nationalist impulses throughout Europe
- Klemens von Metternich – Austria; most important leader of the Congress
- Principles: Legitimacy, Compensation, Balance of Power
  - Legitimacy: Bourbons restored to power in France; Papal States returned to the pope; dynasties restored in Netherlands, Sardinia, Tuscany and Modena
  - Compensation: victors were rewarded with territory
    - England received naval bases
    - Austria awarded some provinces in northern Italy, Poland and the Balkans
    - Russia gained most of Poland, Finland and modern-day Moldova and western Ukraine
    - Prussia awarded the Rhineland, 3/5 of Saxony and part of Poland
  - Balance of Power
    - Encirclement of France achieved through a stronger Netherlands, Prussian control of the Rhineland and perpetual Swiss neutrality
- End of Holy Roman Empire
  - **German Confederation (Bund)** consisted of 39 states—reduced from the original 300—with Austria as leader of the Diet
- Only Britain emerged as a growing power after the Napoleonic wars
- Congress of Vienna evaluated
  - Successfully restored the balance of power in Europe; no world wars occurred between 1815 and 1914
  - Viewed by liberals and nationalists as repressive and anti-progressive

→**Concert of Europe**: lasted from 1815 until the Crimean War of the 1850s
- Sought to guarantee the enforcement of the status quo as defined by the Vienna settlement.
- **Quadruple Alliance**: Prussia, England, Austria and Russia ("PEAR")
  - Provided for concerted action to arrest any threat to the peace or balance of power.
- **Congress System**: European international relations controlled by series of meetings held by great powers to monitor and defend the status quo
  - 1822, Britain withdrew from the Congress effectively killing Congress system.
- "**Holy Alliance**" – proposed by Alexander I in 1815: proposed for all monarchs to sign a statement agreeing to uphold Christian principles of charity and peace; plan was impractical and few took it seriously
  - Liberals saw it as a sort of unholy alliance of monarchies against liberty and progress.

→**Conservatism**: arose in reaction to liberalism and became a popular alternative for those frightened by the violence, terror and social disorder of the French Revolution.
- Embodied most by Klemens von Metternich of Austria
- Support by traditional ruling classes & peasants who still formed majority of the population
- Believed in order, society and the state; faith and tradition

→**Post-war conservative repression (1815-1820)**
- Metternich in Austria and the German Confederation
  - Multi-ethnic composition of Hapsburg Empire meant liberalism and nationalism were potentially more dangerous than in other countries.
  - Liberalism and nationalism highly vocal and visible in universities in first half of 19th century
  - **Carlsbad Diet** (1819) called by Metternich; issued the **Carlsbad Decrees** that cracked down on liberalism in universities and drove liberalism and nationalism underground.
- Prussian gov’t and its traditional ruling classes (Junkers) followed Metternich’s lead in repressing liberal and nationalist movements.
- **England**: Tories (who had defeated Napoleon) still in control.
  - **Corn Law of 1815**: halted importation of cheaper foreign grains; higher prices hurt ordinary people
  - **Habeas corpus** repealed for the first time in English history
  - “**Peterloo Massacre**” of 1819 led by Lord Liverpool
    - Pro-liberal crowd listening to anti-Corn law rhetoric attacked by police.
    - Press brought under more firm control and mass meetings abolished.
• **France:** King Louis XVIII (r. 1814-1824), shift from moderate to conservative
  o Constitutional monarchy (**Charter of 1814**): most liberal large state on the continent.
  o 1815, thousands of former revolutionaries murdered by royalist mobs ("White Terror")
  o 1829, heir to the throne murdered and royalists used incident as pretense to further crack down on liberalism.

• **Russia: Decembrist Uprising, 1825**
  o Alexander I’s death led to a power vacuum
  o Decembrists (junior military officers): upper-class opponents of the autocratic Russian system of gov’t
    ▪ Supported popular grievances among Russian society.
    ▪ First upper-class revolt against Russia’s autocratic system of government
    ▪ Sought to prevent Nicholas I’s assumption of the throne
    ▪ Revolt eventually suppressed by Nicholas I
  o Nicholas I became Europe’s most reactionary monarch
    ▪ Russia became a police state with censorship, a secret police, and state-sponsored terrorism
    ▪ No representative assemblies.
    ▪ Education was limited and university curricula were carefully monitored.
    ▪ Resulted in severe alienation of Russian intellectuals
      ❖ **Slavophiles** believed that Russian village (the *mir*) culture was superior to that of the West.
      ❖ **Westernizers** wanted to extend the “genius of Russian culture” by industrializing and setting up a constitutional gov’t.

➔ **Liberalism:** First major theory in Western history that believed the *individual is a self-sufficient being*, whose freedom and well-being are the sole reasons for the existence of society.

• **Classical liberalism:**
  o reformist and political rather than revolutionary in character
  o individuals entitled to seek their freedom in the face of tyranny.
  o humans have certain natural rights and governments should protect them.
  o rights are best guaranteed by a written constitution, with careful definition of the limits to which governmental actions may go (e.g. Declaration of Independence; *Declaration of the Rights of Man*)
  o republican form of gov’t; but NOT based on widespread suffrage
  o Democrats were more radical than liberals; more willing to endorse violence to achieve goals.

• Liberalism in Economics
  o **Adam Smith in Wealth of Nations** (1776): advocated economic individualism
    ▪ *laissez-faire*: opposed gov’t intervention in social and economic affairs, even if the need for action seemed great to social critics and reformers – *laissez faire*.
    ▪ Most productive economy was one that allowed for the greatest measure of individual choice—“invisible hand” of the self-regulating market.
    ▪ Severely opposed to mercantilism
  o **David Ricardo:** "iron law of wages": plentiful supply of workers would keep wages low, to the detriment of the working class.
  o **Thomas Malthus:** believed human population would eat itself out of existence.
• **Utilitarianism:** founded by Jeremy Bentham
  o Utility of any proposed law or institution based on “the greatest happiness of the greatest number.”
  o Major proponent of poor laws and influenced future urban reformers (like Edwin Chadwick)

  o Argued for “absolute freedom of opinion” to be protected from both gov’t censorship and tyranny of the majority.
  o Later argued for women’s rights: *On the Subjection of Women* (1867)

• **Impact of Liberalism on European politics**
  o Involved in the various revolutionary movements of the early 19th century (see below)
  o Embodied in over ten constitutions secured between 1815 and 1848 in states of the German Confederation.
  o July Revolution in France, 1830
  o Influenced reform measures in Britain governments from 1830s into 20th century.
  o Inspired German student organizations and impacted Prussian (and later German) life.

→ **Nationalism:** sought to turn cultural unity into self-government

• **Characteristics**
  o Common language, history and traditions would bring about unity and common loyalties.
  o Supported by liberals and especially democrats
  o Immediate origins were in the French Revolution and Napoleonic wars.
  o **Johann Gottfried Herder** (1744-1803): regarded as father of modern nationalism
    ▪ Believed every people is unique and possesses a distinct national character—*Volksgeist*—which has evolved over many centuries.
  o **Johann Gottlieb Fichte** (1762-1814): Regarded as “father” of German nationalism
    ▪ Saw Germans as superior to other peoples and was especially critical of Jews

→ **National revolutionary movements: 1815-1829**
  o Spain (1820): revolutionary movement crushed by French troops authorized by Austria, Prussia, and Russia (opposed by England who left the Congress System)
  o **Greek Revolution** (1821-1829)
    ▪ Concerned the “Eastern Question”: Which European countries would fill the void in the Balkans resulting from the decline of the Ottoman Empire?
    ▪ England, France and Russia accepted Greece’s Christian appeal and joined into a united force that defeated combined Turkish and Egyptian naval forces.
    ▪ **Treaty of Adrianople** (1829): recognized Greek independence.
    ▪ Significance: 3 out of 5 members of Concert of Europe supported nationalism signaling a shift from united conservatism to nationalistic self-interest.

→ **Revolutions of 1830:** sparked by wave of liberalism and nationalism

• **France: July Revolution** (1830):
  o A radical revolt in Paris forced the reactionary King Charles X to abdicate his throne.
  o **Louis Philippe** (r. 1830-1848) of Orleans family became new king under a constitutional monarchy; known as the “Bourgeoisie King”
    ▪ France now controlled by upper-middle class Bourgeoisie bankers and businessmen (in
effect, a return to narrow liberalism of 1815)

- Impact of July Revolution: sparked a wave of revolutions throughout Europe.

- **Italy** (1831-32)
  - Northern Italy—Modena, Parma, and Papal States—saw outbreaks of liberal discontent.
  - Italian nationalists called unification.
    - Guiseppe Mazzini (1805-72) and his secret revolutionary society—Young Italy.
    - The Carbonari: secret nationalist societies advocated force to achieve national unification.
  - Austrian troops under Metternich’s enforcement of the Concert of Europe’s philosophy crushed the disorganized revolutionaries.
  - Italian Risorgimento (“resurgence” of the Italian spirit) continued—Mazzini’s dream.

- **Germany** (1830-1833)
  - Carlsbad Decrees of 1819 had effectively restricted freedom throughout Germany.
  - The July Revolution inspired German university students and professors to lead street demonstrations that forced temporary granting of constitutions in several minor states.
  - Yet, liberal and nationalistic desires for German unification were easily crushed by Metternich’s domination of the German Confederation (Bund), and his influence over Prussia.

- **Prussia**
  - Established economic union of 17 German states—the Zollverein—which eliminated internal tariffs and set the tone for greater union.

- **Belgium** (1830)
  - Belgium had been merged with Holland in 1815, the upper classes of Belgium had never reconciled themselves to rule by the Dutch.
  - July Revolution inspired a revolt against Dutch rule in Brussels, led by students and workers.
  - A national Congress wrote a liberal Belgian Constitution.

- **Poland** (1830-31)
  - Nicholas I crushed a nationalist uprising that challenged Russia’s historic domination of Poland. Warsaw to demonstrate his extreme conservatism in foreign policy.
  - The Organic Statute of 1832 declared Poland to be an integral part of the Russian empire.

→ Reform in England

- Young reform-minded Tories George Canning and Robert Peel gained influence (1820s)
  - Abandoned Congress System, reformed prisons and criminal code, allowed membership in labor unions, established efficient metropolitan police force (“Bobbies”)
  - Religious Reform:
    - 1673 Test Act was repealed (had banned non-Anglicans from office)
    - Catholic Emancipation Act (1829) granted full civil rights to Roman Catholics.

- **Earl Grey**, leader of Whigs asked by new king George IV to form a new government (1830)
  - Whigs were heavily supported by middle class
  - Reform Bill of 1832 (spurred by cholera epidemic)
    - Made the House of Commons the supreme power in Britain
    - Sought to increase number of voters from 6% of population to 12%.
    - Sought to eliminate underpopulated electoral districts (“rotten boroughs”) and replace them with representation from new manufacturing districts and cities
Labor Reform:
- **Factory Act of 1831**: forbade child labor under age of nine
- Slavery abolished in British West Indies, 1833; **William Wilberforce**
- **Poor Law, 1834**: required healthy unemployed workers to live in workhouses.
- **10 Hour Act, 1847**: limited work hours for women and children to 10 hours per day

Chartists: sought universal suffrage
- **The People's Charter** (The Great Charter): also demanded secret balloting, no property qualifications for members of Parliament, salaries for member of Parliament, equal electoral districts (end to “rotten boroughs”), annual elections for Parliament.
- Significance: although movement failed all its ideas adopted in late 19th and early 20th c.

Corn Laws repealed, 1846
- **Anti-Corn Law League** led by Richard Cobden and John Bright who argued for lower food prices.

Navigation Laws repealed in 1849

**Revolutions of 1848** – considered the watershed political event of the 19th century.
- 1848 revolutions influenced by romanticism, nationalism, liberalism and socialism, as well as economic dislocation and instability.
- Only Britain and Russia avoided significant upheaval
- Neither liberals nor conservatives could gain a permanent upper hand.
- Resulted in end of serfdom in Austria and Germany, universal male suffrage in France, parliaments established in German states (although controlled by princes & aristocrats), stimulated unification impulse in Prussia and Sardinia-Piedmont (Italy).
- Last of the liberal revolutions dating back to the French Revolution

**France**
- **“February Revolution”**
  - Working class and liberals unhappy with King Louis Philippe, especially his minister Francois Guizot (who opposed electoral reform); King forced to abdicate
  - **Second French Republic**: led by liberal Alphonse Lamartine (allied w/ bourgeoisie)
  - **Louis Blanc**: socialist thinker emerged as a leader among the working classes.
  - **National workshops**: created to provide work for the unemployed
  - Reforms: abolished slavery in the empire, 10-hr workday in Paris, abolished death penalty
  - April elections for new Constituent Assembly resulted in conflict between liberal capitalists and socialists
    - Workers sought a revolutionary republic after Blanc was dropped from assembly.
- **“June Days” Revolution**
  - Cause: gov’t closed national workshops
  - Marked beginning of class warfare in France
  - Workers sought war against poverty and redistribution of income.
  - Barricades put up in streets to oppose gov’t forces (Hugo’s *Les Miserables* based on this)
  - **General Cavaignac**: assumed dictatorial powers & crushed revolt (10,000 dead)
  - Victory for conservatives
- **Election of 1848**: **Louis Napoleon** defeated Cavignac
  - 1852: Louis Napoleon consolidates power and becomes **Emperor Napoleon III**
  - Gains: Universal manhood suffrage in 1848
• Italy
  o Italian nationalists and liberals seek to end foreign domination of Italy
    ▪ Milan, Lombardy and Venetia expel Austrian rulers
    ▪ Bourbon rulers in Sicily and Naples defeated (Kingdom of Two Sicilies)
    ▪ Sardinia-Piedmont declared war on Austria
    ▪ Giuseppe Mazzini established Roman Republic in 1849; protected by Giuseppe Garibaldi
      ▪ Pope Pius IX forced to flee
  o Failure of revolutions in Italy result in conservative victory:
    ▪ Austrian General Radetsky crushed Sardinia-Piedmont; regained Lombardy and Venetia
    ▪ French troops took back Papal States
    ▪ Causes for failure:
      ❖ Rural people did not support revolutions
      ❖ Revolutionaries not united (as was also the case in Germany)
      ❖ Fear of radicals among moderates
• Austria
  o Habsburg empire was vulnerable to revolutionary challenge
    ▪ Ethnic minorities sought nationalistic goals: Hungarians, Slavs, Czechs, Italians, Serbs, Croats, and others. (More non-Germans than Germans lived in the empire)
    ▪ Austrian gov’t was reactionary; liberal institutions were non-existent.
    ▪ Social reliance on serfdom doomed masses of people to a life without hope.
    ▪ “February Days” in France sparked rebellion for liberal reforms.
  o Hungarian war against Austria (Vienna)
    ▪ Louis Kossuth (1802-1894) Hungarian (Magyar) leader demanded independence
    ▪ Czechs and three northern Italian provinces declared autonomy.
    ▪ Hungarian armies drove within sight of Vienna
    ▪ Austrian empire collapsed; Metternich fled
    ▪ Serfdom abolished
    ▪ Revolutionary gov’t failed to govern effectively
    ▪ Habsburgs restored royal absolutism by defeating Kossuth and the Hungarians
      ❖ Slavic minorities resisted Magyar invasion and the Hungarian army withdrew
      ❖ Austrian and Russian armies defeated the Hungarian army.
    ▪ Hungary would have to wait until 1867 for political autonomy
  o Bohemia
    ▪ Prague Conference developed notion of Austroslavism: constitution and autonomy within Habsburg empire.
    ▪ Pan-Slav Congress failed to unite Slavic peoples in the empire.
    ▪ Austrian military ultimately occupied Bohemia and crushed rebellion
• German States
  o Revolutions inspired by 1848 revolutions in France
    ▪ Liberals demanded a constitutional government and union or federation of German states.
    ▪ Frederick William IV rejected the liberal constitution; imposed a conservative one that guaranteed royal control of gov’t (lasted until 1918).
Frankfurt Parliament (May, 1848)
- Liberal, romantic, & nationalist leaders called for elections to a constituent assembly, from all states in the German Bund, for the purpose of unifying the German states.
- Sought war with Denmark to annex Schleswig & Holstein; Prussia declared war on Denmark
- Presented constitution for a united German federation
  - Selected Prussian King Frederick William IV as emperor; he declined claiming “divine right of kings”
  - Failure of Prussia and Austria to support unification movement resulted in its collapsed
- Frederick William’s attempt to unify Germany ended in failure
  - Austria demanded Prussian allegiance to the Bund (that Austria dominated)
  - “Humiliation of Olmutz”: Prussia dropped plan to unify Germany, leaving Austria as the dominant German state in the Bund.
    - Prussia would seek revenge in 1866 (Austro-Prussian War)

Socialism
- Desire to reorganize society to establish cooperation and a new sense of community.
  - Increasing misery of working classes disturbed liberal thinkers (Bentham and Mill), who proposed a modification of *laissez-faire* economics.
  - Liberal practices in politics (republicanism) and economics (capitalism) seemed to promote selfish individualism and the fragmenting of society.
    - Not until the 19th century did issue of social justice gain broad intellectual base and greater support.
- Early French Socialists proposed a system of greater economic equality planned by the government (sometimes called *Utopian Socialists*)
  - **Count Henri de Saint-Simon** (1760-1825)
    - Believed industrialization, aided by science, would bring a wondrous new age to Europe led by scientists, engineers and industrialists (not nobles, lawyers and clergy)
    - Sought public works projects and establishing investment banks.
    - Every social institution should have as its main goal improved conditions for the poor.
  - **Louis Blanc** (1811-1882): more practical approach than other early French socialists.
    - Urged workers to fight for universal suffrage and to take control of the state peacefully.
    - Gov’t should set up workshops and factories to guarantee full employment.
  - **Pierre Joseph Proudhon** (1809-1865) *What is Property?* (1840)
    - Believed property was profit stolen from the worker, who was the source of all wealth.
    - Often considered an anarchist as he greatly feared the power of the state.
  - **Charles Fourier** (1772-1837), impact on U.S.
    - Proposed a planned economy and socialist communities.
    - Described socialist utopia in lavish mathematical detail.
    - Seven utopian communities founded along his ideas; most in the U.S.
    - Early proponent of total emancipation of women.
  - Christian Socialism (began in England around 1848)
    - Believed the evils of industrialism would be ended by following Christian principles.
    - Attempted to bridge the gap between the anti-religious drift of socialism and the need for Christian social justice for workers.
• Scientific Socialism or Marxism: developed by Karl Marx and Friederich Engels
  o *The Communist Manifesto* (1830) and *Das Kapital* (1861): Intended to replace utopian hopes and dreams with a brutal, militant blueprint for socialist working class success.
  o Karl Marx: Theory of dialectical materialism
    ▪ The economic interpretation of history: all human history has been determined by economic factors (mainly who controls the means of production and distribution).
      ❖ The class struggle: Since the beginning of time there has been a class struggle between the rich and the poor or the exploiters and the exploited.
    ▪ Theory of Surplus Value: the true value of a product was labor and, since the worker received a small portion of his just labor price, the difference was surplus value, “stolen” from him by the capitalist.
    ▪ Socialism was inevitable: Capitalism contained the seeds of its own destruction (overproduction, unemployment, etc.)
    ▪ Violent revolution:
      ❖ The increasing gap between proletariat and bourgeoisie will be so great that the working classes will rise up in revolution and overthrow the elite bourgeoisie.
      ❖ Will create a “dictatorship of the proletariat.” *WORKING MEN OF ALL COUNTRIES, UNITE!*”
    ▪ Creation of a classless society: Will result as modern capitalism is dismantled.
      ❖ “From each according to his abilities, to each according to his needs”
  • Impact of socialism on European politics became profound by late 19th century (see below)

⇒ROMANTICISM: (1800-1850)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Romanticism</th>
<th>Enlightenment (18th century)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o Emotion and faith over reason</td>
<td>o Reason over emotion</td>
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<tr>
<td>o Emphasized beauty and tempestuousness of nature</td>
<td>o Saw nature as a precise harmonious whole</td>
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<td>o Rejected science based on physics and saw the universe as alive and changing</td>
<td>o Saw the universe as based on the physics of Newton (mechanistic view)</td>
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<td>o Faith was a valid and important aspect of the human experience</td>
<td>o Deism rejected faith and the divinity of Jesus</td>
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<td>o Supported popular revolutions for liberty and nationalism</td>
<td>o Classical liberalism tended to advance interests of the bourgeoisie</td>
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<tr>
<td>o Idealized the past, especially the Medieval Period</td>
<td>o Saw the past as counter-progressive to human history</td>
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<td>o Encouraged personal freedom and flexibility: <em>Man is born free and everywhere he is in chains</em> (Rousseau)</td>
<td>o Saw human nature as uniform and society regulated by accepted values, standards, and rules</td>
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<tr>
<td>o Humanitarian movements were created to fight slavery, poverty and industrial evils.</td>
<td>o Humanitarianism sought to effect progress in society through education</td>
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<td>o Inspired German pietism and Methodism</td>
<td>o Less inclined towards organized religion</td>
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</table>
• Reaction against the rationalism of the Enlightenment
• Forerunners of romanticism
  o **Rousseau**: most important *(Social Contract, 1762)*; believed society and materialism corrupted human nature; humans in a state of nature were a “noble savage”
  o **Kant**: Accepted rationalism of the Enlightenment while preserving belief in human freedom, immortality, & existence of God.
  o Romanticism inspired by French Revolution
  o **Sturm und Drang** (“Storm and Stress”): used by German romantics in 1770s and 80s conveying emotional intensity.
• Romantic Poetry
  o Romantics saw poetry as supreme over all other literary forms—an expression of one’s soul
  o **William Wordsworth** (1771-1855): most important of early Romantic poets
    • Dismayed by industrialism; sought solace in the beauty and grandeur of nature
    • Believed nature had a healing power on the human spirit
    • “The poet considers man and nature as essentially adapted to each other, and the mind of man as naturally a mirror of the fairest and most interesting properties of nature”
  o **Samuel Taylor Coleridge** (1772-1834): some of his works idealize nature
    • Worked closely with Wordsworth; coauthored *Lyrical Ballads* (1798)
• Romantic Literature
  o **George Sand** (1804-76) female writer: Themes of romantic love of nature and moral idealism
  o **Johann Wolfgang von Goethe** (1749-1832):
    o *Faust*
    o *Sorrows of Young Werther*
  o **Victor Hugo** (1802-1885): *Hunchback of Notre Dame; Les Miserables*
  o **Alexander Dumas** (1802-70): *Three Musketeers*
• Romantic nationalism
  o **Johann Gottfried von Herder** (1744-1803) “father” of modern nationalism
    • Saw every cultural group as unique and possessing a distinct national character—*Volksgeist*—evolving over many centuries.
    • His ideas led to the notion that every nation should be sovereign and contain all members of the same nationality.
  o Grimm’s *Fairy Tales*: Popularity of German stories reflected growing German nationalism
• Romantic Art
  o **Caspar David Friedrich** (1774-1840), *Wanders above the Mist*
  o **Eugene Delacroix** (1796-1863), *Liberty Leading the People; Massacre at Chios*
  o **Theodore Gericault** (1791-1824), *Raft of the Medusa*
  o **J. M. W. Turner** (1775-1855), depicted nature’s power and terror
  o **John Constable** (1776-1837), depicted English rural landscapes
• Music
  o Music often conveyed human emotion or nationalistic feelings
  o **Ludwig van Beethoven** (1770-1826): one of first composers to convey inner emotion through music
  o Hector Berlioz (1803-1869): works conveyed moods and actions via instrumental music
  o Frédéric Chopin (1810-49): piano works highlighted Polish folk songs and dances
  o Franz Liszt (1811-1886): some works conveyed folk music of his native Hungary; greatest piano virtuosos of the 19th century.
- Antonín Dvořák (1841-1904): works utilized folk music of his native Bohemia
- Giuseppi Verdi: greatest Italian opera composer; nationalist themes
- Richard Wagner (1813-1883): German opera composer who emphasized German myths and legends
- Peter Tchaikovsky (1840-1893): often used Russian folk songs in his symphonies and ballets

- Philosophy
  - **Georg Wilhelm Hegel** (1770-1831): **dialectic** -- initial idea (thesis) is challenged by an opposing view (anti-thesis) and results in a hybrid of the two ideas (synthesis)

- **URBANIZATION IN THE LATE 19TH CENTURY**
  - By 1900 much of Europe had become urban and industrial (most important result of the industrial revolution)
    - First Industrial Revolution: 1780-1850 – textiles, coal, iron, railroads
  
  ➤ **Second Industrial Revolution**: last half 19th century
  - Four major aspects
    - Steel production: steel rails, skyscrapers
    - Oil: lighting, internal combustion engine for factory machines
    - electricity: increasingly powered cities
    - chemicals: Germany led in photo processing and other areas
  - By 1890s Germany became most powerful industrial economy in Europe (surpassing Britain)
  - Expansion of industry and technology created growing demand for experts with specialized knowledge (middle class).
    - Professionals: Engineering, architecture, chemistry, accounting and surveying.
    - Management of large public and private institutions also emerged as a profession

- **Urbanization:**
  - The industrial revolution attracted huge numbers of workers into the cities
    - Britain the first large country to experience urban growth (over 50% of population in 1891)
    - Certain Continental countries followed
  - Poor living conditions (deplorable in early 19th c. but gradually improved by 1900).
    - Parks and open spaces almost nonexistent
    - Many people lived in extremely overcrowded attics or cellars (as many as 10 per room)
    - Open drains and sewers flowed along streets with garbage and excrement
    - Total absence of public transportation

- **Public health movement**
  - **Edwin Chadwick** became most important reformer of living conditions in cities.
    - Influenced by **Jeremy Bentham**: idea of “greatest good for greatest number”
    - **“Sanitary idea”** most important: believed disease could be prevented by cleaning up the urban environment
    - Adequate supply of clean piped water to carry off excrement of communal outhouses.
  - Britain, Germany & France adopted Chadwick’s ideas due to the cholera epidemic in 1840s.
  - Significant progress occurred in many European cities by the 1860s and 1870s

- **Urban planning & public transportation**
  - France took the lead during reign of Napoleon III
    - **Baron von Haussman** redeveloped Paris: wide boulevards (partially to prevent
barricades), better middle-class housing on outskirts, demolition of slums, creation of parks and open spaces.

- New system of aqueducts doubled fresh water supply and sewer systems were modernized.
- Cities such as Vienna, Cologne followed Paris’ lead.
  - Mass transportation:
    - By 1890s the electric streetcar had revolutionized city transportation; created suburbs on outskirts
    - By 1900, only 9% of Britain’s urban population overcrowded (more than 2 per room)

### Changes in social structure as a result of industrial revolution

- Increase in standard of living eventually resulted from industrialization
  - Gap between wealthy and working class still remained enormous
  - Industrial and urban development made society more diverse and less unified.
- Diversity within middle class
  - Upper middle class: bankers, industrial leaders, large-scale commerce
  - Diversified middle class: businessmen, professionals, merchants, doctors and lawyers
  - Lower middle class: independent shopkeepers and small traders
- Working class: about 80% of population
  - Many were peasants and hired hands (especially in Eastern Europe)
  - Less unified and homogenous compared to middle classes
  - Highly skilled workers were at the top of working class (about 15% of pop.)
  - Semi-skilled workers: carpentry, bricklaying, successful factory workers
  - Unskilled workers and domestic servants were at the bottom.
  - Many were attracted to socialism
- Changing family
  - Romantic love became the most important reason for marriage by 1850
  - High rate of illegitimacy reversed after 1850; much premarital sex but more people married
  - Prostitution: middle and upper class men most active customers (married late)
  - After 1850 the work of most wives was increasingly distinct and separate from their husbands.
  - Middle-class women begin to organize and resist their second-class status to husbands
  - Child rearing became more child-centered with the wife dominating the home domain.

→ **Life at the fin-de-siècle (end of the century)**

- The “**Belle Époque**” (c. 1895-1914) – “the good old days”
  - Increased standard of living in all industrialized countries (e.g. Britain, France, Germany)
  - Increased leisure time resulted with higher wages and salaries
- Increased consumption
  - Sports attracted increased spectators and participants
  - Increased numbers of women took part in bicycling and sports clubs
  - Cafés and towns grew in popularity
  - Department stores grew significantly
  - In Paris, dance halls, concerts and plays became popular
- Increased access to education
  - States’ role in education increased
  - Significant increase in literacy
Scientific advances

- Scientific ideas and methods gained huge popularity; some saw it almost as a religion
- **Bacterial Revolution**
  - Louis Pasteur (1822-1895) developed germ theory of disease
    - **Pasteurization**: fermentation caused by growth of living organisms and the activity of these organisms could be suppressed by heating the beverage.
    - Joseph Lister developed “antiseptic principle” in performing surgeries.
    - Diseases such as typhoid, typhus, cholera, and yellow fever were now under control.
- Dmitri Mendeleev (1834-1907): codified rules of chemistry in the periodic law and the periodic table in 1869.
- August Comte (1798-1857): father of “sociology”
  - **Positivism**: All intellectual activity progresses through predictable stages; thus humans would soon discover the eternal laws of human relations through the study of sociology.
- Charles Darwin: *On the Origin of Species by the Means of Natural Selection*, 1859
  - Theory of evolution: All life had gradually evolved from a common ancestral origin in an unending “struggle for survival;” species most able to adapt survived
  - Thomas Huxley became Darwin’s biggest supporter (“Darwin’s Bulldog”)
  - Darwin’s theory refuted literal interpretation of the Bible; created a crisis in some churches
  - **Social Darwinism**: Herbert Spencer applied Darwin’s ideas to human society -- “survival of the fittest”; natural laws dictated why certain people were successful and others were not.
- Sigmund Freud (1856-1939)
  - Saw humans as irrational creatures (in stark contrast to the rationalism of the enlightenment)
  - Founder of psychoanalysis
- **The New Physics**
  - Marie Curie (1867-1934): discovered the first radioactive element in 1910 (radium)
  - Ernest Rutherford (1871-1937): split the atom in 1919
  - Max Planck (1858-1947): studied sub-atomic energy which shook the foundations of the Newtonian view of the universe
  - Albert Einstein (1879-1955): Theory of relativity in time and space challenge the traditional ideas of Newtonian physics.
    - United an apparently infinite universe with an incredibly small and fast-moving sub-atomic universe.
- **Realism**: belief that literature and art should depict life as it really was.
- Largely a reaction to the failed Revolutions of 1848-49 and subsequent loss of idealism
- **Literature**
  - France (beginning of realist movement)
    - Honoré de Balzac (1799-1850): *The Human Comedy* -- depicts urban society as a struggle, amoral and brutal, characterized by a Darwinian struggle for wealth and power
    - Gustave Flaubert (1821-1880): *Madame Bovary* -- portrays the provincial middle class as petty, smug, and hypocritical
    - Thomas Hardy: *Tess of the d'Urbervilles*; portrayed a woman who was ostracized for having pre-marital sex
    - Émile Zola (1840-1902): The giant of realist literature
      - Portrayed gritty, animalistic view of working-class life
  - England: George Eliot (Mary Ann Evans) (1819-1880)--examined ways in which people are
shaped by their social class as well as their own inner strivings, conflicts, and moral choices.

- Russia: **Leo Tolstoy** (1828-1910) – greatest Russian realist
  - *War and Peace*: story of Russian society during the Napoleonic wars
- Scandinavia: **Henrik Ibsen** (1828-1906) – “father of modern drama”; realism in his plays

### Realism in Art
- Did not promote idealized works; ordinary people were the subject of numerous paintings.
- Gustav Courbet (1819-1877): coined the term “realism”
- François Millet (1814-1875): *The Gleaners* portrays farm women gleaning their fields after the harvest
- Honoré Daumier (1808-1879): *Third-Class Carriage* depicts a poor family traveling on a train
- **Édouard Manet** (1832-1883): considered by many as the first “modern” painter
  - Bridged both the realist and impressionist movements
  - *Le Déjeuner sur l’herbe (Luncheon on the Grass)* 1863, shocked audiences by portraying a female nude and two male clothed companions in an everyday park setting
  - *Olympia*, (1863) offended the Salon for its casual nude portrayal of a prostitute

#### Impressionism: (began in France) Artists sought to capture the momentary overall feeling, or impression, of light falling on a real-life scene before their eyes.
- **Claude Monet** (1840-1926): Perhaps most well known for his “series paintings” of the countryside at Giverny (e.g. water lilies)
- **Édouard Manet** (see above)
- **Pierre-Auguste Renoir** (1841-1919)
- **Camille Pissarro** (1830-1903)
- **Berthe Morisot** (1841-1895): one of few females in 19th c. that had the opportunity to be a first-rate artist

#### Post-impressionism (sometimes referred to as expressionists)
- Movement in the 1890s united in its desire to know and depict worlds other than the visible world
- Portrayed unseen, inner worlds of emotion and imagination (like early-19th century romantics).
- Sought to express a complicated psychological view of reality as well as an overwhelming emotional intensity (like modern novelists).
- Fascination with form, as opposed to light (like impressionism)
- **Vincent van Gogh** (1853-1890): *Starry Night*
- **Paul Gauguin** (1848-1903); **Paul Cézanne** (1839-1906)

#### Early 20th-century artists
- **Henri Matisse** (1869-1954): most important French artist of 20th century
  - Pioneered the *Fauves* movement (“the wild beasts”)
  - Painted real objects, but primarily concern was the arrangement of color (often primitive), line, and form as an end in itself.
- **Pablo Picasso** (1881-1973): most important artist of the 20th century
  - Developed *cubism* along with Georges Braque
  - Cubism concentrated on a complex geometry of zigzagging lines and sharply angled, overlapping planes.
  - Often tried to portray all perspectives simultaneously
- Non-representational art: Some expressionists like **Wassily Kandinsky** (1866-1944) sought to evoke emotion through non-figural painting
**AGE OF REALPOLITIK (1848-1871)**

- **Characteristics**
  - Nationalism became a dominant force in Western society beginning in the late 19th century
  - Failure of the Revolutions of 1848 for liberals and romantics demonstrated that strong idealism was not enough to accomplish revolutionary goals.
  - A political outgrowth of realism was the notion of **realpolitik**: the accomplishing of one’s political goals via practical means (rather than having idealism drive political decisions)
    - In effect, Machiavellian

**Crimean War (1855-56)**

- **Failure of the Concert of Europe**
  - System undermined by failure of the powers to cooperate during the revolutions of 1848-49.
  - Between 1848 and 1878, peace in Europe was interrupted by the Crimean War and the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78.

- **Causes of Crimean War**
  - Dispute between two groups of Christians over privileges in the Holy Land (Palestine)
    - Czar Nicholas I ordered Russian troops to occupy several Turkish provinces in the Danube region
      - Russia would withdraw once Turks had guaranteed rights for Orthodox Christians
    - Turks declared war on Russia in 1853 when Nicholas refused to withdraw
    - 1854, Britain & France declared war against Russia (surprise! Turks were not Christians)

- Most of the war was fought on the Crimean Peninsula in the Black Sea region
  - **Florence Nightingale**: famous for superb nursing (more men died of disease than combat)

- Peace of Paris: Russia emerged as the big loser in the conflict and had to return all occupied territories back to the Ottoman Empire.

- **Second French Republic**
  - Constitution: Unicameral legislature (National Assembly); strong executive power; popularly-elected president of the Republic
  - **President Louis Napoleon**: seen by voters as a symbol of stability and greatness
    - Dedicated to law and order, opposed to socialism and radicalism, and favored the conservative classes—the Church, army, property-owners, and business.
    - Universal suffrage granted
    - **Falloux Law**: Napoleon returned control of education to the Church (in return for its support)
    - The Assembly did not grant Louis Napoleon either payment of personal debt or allowance for a 2nd presidential term resulting in his plotting a coup to overthrow the Republic.
The Second Empire (or Liberal Empire)
- Emperor Napoleon III, 1851: took control of gov’t in a coup d’etat (December 1851) and became emperor the following year (97% of voters made him emperor in 1853)
  - 1851-1859: Napoleon III’s control was direct and authoritarian.
  - 1859-1870: Regime liberalized by a series of reforms.
    - Economic reforms resulted in a healthy economy
      - Infrastructure: canals, roads; Baron Haussmann redeveloped Paris (e.g. wide boulevards)
      - Movement towards free trade
      - Banking: Credit Mobilier funded industrial and infrastructure growth
      - Foreign investments (e.g. Suez Canal in Egypt)
  - Foreign policy struggles resulted in strong criticism of Napoleon III
    - Algeria, Crimean War, Italian unification struggles, colonial possessions in Africa
  - Liberal reforms (done in part to divert attention from unsuccessful foreign policy)
    - Granted universal male suffrage in 1852 (France only country in Europe to provide this)
    - Extended power of the Legislative Assembly
    - Returned control of secondary education to the government (instead of Catholic Church)
      - In response, Pope Pius IX issued Syllabus of Errors, condemning liberalism.
    - Permitted trade unions and right to strike
    - Eased censorship and granted amnesty to political prisoners
  - Franco-Prussian war and capture of Napoleon III resulted in collapse of the 2nd Empire
  - Napoleon III’s rule provided a model for other political leaders in Europe.
    - Gov’t could reconcile popular and conservative forces through authoritarian nationalism.

Italian Unification
- After failed revolutions of 1848, unification movement shifted to Sardinia-Piedmont
- Count Cavour (1810-1861) led the struggle for Italian unification via realpolitik
  - Prime minister who built Sardinia-Piedmont into a liberal and economically sound state
    - Modeled on French system: some civil liberties, parliamentary gov’t with elections and parliamentary control of taxes.
    - Built up infrastructure (roads, canals)
    - The Law on Convents and Siccardi Law curtailed influence of the Catholic Church.
      - 1864, Pope Pius IX’s Syllabus of Errors warned Catholics against liberalism, rationalism, socialism, separation of church and state, and religious liberty.
  - Cavour sought unity for the northern and central areas of Italy
    - 1855, joined in the Crimean War against Russia (gained an ally in France)
    - Plombières (1859): gained promise from Napoleon III that France would support a Sardinia-Piedmont war with Austria for the creation of a northern Italian kingdom
    - Sardinia gained Lombardy, though France backed away from Plombières agreement
    - 1860, Cavour gained Parma, Modena, Romagna, and Tuscany into Sardinia-Piedmont
- Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807-1882) liberated southern Italy and Sicily.
  - Exemplified the Romantic nationalism of earlier leaders such as Mazzini
  - 1860, Garibaldi and his thousand Red Shirts took Naples and Kingdom of the Two Sicilies
  - Garibaldi allowed his conquests to be absorbed into Sardinia-Piedmont
- February 1861, Victor Emmanuel declared King of Italy (Rome and Venice still independent)
- 1866, Venice incorporated into the Italian Kingdom as a result of an alliance with Bismarck
- 1871, Rome captured by Italian troops and became capital of Kingdom of Italy
German Unification under the Hohenzollerns

- During period after 1815 Prussia emerged as an alternative to a Habsburg-based Germany
  - Austria had blocked the attempt of Frederick William IV of Prussia to unify Germany with Prussia and Austria as the leaders – “Humiliation of Olmutz”
    - Zollverein (German customs union): major source of tension between Prussia and Austria.
- Otto von Bismarck (1810-1898) led the drive for a Prussian-based Hohenzollern Germany
  - Junker heritage; quintessential example of Machiavellian politician (realpolitik)
  - "Gap theory" gained Bismarck's favor with the king; advocated the king bypass the liberal middle class in the legislature to end a stalemate over an army bill.
  - “The great questions of the day will not be decided by speeches …but by blood and iron.”
- Prussian-Danish War, 1863: Germany defeated Denmark and took Schleswig & Holstein
  - Jointly administered by Prussia and Austria but conflicts over jurisdiction resulted in a war
- Austro-Prussian War (German Civil War), 1866
  - Bismarck made diplomatic preparations for war with Austria by negotiating with France, Italy, and Russia for noninterference
  - Prussia defeated Austria and unified much of Germany without Austria
  - 1867, North German Confederation established by Bismarck; King Wilhelm I as president
    - Included all German states except Baden, Wurttemberg, Bavaria, and Saxony
- Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871)
  - Ems Dispatch: To provoke war, Bismarck boasted a French diplomat had been kicked out of Germany after requesting William I not interfere with the succession to the Spanish throne
  - Bismarck used the war with France to bring southern Germany into the N. German Confed.
    - May 1871, Alsace and Lorraine ceded by France to Germany
- The German Empire proclaimed on January 18, 1871 (most powerful nation in Europe)
  - Wilhelm I became the Emperor of Germany (Kaiser Wilhelm)
  - Bismarck became the Imperial Chancellor.

Austro-Hungarian Empire: Ausgleich (1867)

- Austria’s defeat by Germany in 1866 weakened its grip on power and forced it to make a compromise with the Hungarians and establish the so-called dual monarchy.
- Ausgleich, 1867 (the "Compromise”)
  - Transformed Austria into the Austro-Hungarian Empire.
  - Hungarians would have their own assembly, cabinet, and administrative system, and would support and participate in the Imperial army and in the Imperial gov’t.
  - Magyar nobility in 1867 restored the constitution of 1848 and used it to dominate both the Magyar peasantry and the minority populations until 1914.
  - Austrians thus assimilated the Hungarians within the empire and nullified them as a primary opposition group.
THE AGE OF MASS POLITICS: 1871-1914

- Ordinary people felt increasing loyalty to their governments
  - By 1914 universal male suffrage was the rule (female suffrage emerged after WWI)
  - Increase in literacy led to a more educated electorate who frequently read newspapers, journals and other sources that made them more politically savvy
  - Politicians and parties in national parliaments represented the people more responsibly as increased suffrage spread
  - Welfare state emerged, first in Germany, then in Britain, France and other countries
  - Governments came to believe public education important to provide society with well-informed and responsible citizens.
  - Governments often led by conservatives who manipulated nationalism to create a sense of unity and divert attention away from underlying class conflicts
    - Often channeled national sentiment in an anti-liberal and militaristic direction after 1871
    - Imperialism after 1880

The German Empire: 1871-1914

- Kaiser Wilhelm I (r. 1871-1888) had the ultimate power
- A bicameral legislature was established.
  - Reichstag was the lower body which represented the nation (the Volk).
  - Bundesrat was the upper body which represented the various German states (conservative)
- 1871-1890, Bismarck established an integrated political and economic structure for Germany
  - Unified monetary system, established Imperial Bank and strengthened existing banks, developed universal German civil & criminal codes; established compulsory military service.
  - German political system was multi-party
    - Conservatives represented Junkers of Prussia
    - German middle class identified with Bismarck’s German nationalist policies
    - Center Party (Catholic Party) advocated regional priorities
      - Kulturkampf: Bismarck sought to limit influence of Catholic Party but failed
    - Social Democratic Party (S.P.D.): Marxist; advocated sweeping social legislation, the realization of genuine democracy, and the demilitarization of the German gov’t.
      - Bismarck unsuccessful in limiting its growth (despite its being driven underground)
- Bismarck instituted a set of sweeping reforms in order to minimize the threat from the left (SPD)
  - 1879, a protective tariff instituted to maintained domestic production
  - Universal male suffrage, 1881
  - Modern social security laws established
    - National sickness and accident insurance laws passed in 1883 & 1884.
    - Old-age pensions and retirement benefits established in 1889
  - Improved working conditions and regulated child labor
  - By gaining support from the workers, Bismarck successfully bypassed the middle class
- William II (r. 1888-1918)
  - Opposed Bismarck’s move to renew his efforts to outlaw the S.P.D.
    - To gain support from workers, he forced Bismarck to resign in 1890.
  - By 1912, the S.P.D. became the largest party in the Reichstag

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Third French Republic
- 1870, Napoleon III’s Second Empire collapsed when it was defeated in the Franco-Prussian War
- National Assembly (1871-75) created with Adolphe Thiers as chief executive
  - Meanwhile, radical Paris Commune (1870-71) gained much power and lay siege to Paris
    - From March to May 1871, the Paris Commune fought a bloody struggle with the troops of the National Assembly; thousands died and 20,000 were subsequently executed
    - Thiers’s defeat of Paris Commune and other firm measures led France toward recovery
- Third French Republic established in 1875 (dominated by bourgeoisie; Thiers was president)
  - Chamber of Deputies had most power (elected by universal suffrage; president was weak)
  - Trade unions fully legalized (had been suppressed by Napoleon III)
  - Jules Ferry established tax-supported secular compulsory public education and reform
- During the Third Republic the French government fell dozens of times
  - Multi-party system resulted in ever-shifting political coalitions
  - Challenge to republicanism came from the right (conservatives)
    - Dreyfus Affair (1894): Most serious threat to the republic
      - Military falsely charged Dreyfus, a Jew, with supplying secrets to the Germans
      - Monarchists (with support of Catholic church) used incident to discredit republicans
      - Émile Zola (the realist author) took up Dreyfus' case and condemned the military
      - Leftists supported the Republic and in 1906 the case was closed when Dreyfus was declared innocent and returned to the ranks
  - 1905-Republicans launched anti-clerical campaign increasing separation of church & state
  - Socialists, led by Jean Jaurès, gained seats in Chamber of Deputies from 1905 to 1914
- By 1914, Third Republic enjoyed vast support of the French people.

Great Britain in the late 19th and early 20th century
- Like France, experienced economic prosperity, periods of jingoism, and expanded democracy
- Period between 1850 and 1865 saw the realignment of political parties:
  - The Tory Party was transformed into the Conservative Party under Disraeli
    - Disraeli argued for aggressive foreign policy, expansion of British Empire, and reluctantly supported democratic reforms.
  - Whig Party transformed into Liberal Party under Gladstone
    - Gladstone supported Irish Home Rule, fiscal policy, free trade, and extension of democratic principles while opposing imperialism
- After 1865 Britain saw expanded democracy under Disraeli and Gladstone (political opponents)
  - John Stuart Mill: On Liberty (1859) -- influential work on necessity to increase democracy
  - Reform Bill of 1867: Disraeli’s "leap in the dark" in order to appeal to working people
    - Expanded Reform Bill of 1832
    - Redistributed seats to provide more equitable representation in House of Commons
      - The industrial cities & boroughs gained seats at expense of some depopulated areas in the north and west ("rotten boroughs")
      - Almost all men over 21 who resided in urban centers were granted the right to vote
  - Reduced regulation of trade unions in 1875
  - Created gov't regulations for improved sanitation
Reforms under Gladstone
- Abolished compulsory taxes to support the Church of England
- Australian Ballot Act (1872) provided for the secret ballot (earlier Chartist demand)
- Civil service reform introduced in 1870: open competitive examination for gov't positions
- **Reform Act of 1884** or **Representation of the People Act of 1884**
  - Granted suffrage to adult males in the counties on the same basis as in the boroughs
  - Two million agricultural voters added to the franchise
- During the 1880s and 1890s, new groups emerged seeking to further extend democracy
  - Included women’s suffrage advocates, anti-imperialists, socialists, and anti-nationalists
  - **Fabian Society** (1883) among the most significant: advanced a form of revisionist Marxism
    - Sought political democracy and economic socialism
  - 1893, **Keir Hardie** and his **Independent Labor Party** rapidly became a vocal 3rd party.
    - Attracted trade unionists, socialists, and those who thought that Conservative and Liberal Parties had no genuine interests in the needs of the general public
- Between 1905 & early 1920s, **Liberal party** advanced aggressive social & economic programs
  - **Parliament Act of 1911**: most significant political reform during Liberal party rule.
    - Eliminated powers of House of Lords; House of Commons now center of national power.
    - Life-span of Parliament was reduced from 7 to 5 years.
  - Foundations for social welfare state created in decade before WWI (meant to guarantee each citizen with a decent standard of living)
    - Right of unions to strike was put into law.
    - Gov’t insurance was provided for those injured on the job
    - Unemployment insurance & old-age pensions enacted.
    - Compulsory school attendance law went into effect.
    - Taxes increased on the wealthy (to help fund the welfare state)

**Women’s suffrage movement in England**
- By 1890s, women’s rights activists saw suffrage as key to remedying other social problems.
- Suffragettes came largely from the middle class
- **Millicent Garrett Fawcett** (1847-1929)
  - Leader of National Union of Women’s Suffrage Societies (NUWSS)
  - Used political means to put pressure on Parliament to grant suffrage.
  - Her influence spread to international women’s rights movements
- **Emmeline Pankhurst** led militant suffragettes
  - Her organization, the Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU), destroyed railroad stations, works of art, store windows; chained themselves to gates in front of Parliament
  - Some women arrested for their activities; some went on hunger strikes in prison
  - Emily Davison died by throwing herself in front of the king’s horse in a 1913 horse race
- Women’s vital role in World War I Britain was the final push towards gaining suffrage
- **Representation of the People Act** (1918): women over 30 gained suffrage
  - All men gained suffrage (property qualifications completely eliminated)
- **Reform Act of 1928**: Women over age 21 gained suffrage
• **The Irish Question**
  o **Young Ireland** movement (1848) echoed nationalistic movements on the Continent
  o Irish Question was the most recurring & serious problem Britain faced from 1890 to 1914.
  o Gladstone had pushed unsuccessfully for **Irish Home Rule**.
  o Ulster (Protestant counties in northern Ireland) opposed Irish Home Rule as they started to enjoy remarkable economic growth from the mid-1890s.
    ▪ Ulsterites raised 100,000 armed volunteers by 1913; supported by British public opinion
  o 1914, Irish Home Rule Act passed by Commons and Lords but Protestants did not accept it.
    ▪ Implementation deferred until after World War I.
  o **Easter Rebellion** (1916) for independence was crushed by British troops
  o 1922, Ireland gained independence; Northern Ireland remained part of British Empire

➤ Austria-Hungary

• Austria’s defeat by Germany in 1866 weakened its grip on power and forced it to make a compromise with the Hungarians and establish the so-called **dual monarchy**.

• **Ausgleich, 1867** (the "Compromise")
  o Transformed Austria into the Austro-Hungarian Empire.
  o Hungarians would have their own assembly, cabinet, and administrative system, and would support and participate in the Imperial army and in the Imperial gov’t.
  o Magyar nobility in 1867 restored the constitution of 1848 and used it to dominate both the Magyar peasantry and the minority populations until 1914.
  o Austrians thus assimilated the Hungarians within the empire and nullified them as a primary opposition group.

• Management of the empire not integrated because of historic tradition and cultural diversification.
  o The language used in government and school was a particularly divisive issue (esp. Hungary)
  o Anti-Semitism grew (e.g. Vienna mayor **Karl Lueger**) due to increased numbers of Jews, many of whom were successful. (Hitler later idolized Lueger)

• After 1871, Hapsburg leadership gave up on integrating its empire resulting in its ultimate demise

• Universal suffrage introduced in 1907

➤ The “Eastern Question”: 1870s--constant crisis in the Balkans (who would control region?)

• Russia’s dream since Catherine the Great was to retake the Balkans and ultimately Constantinople
  o **Pan-Slavism**: Idea of uniting all Slavs in Europe under one gov’t (Russia)

• Russia defeated the Ottoman Empire by 1878 and seemed poised to dominate the Balkans
  o Britain refused to accept Russian hegemony in Balkans and sent its navy to help the Turks
    ▪ Nationalistic spirit in Britain came to be known as "**jingoism**" (after a popular poem)
  o Bismarck offered to mediate the crisis (came to be the Congress of Berlin)

• **Congress of Berlin** (1878): Russia left the conference with little despite defeating the Turks
  o Recognition of Romania, Serbia and Montenegro as independent states.
  o Establishment of the autonomous principality of Bulgaria (still within Ottoman Empire)
  o Austrian acquisition of Bosnia and Herzegovina
  o Transfer of Cyprus to Great Britain, not far from the Suez Canal.
  o Though Disraeli was most responsible for the agreements, Russia blamed Bismarck
    ▪ (Note: Congress of Berlin is NOT the Berlin Conference which carved up Africa)

• Russian hostility toward Germany led Bismarck (1789) to embark upon a new system of alliances
which transformed European diplomacy and effectively killed remnants of the Concert of Europe

**Socialist movements:** response to industrialism, nationalism and militarism

- Marxism led the negative response to industrialization
  - Socialists united in 1864 to form the First International (Marx one of the principal organizers)
  - Growth of socialist parties after 1871 was phenomenal (esp. Germany--S.P.D.; also France, England, Belgium, Austria-Hungary)
  - 1883, Socialists exiled from Russia formed Russian Social Democratic party in Switzerland and it grew rapidly after 1890.

- **Revisionism:**
  - As workers gained right to vote and to participate politically in the nation-state, their attention focused more on elections than on revolutions
  - Workers’ standard of living rose gradually but substantially after 1850 (no need to revolt)
  - Growth of labor unions reinforced trend toward modernization
    - Increasingly, unions focused on bread-and-butter issues—wages, hours, working conditions—rather than pure socialist doctrine.
    - Genuine collective bargaining was opposed by socialist intellectuals as a “sell-out”
    - A series of strikes proved effective in gaining concessions from employers.
  - **Edward Bernstein:** *Evolutionary Socialism* (1899): argued Marx’s predictions of greater poverty for workers & greater concentration of wealth in fewer hands had been proved false.

- Socialism had a huge impact on European politics by the late-19th and early 20th centuries
  - Germany: SPD became the largest party in the Reichstag by 1912
  - France, socialists led by Jean Jaures, gained seats in the Chamber of Deputies before 1914
  - 1893, Keir Hardie led the **Independent Labor Party** that became the third party in England
  - Foundations for the social welfare state created in the years prior to WWI
    - Designed to guarantee each citizen with a decent standard of living
    - Right of unions to strike was legalized
    - Gov’t insurance was provided for those injured on the job
    - Unemployment insurance & old-age pensions enacted.
    - Compulsory school attendance law went into effect.
    - Taxes increased on the wealthy (to help fund the welfare state)
  - Religion: **Rerum Novarum** issued by Pope Leo XIII
    - Condemned socialism
    - While he found fault with capitalism regarding poverty, insecurity, and degradation of the laboring classes, he stated that capitalism could work if industrialists looked after the welfare of their workers
    - Catholic (or Christian) socialist parties and labor unions began to appear at the turn of the century
Russia

- Defeat in Crimean War marked a turning point in Russian history by fostering modernization.
- **Alexander II** (1855-1881): perhaps most liberal ruler in Russian history prior to 20th century.
  - Agricultural problems: 90% of Russian people lived on farm land, most as serfs
    - Serfdom had led to peasant uprisings, poor agricultural output, and exploitation of serfs
      - Serfs could be bought or sold with or without land in early 19th century
      - Serfs could be conscripted into the army for 25 years.
  - **Emancipation Act** (or Emancipation Edict), 1861
    - Abolished serfdom: peasants no longer dependent on the lord; free to move and change occupations; could enter contracts and own property
    - Most Russians not impacted by the Emancipation Edict (lived in *mirs*)
  - **mirs**: most Russians lived in communes which were highly regulated
    - Collective ownership and responsibility made it difficult for individual peasants to improve agricultural methods or leave their villages
  - **Zemstvos** established in 1864: assemblies that administered local areas
    - Significant step towards popular participation
    - Yet, Lords controlled Zemstvos having more power than towns and peasant villages
  - Other reforms: judiciary improved, censorship relaxed (but not removed), education liberalized
  - Industrialization in Russia stimulated by railroad construction
    - Russia had fallen behind major industrialized nations in Western & Central Europe
    - Russia needed better railroads, better armaments and reorganization of the army
    - Between 1860 and 1900 construction of railroads was phenomenal
      - Railroads enabled Russia to export grain and earn profits for further industrialization
      - Stimulated domestic manufacturing: industrial suburbs grew up around Moscow and St. Petersburg, and a class of modern factory workers began to emerge
    - Strengthened Russia’s military giving rise to territorial expansion to the south and east
    - **Count S. Y. Witte** oversaw industrialization in the 1890s
      - Aggressively courted western capital & advanced technology to build great factories
      - Resulted in rise of a small Russian middle-class (far smaller than western Europe)
      - By 1900, Russia 4th in steel production (behind U.S., Germany & Britain)
      - By 1900, Russia exported half the world's refined petroleum
    - Industrialization contributed to spread of Marxist thought and the transformation of the Russian revolutionary movement after 1890 (as industrial workers felt exploited)
    - Despite economic and social reforms, economic problems still staggering by 1900
      - Situation aggravated by Russo-Japanese War of 1905
  - Critics of Alexander II late in his reign
    - Alexander increasingly turned to more traditional (conservative) values (realism in Russia replaced romanticism)
    - Radical populist movement emerged that sought a utopian agrarian order
    - **Intelligensia**: hostile group of intellectuals who believed they should eventually take over society
      - **nihilism**: intellectuals who believed in nothing but science and that the social order should be completely wiped out and built up from scratch.
  - Alexander II assassinated in 1881 by anarchists who bombed his carriage in St. Petersburg
• **Alexander III** (1881-1894)
  o Became most reactionary czar of the 19th century:
    ▪ “**Autocracy, Orthodoxy, and Russification** (nationalism)”
    ▪ Encouraged anti-semitism: **pogroms** resulted in severe persecution of Jews (many emigrated)
      ❖ **Theodore Herzel**: **zionism** -- advocated a Jewish homeland in the Holy Land

• **Nicholas II** (r. 1894-1917)
  o **Russo-Japanese War** (1904-1905)
    ▪ Russians had established a sphere of influence in Manchuria and now sought Korea
    ▪ Humiliating defeat of Russian fleet by Japan and bloody war on land resulted in Russia turning away from east Asia and focusing instead on the Balkans
  o **Revolution of 1905**
    ▪ Poor economy and strains of war led peasants and middle class to demand reforms.
    ▪ A general strike, peasant revolts and troop mutinies paralyzed Russia by October and the czar was forced to make concessions.
    ▪ **Duma**: Assembly created that would serve as an advisory body to the czar
      ❖ Granted freedom of speech, assembly and press
      ❖ Tsar retained absolute veto
      ❖ Revolutionaries were divided thus resulting in Duma having no real influence
      ❖ Propertied classes benefited at expense of workers, peasants and national minorities
  o After 1911, czar's court increasingly dominated by the mad holy man, **Gregorii Rasputin**, resulting in widespread doubts about the czar's ability to lead.
19th Century Political Study Guide (by Periods)

Conservatism
(Embodied in ideals of Congress of Vienna*, 1815)

**Definition:** Preservation of European monarchies and nobility. Conservatives believed that only traditional monarchical institutions of government could maintain order and they were generally opposed to change.

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<td>Bismarck: Gap Theory <em>Kulturekampf</em></td>
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*Includes Concert of Europe: 1815-1848
**Nationalism**

**Definition:** Belief that a certain self-defined people should govern itself with its own historically sanctioned boundaries.

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**Liberalism**

**Definition:** Belief in equality before the law and that individuals are born good, free and capable of improvement. The integrity of the individual should be protected from both society and government. Liberals are also concerned about political stability and the sanctity of property which is why they favor increased manhood suffrage. Economic liberals believed in laissez faire.

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<td>Jewish rights, 1871</td>
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Socialism

Definition: Utopian socialists of the early 19th century believed in helping the laboring poor, denounced the individualist philosophy of capitalism and sought to create a cooperative utopian society. Practical socialists, such as Blanc and Proudhon, sought practical measures to improve the condition of the working class and the institution of universal suffrage. Scientific socialist Karl Marx saw capitalism leading toward a class struggle where the working class would ultimately overthrow capitalism and create a “dictatorship of the proletariat” and a classless society.

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<td>• First welfare state in Europe, 1880s • SPD largest party by WWI</td>
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## 19th Century Political Study Guide: By “Isms”

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• Under Napoleon III: “Age of Realpolitik”; Dreyfus Affair  
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IMPERIALISM

• Definition: the control of one people by another (can be political, economic or cultural)
• "Old Imperialism": occurred between 16\textsuperscript{th} and 18\textsuperscript{th} centuries (see page 17)
  o European powers did not usually acquire territory (except for Spain in Americas and Portugal in Brazil) but rather built a series of trading stations
  o Respected and frequently cooperated with local rulers in Africa, India, China, Japan, Indonesia, and other areas where trade flourished between locals and European coastal trading centers.

→ Economic penetration of non-European regions in the 19\textsuperscript{th} century

• China
  o Opium Wars (Britain vs. China)
    ▪ Treaty of Nanking ended the First Opium War (1839-1841)
      ❖ Forced China to cede Hong Kong to Britain forever, pay large indemnity and open up 4 large cities to foreign trade with low tariffs.
    ▪ Second Opium War (1856-1860)
      ❖ China forced to accept trade and investment on unfavorable terms
      ❖ Extraterritoriality subjected Westerners in China to their home country’s laws rather than China’s.
  o Egypt became a protectorate of Great Britain from 1883 until 1956
    o British domination of Egypt became the model for the "new imperialism"
    o Egypt's inability to satisfy foreign investors in the late-19\textsuperscript{th} led to control of its finances by France & Britain
    o Safeguarding the Suez Canal (completed in 1869) played a key role in the British occupation of Egypt and its bloody conquest of the Sudan.
  o European Migration: between 1815 and 1932 more than 60 million people left Europe
    o Migrants went primarily to European-inhabited areas: North and South America, Australia, New Zealand, and Siberia.
    o European migration provided further impetus for Western expansion
    o Most were poor from rural areas, though seldom from the poorest classes (due to oppressive land policies)

→ New imperialism: began in 1870s

• Colonized Asia and Africa by using military force to take control of local governments, exploiting local economies for raw materials required by Europe's growing industry and imposing Western values to benefit the “backwards” colonies.

• Major causes for the imperialist impulse
  o Search for new markets and raw materials
  o Missionary work: far more successful in Africa than in Asia and Islamic world.
    ▪ Dr. David Livingston: first white man to do humanitarian and religious work in south and central Africa
    ▪ H. M. Stanley found Livingston (whom westerners thought to be dead) and his newspaper reports created European interest in Africa; Stanley sought aid of king of Belgium to dominate the Congo region.
  o New military and naval bases to protect one’s interests against other European powers
    ▪ Britain concerned by French & German land grabs in 1880s; might seal off their empires with high tariffs & restrictions; future economic opportunities might be lost forever.
Increased tensions between the “haves” (e.g. British Empire) and the “have nots” (e.g. Germany & Italy) who came in late to the imperialistic competition.

- Ideology: nationalism and Social Darwinism
  - "White Man's Burden": racist patronizing that preached that the “superior” Westerners had an obligation to bring their culture to “uncivilized” peoples in other parts of the world.
    - Poem by Rudyard Kipling
  - Germany and Russia especially used imperialistic drives to divert popular attention from the class struggle at home and to create a false sense of national unity.

**Scramble for Africa:**

- 1880, Europeans controlled 10% of Africa; by 1914 controlled all except Liberia & Ethiopia
- **Belgian Congo**
  - At behest of Leopold II, H. M. Stanley established trading stations, signed “treaties” with African chiefs, and claimed land for Belgium.
  - Leopold's incursion into Congo basin raised the question of the political fate of black Africa (south of the Sahara); also Britain's conquest of Egypt
- **Berlin Conference, 1884-85**: established the "rules" for conquest of Africa
  - Sponsored by Bismarck & Jules Ferry; sought to prevent conflict over imperialism
  - Congress coincided with Germany's rise as an imperial power
  - Agreed to stop slavery and slave trade in Africa
- **Germany** took control of Cameroon, Togo, southwest Africa, & East Africa
- **France** took control Tunisia, Algeria, French West Africa (including Morocco, Sahara, Sudan, Congo basin)
- **Britain**: perhaps the most enlightened of the imperialist powers (though still oppressive)
  - Took control of Egypt in 1883 (model for "New Imperialism")
  - Pushed southward and took control of Sudan
    - **Battle of Omdurman** (1898): General Horatio H. Kitchener defeated Sudanese tribesman and killed 11,000 (use of machine gun) while only 28 Britons died
    - **Fashoda Incident** (1898): France & Britain nearly went to war over Sudan; France backed down in the face of the Dreyfus Affair
  - **South Africa** and the **Boer War** (1899-1902)
    - Cecil Rhodes had become Prime Minister of Cape Colony; principal sponsor of the Cape-to Cairo dream where Britain would dominate the continent.
    - Diamonds and gold were discovered in the Transvaal and Rhodes wanted to extend his influence there but region controlled by Boers (descendents of Dutch settlers)
    - **Kruger Telegram** (1902): Kaiser Wilhelm II, dispatched telegram to Boers congratulating them on defeating British invaders without need of German assistance
      - Anger swept through Britain aimed at Germany.
    - Massive British force eventually defeated Boers and in 1910 the Transvaal, Orange Free State, Cape Colony, & Natal combined to form the Union of South Africa.
  - By 1900, Britain controlled 1/5 of world's territory: including Australia, Canada, India
    - "The Empire upon which the sun never sets": Possible to travel around world by railroad & sea, moving only through British territories.
- **Italy**: took control of Libya; failed to take Ethiopia
New Imperialism in Asia

- France: Indochina
- Britain: Burma, Malay Peninsula, North Borneo
- Germany: certain Pacific islands
- Russia: Persia, outlying provinces of China

Responses to Western Imperialism in Asia

- **India** was the jewel of the British Empire
  - After Sepoy Mutiny in 1858, was India ruled by British Parliament in London and administered by a tiny, all-white civil service in India.
  - British reforms in India: modern system of progressive secondary education (to train Indian civil servants), economic reforms (irrigation, railroads, tea and jute plantations), creation of unified and powerful state.
  - **Indian National Congress** formed in 1885
    - Educated Indians, predominantly Hindu, demanded increasing equality & self-gov't
    - India became independent in 1946 (just after WWII)

- **China** victimized by spheres of influence in late 19th century
  - **Sino-Japanese War** of 1894-95 revealed China’s helplessness, triggered a rush for foreign concessions and protectorates in China.
  - Britain, France, Germany, Russia and Japan each came to control a piece of eastern China
  - **Dr. Sun Yat-sen**, a revolutionary, sought to overthrow the Manchu dynasty and establish a republic; sparked the beginning of a Chinese nationalist movement
  - **Open Door Policy**, sponsored by the U.S. in 1899, sought to open commerce to imperial latecomers like itself, urged the Europeans to allow free trade within China while respecting its territorial integrity.
  - **Boxer Rebellion**, 1900: Patriotic uprising by Chinese nationalists against Western encroachment, was put down by imperial powers in 1900; Manchu dynasty would soon fall

- **Japan**
  - Unlike China, Japan quickly modernized and became an imperial power by late 19th century
  - **Russo-Japanese War (1904)**: Russia and Japan both had designs on Manchuria and Korea
    - Japan destroyed Russian fleet off coast of Korea and won major battles on land although Russians turned the tide on land subsequently and the war turned into a stalemate.
    - Westerners horrified that Japan had defeated a major Western power.
    - Long-term impact of war: Russia turned to the Balkans, Russian Revolution, and revolt of Asia in 20th century (Asians hoped to emulate Japan power and win their independence)

- **J. A. Hobson**: most notable critic of imperialism who believed it benefited only the wealthy; anti-imperialism increased
WORLD WAR I:
Long-term causes
1. Rival alliances: **Triple Alliance vs. Triple Entente**
   - 1870: Balance of power of Europe upset by decisive Prussian victory in Franco-Prussian War.
   - Bismarck feared French revenge; negotiated treaties to isolate France; also feared Russia
     - 1881-1887: **Alliance of the Three Emperors**—Germany, Austria, and Russia in a mutual defense pact concerning Balkans (Russia refused to renew in 1887)
     - **Triple Alliance**, 1881: Germany, Austria and Italy
     - **Russian-German Reinsurance Treaty** of 1887: promised neutrality if other was attacked
       - Kaiser Wilhelm II refused to renew the treaty after removing Bismarck in 1890
       - Germany developed closer ties to Austria
       - France courted Russia and the two became allies
   - **Entente Cordial (1904)**: In the face of **Anglo-German naval arms race**, Britain and France settled all outstanding colonial disputes in Africa.
   - **Triple Entente**, 1907: Britain, France and Russia; formed to counter the Triple Alliance
2. **Anglo-German arms race**
   - Militarism led to a belief in the inevitability of European war.
   - 1898, Kaiser Wilhelm II began expansion of German navy to protect its trade and colonies
3. **Imperialism led to increased tensions between the Great Powers over Africa**
   - **Kruger Telegram** (1902): triggered British anger at Germany for congratulating Boers on their victories over British troops in South Africa.
   - 1906: **Algeciras Conference** settled First Moroccan Crisis
     - Kaiser had urged Moroccan independence despite it being a French colony
     - Britain and Italy supported French hegemony in Morocco and Tunisia
     - Britain, France, and Russia formed the Triple Entente in response
     - Germany cried "encirclement" by other powers to block its emergence as world power
   - **Second Moroccan Crisis (1911)**
     - German gunboat sent to Morocco to protest French occupation of the city of Fez.
     - Britain supported France again; Germany backed down for minor concessions in Africa
4. Nationalism created a "powder keg" in the Balkans
   - **Congress of Berlin**, 1878: sought to solve the “Eastern Question”
     - Russia defeated the Ottoman Empire in war but received no territory as a result
     - Blamed Bismarck from Germany for engineering this arrangement but England was really more to blame
     - Serbia and Romania gained their independence
     - Bulgaria gained autonomy within the Ottoman Empire
   - The Ottoman Empire ("the sick man of Europe") receded from the Balkans in the 19th c.
     - **Pan-Slavism**, a nationalist movement to unite all Slavic peoples, encouraged the Serbs, Bosnians, Slovanes, and Croats to seek a single political entity in Southern Europe
     - As southern Slavs’ “big brother” to the east, Russia focused on Balkan regions in Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires after its humiliating loss in the Russo-Japanese War.
   - First Balkan Crisis
     - **Young Turks** set up parliamentary gov’t in Ottoman Empire; seemed weak to others
     - Austria annexed Bosnia while Russia failed to gain access, Serbia frustrated
**First Balkan War** (1908)
- Serbia, Greece, and Bulgaria allied to drive the Turks out of the Balkans
- Serbia sought coast on the Adriatic; failed when Austria created Albania to deter Serbia.

**Second Balkan War** (1913)
- Serbia defeated Bulgaria over Macedonia and gained Albania; Russia backed Serbia
- Austria, with German support against Russia, prevented Serbia from holding Albania
- Serbia frustrated it had no access to Adriatic Sea; Russia humiliated

"Third Balkan War" between Austria and Serbia became World War I

**Immediate causes of World War I**
- June 28, 1914: Archduke Franz Ferdinand, Austrian heir to throne, assassinated by Serbian nationalist Princip (member Serbian "Black Hand") while visiting Bosnia-Herzegovina.
- Kaiser Wilhelm II pledged unwavering support to Austria to punish Serbia: "the blank check"
- July 28, Austria declares war on Serbia
  - Russia mobilizes against Austria & Germany; France mobilizes on Germany's western border
- Aug 1, German declares war on Britain and France; France and Britain declare war within days

⇒ Two opposing alliances
- **Central Powers** (Triple Alliance): Germany, Austria-Hungary, Ottoman Empire (also Bulgaria)
- **Allies** (Triple Entente): Britain, France, Russia (later, Japan, Italy and U.S.)

⇒ **Western Front**
- **Schlieffen Plan**: German plan to invade France through Belgium, defeat France quickly (6 weeks) by sweeping around Paris, and then move to the east to defeat Russia
- **Battle of the Marne** (Sept. 1914): After Germans came within sight of Paris, French and British forces pushed German forces back.
- **Trench warfare** developed after Battle of the Marne; lasted four bloody years
  - 1916: **Battle of Verdun** and **Battle of the Somme**; horrific casualties; neither side could break through
  - Erich Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front* (1929) illustrated horrific trench warfare.
- Technological advancements: machine gun, tanks, airplane, poison gas, Zeppelins, U-boats, radio

**Eastern Front**
- General Von Hindenburg & General Von Ludendorf defeated invading Russian armies at Tannenburg; turned the tide of the war in the east
- **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** (Dec. 1917): Lenin took Russia out of the war but forced to give Germans 1/4 of Russian territory

**Gallipoli Campaign**: British and Australian forces failed to take Dardanelles as a step toward taking Constantinople and defeating the Turks

**British and Allied Naval Blockade**: Goal was to strangle Central Powers
- Starting in 1914, used superior fleet & sea mines to cut Central Powers off from overseas trade and caused Germany to lose control of its colonial empire.
- Germany responded by sinking Allied vessels
  - *Lusitania*, 1915: U-boats sank passenger liner killing 1,200
  - Germany began **unrestricted submarine warfare** in 1917 sinking all ships with its **U-boats**
  - Most important reason for U.S. entry into the war against Germany
"Total war": involved mass civilian populations in the war effort
- Massive conscription drafted most able-bodied men in their youth
- News was censored; propaganda lionized the men at the front and dehumanized the enemy
- Economic production was focused on the war effort
- Women replaced male factory workers who were now fighting the war.
  - 43% of the labor force in Russia
  - Changing attitudes about women resulted in increased rights after the war (Britain, Germany, Austria and U.S.)
- Rationing of food and scarce commodities was instituted.
- People financed the war by buying bonds.
- Each side aimed at “starving out” the enemy by cutting off vital supplies to the civilian population.
- In France, Georges Clemenceau created a dictatorship during the war
- Germany became the world’s first totalitarian regime in order to control the war effort
- British economy was largely planned and regulated
- Labor unions: saw increased influence and prestige due to increased demand for labor
- War promoted greater social equality, thus blurring class distinctions and lessening the gap between rich and poor

Diplomacy during the war
- 1915: Neutral Italy entered the war against the Central Powers (its former allies) with the promise of Italia Irredenta (unredeemed Italy) and some German colonies and Turkish territories.
- Zimmerman Note: Germany proposed an alliance with Mexico; would return most of southwestern U.S. to Mexico if Central Powers won.
- Balfour Note (1917) Arabs & Jews in Palestine promised autonomy if they joined the Allies.
  - Britain declared sympathy for idea of Jewish homeland in Palestine.
  - New policy seemed to contradict British support for Arab nationalism.
- Wilson’s 14 Points (Jan. 1918) -- plan to end the war along liberal, democratic lines
  - Abolish secret treaties, freedom of the seas, free trade
  - Reduction of armament burdens
  - Promise of independence (“self-determination”) to oppressed minority groups (e.g. Poles, Czechs), millions of which lived in Germany and Austria-Hungary.
  - Adjustment of colonial claims in interests of both native peoples and colonizers
  - Adjustment of Italy’s borders along ethnic lines.
  - 14th point: International organization to supply collective security
    - Foreshadowed League of Nations

End of War
- Argonne offensive (spring 1918): Germans transferred divisions from east (after defeating Russia) to the western front and mounted a massive offensive.
  - U.S. entered war in time to help stop the German offensive
- Central Powers sought peace based on 14 Points (believing they would get fair treatment)
- Germany and Austria-Hungary wracked with revolution
  - Austria surrendered on Nov. 3
  - Germany surrendered on Nov. 11; Wilhelm II abdicated and fled to Holland
Paris Peace Conference, 1919
- **Big Four:** Lloyd George (Br.), Clemenceau (Fr.), Wilson (US), Orlando (It)
  - Central powers excluded from negotiations; France concerned with its future security
  - Italy left the conference angry it would not get some territories promised in 1915
- **Versailles Treaty, 1919**
  - **Mandates** for former colonies and territories of the Central Powers
  - Article 231: placed sole blame for war on Germany; Germany would be severely punished
    - Germany forced to pay huge reparations to Britain and France
    - German army and navy severely reduced
    - Rhineland would be demilitarized; Saar coal mines taken over by France
    - East Prussia was separated from the rest of Germany by the newly-created Polish Corridor
    - Germany lost all its colonies
  - **League of Nations** created: U.S. Senate failed to ratify resulting in U.S. isolationism
  - Creation of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia

➤ Results of WWI
- Massive casualties: 10 million soldiers dead; 10 million civilians dead, many from influenza epidemic; 15 million died in Russian Revolution
- End to political dynasties
  - Hapsburg dynasty removed in Austria (had lasted 500 years)
  - Romanov dynasty removed in Russia (had lasted 300 years)
  - Hohenzollern dynasty removed in Germany (had lasted 300 years)
  - Ottoman Empire destroyed (had lasted 500 years)
- Political map of Europe redrawn: creation of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Yugoslavia
  - Germany split in two by Polish corridor (East Prussia separated from rest of Germany)
- Russian Revolution resulted in the world's first communist country
- German nationalist resentment of harsh Versailles Treaty doomed the Weimar Republic and paved the way for the rise of Hitler in the early 1930s
- Unresolved differences created by the Versailles treaty led to WWII

➤ RUSSIAN REVOLUTION (For long-term causes, see pp. 83-84)
- Nicholas II (1868-1918), last of the Romanov dynasty; Russia in a perpetual state of crisis
  - Russo-Japanese war, Revolution of 1905, staggering economic problems
- Birth of socialism in Russia:
  - 1898--Social Democratic Worker's party founded in Minsk with Lenin as leader; Lenin exiled
    - Lenin became the heir to Marx in socialist thought
  - 3 basic ideas central to Lenin’s philosophy.
    - Capitalism could be destroyed only by violent revolution; he denounced revisionism
    - Socialist revolution possible under certain conditions, even in relatively backward Russia.
      - Peasants were poor and thus potential revolutionaries.
    - Necessity of a highly disciplined workers’ party, strictly controlled by a dedicated elite of intellectuals and full-time revolutionaries (he differed from Marx in this regard).
  - 1903, Social Democrats (Social Democratic Worker’s Party) split into two factions
    - Mensheviks (the "minority"): Wanted to await the evolution of capitalism and the proletariat; sought a more democratic party with mass membership.
    - Bolsheviks (the "majority"): Followed Lenin's ideas
• World War I became the major cause of the Russian Revolution
  o Massive Russian casualties, food shortages

**February Revolution** overthrew the Czar and instituted the **Provisional Government**
• Revolution started by women rioting for bread in Petrograd; workers and soldiers joined in
• Duma responded by declaring a provisional gov’t on March 12, 1917.
• Provisional gov't wanted to continue the war; Soviets controlled the army
• **Alexander Kerensky** became leader of the Provisional Gov’t
  o Implemented liberal program: equality before the law; freedom of religion, speech, and assembly; right of unions to organize & strike; election of local officials; 8-hr work day
  o Rejected social revolution: doesn't confiscate large landholdings and give them to peasants
• Provisional Gov't had to share power with **Petrograd Soviet** of Workers’ & Soldiers’ Deputies
  o **Army Order #1**: stripped officers of their authority and placed power in the hands of elected committees of common soldiers (soldiers afraid in the future they might be liable for treason against the czar)
  o Led to collapse of army discipline; anarchy existed in Russia by summer of 1917
• Kerensky's refusal to end the war and prevent anarchy led to fall of the Provisional Gov’t

**October Revolution**
• **Rise of Vladimir I. Lenin**
  o Germany arranged for Lenin to be transported back to Russia; hoped to get Russia out of war
  o "**April Theses**": Lenin rejected all cooperation with the “bourgeois” provisional gov’t
    ▪ Called for a "Socialist revolution" and establishment of a Soviet republic
    ▪ Nationalization of banks and landed estates
    ▪ “All Power to the Soviets”; “All Land to the Peasants”
• **October Revolution** resulted in a communist dictatorship
  o **Politburo** formed to organize revolution: included Lenin, Trotsky, Stalin
  o **Leon Trotsky**, leader of the Petrograd Soviet (and the **Red Army**), led Soviet overthrow and arrest of the provisional gov’t
  o New elections: Bolshevik's lost (only 25% of vote) but overthrew new gov't with Red Army
    ▪ Lenin: "**Peace, Land, Bread**"
    ▪ Lenin gave land to peasants (although peasants already took it, like French Revolution)
    ▪ Lenin gave direct control of individual factories to local workers’ committees.
    ▪ Signed **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** in March 1918 to take Russia out of WWI
    ▪ These actions led to opposition to the Bolsheviks and the Russian Civil War

**Russian Civil War**
• **Reds** (Bolsheviks) vs “**Whites**” (included officers of old army, and 18 groups proclaiming themselves the real gov't of Russia--had no leader to unify them)
  o Allies sent troops to help "Whites" (in Murmansk and Siberia)
  o By 1921, the communists had defeated their opponents
    ▪ Communists extremely well organized (Trotsky); Whites were poorly organized
• “**war communism**”: Bolsheviks mobilized the home front for the civil war
  o Earliest form of socialism in the Soviet Union
  o Applied "total war" concept to a civil war
  o **Cheka**: Secret police formed to hunt down and execute thousands of real or supposed opponents, such as the tsar and his family and other “class enemies.”
• Results of the Russian Revolution:
  o Costs: 15 million dead, economy ruined, international trade gone, millions of workers fled
  o Creation of world's first communist society: one of the monumental events of 20th century

AGE OF ANXIETY (c. 1914-1950)
• World War I was a staggering blow to Western civilization
• Many people felt themselves increasingly adrift in a strange, uncertain, and uncontrollable world.
• People saw themselves living in an age of continual crisis (until at least the early 1950s)
• Before 1914 most people still believed in progress, reason and the rights of the individual.
• After the war, new and upsetting ideas began to spread through the entire population

➡️ Modern Philosophy
• Critics of the pre-war world anticipated many of the post-war ideas.
  o Rejected the general faith in progress and the power of the rational human mind.
  o Friedrich Nietzsche (1844-1900)
    ▪ Wrote in Thus Spake Zarathustra that "God is Dead": Claimed Christianity embodied a “slave morality,” which glorified weakness, envy, and mediocrity.
    ▪ Believed only creativity of a few supermen (übermenschen) could reorder the world.
  o Sigmund Freud’s ideas on the irrationality of the human mind undermined enlightenment notions of reason and progress.
    ▪ After WWI, the popular interpretation of Freud reflected and encouraged growing sexual experimentation, particularly among middle-class women.
• Post-war thinkers expanded on earlier pessimism
  o Paul Valéry: “cruelly injured mind” besieged by doubts and suffering from anxieties due to economic, political, and social disruptions of the 1920s.
  o Anti-Utopian authors a pessimism of an uncertain future
    ▪ Oswald Spengler (1880-1936) – The Decline of the West (1922)
      ▷ Every culture experiences a life cycle of growth and decline: Western civilization was in its old age, and death was approaching in the form of conquest by Asians.
    ▪ Franz Kafka (1883-1924): Portrayed helpless individuals destroyed by inexplicably hostile and surreal forces: The Trial (1925), The Metamorphosis (1915)
    ▪ George Orwell (1903-1950) – 1984: "Big Brother" (the dictator) & his totalitarian state
      use a new kind of language, technology, and psychological terror against individuals
• Existentialism took root in Continental countries after World War II
  o Saw life as absurd
  o Viewed a world where the individual has to find his own meaning; most were atheists
  o Jean-Paul Sartre (1905-1980): Wrote that humans simply exist
  o Martin Heidegger, Karl Jaspers and Albert Camus also prominent in the movement
• "New Physics," much popularized after WWI, challenged long-held ideas and led to uncertainty
  o Max Planck: developed basis for quantum physics in 1900
  o Albert Einstein (1879-1955): Theory of relativity (1905) of time and space challenged traditional ideas of Newtonian physics (E=MC²)
  o Ernest Rutherford: 1919, demonstrated the atom could be split.
  o 1927, Werner Heisenberg: “principle of uncertainty”-- as it is impossible to know the position and speed of an individual election, it is therefore impossible to predict its behavior.
• Heisenberg’s principle: The dynamics of an experiment alters the state of the subject.
  o To common folks, the new universe seemed strange & troubling; uncertain & undetermined
  o Universe was now “relative,” dependent on the observer’s frame of reference.
  o Science no longer provided easy, optimistic answers, or any answers for that matter.

The Arts
• Functionalism in architecture
  o Bauhaus movement: Walter Gropius (1883-1969) broke sharply with the past in his design of the Fagus shoe factory at Alfeld, Germany.
    • Clean, light, elegant building of glass and iron.
    • Represented a jump into the middle of the 20th century.
• Painting
  o Modern art grew out of a revolt against French impressionism (firmly established in 1890s)
  o Pablo Picasso (1881-1973): most important artist of the 20th century
    • Pioneered cubism (along with Georges Braque)
    • Guernica (1937) is his masterpiece: huge mural portraying the bombing of a Spanish city by the German Luftwaffe in 1937.
  o Dadaism: "Dada" was a nonsensical word that mirrored a post-WWI world that no longer made sense.
    • Attacked all accepted standards of art and behavior, delighting in outrageous conduct.
    • e.g., Mona Lisa painted with a mustache (Marcel Duchamp)
  o Surrealism: Salvador Dali (1904-1989) influenced by Freud's emphasis on dreams
    • After 1924, painted a fantastic world of wild dreams and complex symbols, where watches melted and giant metronomes beat time in impossible alien landscapes.
• Music
  o Igor Stravinsky (1882-1971): Most important composer of the 20th century
    • "Rite of Spring" experimented with new tonalities (many of them dissonant) and aggressive primitive rhythms
  o Arnold Schönberg (1874-1951): pioneered "12-tone" technique (atonality)
• Movies
  o Motion pictures became the main entertainment of the masses until after WWII.
  o Motion pictures, like radio, became powerful tools of indoctrination, esp. in countries with dictatorial regimes.
    • Lenin encouraged development of Soviet film making to glorify communism
    • In Germany, Leni Riefenstahl directed a masterpiece of documentary propaganda, The Triumph of the Will, based on the Nazi party rally at Nuremberg in 1934.
• Radio:
  o Guglielmo Marconi developed transatlantic “wireless” communication in 1901 (used in WWI)
  o Not until 1920 were first major public broadcasts of special events made in Britain and U.S.
  o Most countries established direct control of radio by the gov’t (e.g. the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC))
  o Radio became used effectively for political propaganda (e.g. Hitler, Mussolini and FDR)
DEMOCRATIC POLITICS IN THE 1920s

**Germany: Weimar Republic**

- To Germans of all political parties, the Versailles Treaty represented a harsh, dictated peace, to be revised or repudiated as soon as possible.
  - France was most eager to punish Germany
  - Britain believed a healthy German economy was essential to a healthy British economy.
    - **John Maynard Keynes** (most significant economist of 20th century) criticized Versailles Treaty declaring its punishing of Germany would damage the European economy.
- New Constitution created in August 1919: bicameral legislature; president served 7-year term
- Problems faced the new gov't
  - Its forced acceptance of “the dictated peace” (Versailles Treaty) undermined its prestige.
  - Communist rebellions in various parts of the country created climate of instability.
  - **Ruhr Crisis**, 1923
    - **Reparations**: Allies announced in 1921 Germany had to pay almost $34 billion
    - Germany's economy weak and it could not pay all the reparations.
    - **1923, France**, led by **Raymond Poincaré**, occupied industrial Ruhr region of Germany.
    - German gov't ordered Ruhr people to stop working & passively resist French occupation.
    - Runaway inflation occurred when Germany printed money to pay reparations
      - Brought about social revolution in Germany: Accumulated savings of many retired and middle-class people were wiped out; middle-class resented gov't; blamed Western gov't, big business, workers, Jews, and communists for nation's woes.
  - **Beer Hall Putsch**, 1923: Adolf Hitler failed to take overthrow state Bavaria and sentenced to jail where he wrote Mein Kampf.
- **Gustav Stresemann** assumed leadership in 1923 and put Germany on the road to recovery
  - Called off passive resistance in Ruhr; agreed to pay reparations (but also consideration of Germany's ability to pay); Poincaré agreed
  - Stresemann restored Germany to normal status in European community with Locarno Pact
  - **Dawes Plan**, 1924: Restructured Germany's debt with U.S. loans to Germany to pay back Britain and France, who likewise paid back U.S.; resulted in German economic recovery
  - **Locarno Pact**, 1925: Germany agreed to existing borders ("spirit of Locarno" = peace)
  - Germany joined the League of Nations, 1926

**France**: Economic problems (similar to Germany)
- Death, devastation, and debt of WWI created economic chaos and political unrest

**Great Britain**
- Wartime trend toward greater social equality continued, helping maintain social harmony.
  - **Representation of the Peoples Act** (1928): women over age 21 gained the right to vote.
- Unemployment was Britain's biggest problem in 1920s: about 12%
  - Did not recover from economic losses suffered during WWI
  - **1926, General Strike**: support of miners who feared a dramatic drop in their low wages swept the country; the gov’t outlawed such labor actions in 1927
- **Labour party** rose as a champion of the working classes and took power briefly (9 months)
  - Came to replace Liberal Party as main opposition to conservatives.
- **The Irish Question**: southern Ireland received independence in 1922
**The Great Depression** (1929-1933)
- Shattered the fragile optimism of political leaders in the late 1920s
  - Most important reason for the fall of the Weimar Republic and rise of the Nazis
- Impact on Europe
  - Decline of production occurred in every country (except Russia with its command economy).
  - Mass unemployment resulted: Germany hit hardest (43%); Britain 18%, U.S. 25%
- British economy recovered considerably after 1932
  - Orthodox economic theory followed after 1929: went off gold-standard, reorganized industry, increased tariffs, reformed finances, cut govt’ spending, balanced budget (although unemployed workers received barely enough welfare to live on)
  - Years after 1932 actually better than in the 1920s.
  - Britain came out permanently from depression due to rearmament for WWII
- France
  - Felt impact of depression later as it wasn’t as highly industrialized as Britain, Germany & US
  - The depression increased class tensions and gave birth to a radical right that supported gov’t reorganization along fascist lines.
  - **Popular Front**: Threat of fascism prompted coalition of republicans, socialists, communists and radicals
  - French divisions resulting from Spanish Civil War destroyed the Popular Front in 1936
  - France remained divided as Germany continued its rearmament in late 1930s

**TOTALITARIANISM**
- Dictatorship that tried to control every aspect of the lives of the people.
  - New technology made this possible: radio, automobile, telephone
  - Tools of totalitarianism: censorship, indoctrination, terror
  - Existed first in Russia, then Italy?, Japan and Germany (sought expansion, except Russia)

➡️**Russia under Vladimir I. Lenin**
- Marxist-Leninist philosophy
  - Theory of imperialism: imperialism is the highest form of capitalism (haves vs. have nots)
  - "New type of party": cadre of educated professional revolutionaries to serve development of political class consciousness & guidance of the "Dictatorship of Proletariat"
- **Comintern** (Third Communists International) --created in 1919
  - Was to serve as the preliminary step towards the world wide victory of Communism
  - Ruthless oppression: secret police (Cheka) liquidated about 250,000 opponents
- **War communism**: The socialization (nationalization) of all means of production & central planning of the economy
  - First mass communist society in world history
  - Purpose was to win the Russian Civil War
  - Bolsheviks unwittingly destroyed the economy: mass starvation from crop failures, decrease in industrial output
- **Kronstadt Rebellion** (1921)
  - Mutiny by previously pro-Bolshevik sailors in March at Kronstadt naval base had to be crushed with machine gun fire.
  - Caused by impact of the economic disaster and social upheaval of the Russian Civil War.
  - Major cause for Lenin instituting NEP
• NEP – New Economic Policy, 1921-28
  o Sought to eliminate harsh aspects of War Communism: response to peasant revolts, military mutiny, and economic ruin
  o Some Capitalist measures allowed (Lenin: “necessary step backwards”)
    ▪ Gov’t not to seize surplus grain; peasants could sell grain on the open market
    ▪ Small manufacturers allowed to run own businesses
    ▪ Gov’t still in control of heavy industry, banks and railroads.
  o Results: economy improved
    ▪ Industry and agricultural output back to pre-WWI levels
    ▪ Workers shorter hours/better conditions
    ▪ Temporary relaxing of terror and censorship

• Russia renamed to Soviet Union in 1923 (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics -- USSR)
• Power struggle ensued after Lenin’s death in 1924: he left no chosen successor
  o Joseph Stalin believed in "Socialism in one Country": first, Russia had to be strong
    ▪ Establishment of a Socialist economy without the aid of the West
  o Leon Trotsky believed in "permanent revolution": continuing a world revolution
    ▪ Party leaders believed Trotsky was too idealistic; Russia first had to survive
  o Stalin gained control in 1927 and had total control by 1929; Trotsky exiled

⇒ USSR under Stalin
• Entire Politburo from Lenin's time was eventually purged leaving Stalin in absolute control.
• The 5-year plans
  o 1st Five Year Plan, 1928; marked end of the NEP
    ▪ Objectives:
      ❖ Total industrial output to increase by 250%; steel by 300%; agriculture by 150%
      ❖ 1/5 of peasants were scheduled to give up their private plots and join collective farms
    ▪ Results: steel up 400% (now 2nd largest steel producer in Europe); oil up 300%; massive urbanization (25 million people moved to cities)
    ▪ Costs: quality of goods suspect; standard of living did not rise
  o Collectivization was the greatest of all costs
    ▪ Purpose: bring peasantry under absolute control of the communist state
    ▪ Consolidation of individual peasant farms into large, state-controlled enterprises.
    ▪ Results:
      ❖ Opposed by farmers as it placed them in a bound situation like the mîrs.
      ❖ Kulaks, wealthiest peasants, offered greatest resistance to collectivization
        ➢ Stalin ordered party workers to "liquidate them as a class."
        ➢ 10 million dead due to collectivization (7 million in forced starvation in Ukraine)
      ❖ Agricultural output no greater than in 1913
      ❖ By 1933, 60% of peasant families were on collective farms; 93% by 1938
      ❖ Eventually, the state was assured of grain for bread for urban workers who were more important politically than the peasants.
      ❖ Collective farmers first had to meet grain quotas before feeding themselves.
• Religion was persecuted: Stalin hoped to turn churches into "museums of atheism"
• Benefits for workers:
  o Old-age pensions, free medical services, free education, and day-care centers for children
  o Education was key to improving one’s position: specialized skills and technical education.
Women
- Russian Revolution immediately proclaimed complete equality of rights for women.
- In 1920s divorce and abortion made easily available.
- Women urged to work outside the home and liberate themselves sexually.
- Many women worked as professionals and in universities; men still monopolized best jobs.
- Women still expected to do household chores in off hours as Soviet men considered home and children women’s responsibility.
- Rapid change and economic hardship led to many broken families.

Great Terror (1934-38)
- First directed against peasants after 1929, terror used increasingly on leading Communists, powerful administrators, and ordinary people, often for no apparent reason.
- The "Great Terror" resulted in 8 million arrests
  - NKVD, Stalin’s secret police, arrested millions of citizens including army officers.
  - Show trials used eradicate "enemies of the people" (usually ex-party members)
  - Late 1930s, dozens of Old Bolsheviks tried and executed (Lenin’s closest followers)
  - Purges: 40,000 army officers were expelled or liquidated (weakened USSR in WWII)
  - Millions of citizens were killed, died in labor camps (gulags), or simply disappeared

Fascist Italy
- Causes for rise of fascism
  - Versailles Treaty: Italian nationalists angry that Italy did not receive any Austrian or Ottoman territory, (Italia Irredenta) or Germany’s African colonies as promised.
  - Depression in 1919 caused nationwide strikes and class tensions
    - Wealthy classes fearful of communist revolution looked to strong anti-communist leader
  - By 1921 revolutionary socialists, conservatives and property owners were all opposed to the liberal parliamentary government.
  - Fascism in Italy was eventually a combination of conservative authoritarianism and modern totalitarianism (although not as extreme as Russia or Germany)
- Benito Mussolini (1883-1945) rises to power ("Il Duce")
  - Organized the Fascist party
    - Combination of socialism and nationalism: territorial expansion, benefits for workers, and land reform for peasants.
    - 1920, Mussolini gained support of conservative classes and frightened middle class for his anti-Socialist rhetoric; he then abandoned his socialist programs.
  - Blackshirts: Fascist paramilitary forces attacked Communists, socialists, and other enemies of the fascist program (later, Hitler's "Brown Shirts" followed this example)
  - March on Rome, October 1922: led to Mussolini taking power
    - Mussolini demanded resignation of existing gov’t and his own appointment by the king.
    - Large group of Fascists marched on Rome to threaten king to accept Mussolini’s demands.
    - Government collapsed; Mussolini received right to organize a new cabinet (government).
    - Victor Emmanuel III gave him dictatorial powers for 1 year to end nation's social unrest.
- Corporate State (syndicalist-corporate system) was the economic basis for Italian fascism.
  - “Everything in the state, nothing outside the state, nothing against the state.”
  - By 1928, all independent labor unions organized into government-controlled syndicates
    - Established organizations of workers and employers and outlawed strikes and walkouts.
    - Created corporations which coordinated activities between worker-employer syndicates.
    - Authority from the top, unlike socialist corporate states where workers made decisions.
o Gov’t ruled by decree; the right to vote severely limited.
o All candidates for Italian parliament were selected by Fascist party.
o Dedicated fascists put in control of schools.
o Created fascist youth movement, labor unions, and other fascist organizations: *Dopolavoro* (After Work) and *Balilla* (Fascist Youth Organization) tried but failed to regulate leisure time.

**Mussolini never became all-powerful; Italy wasn’t totalitarian like Germany and USSR were**
o Failed in attempt to “Fascistize” Italian society by controlling leisure time
o Old power structure of conservatives, military, and church remained intact.
  ▪ Mussolini never attempted to purge conservative classes.
o He propagandized and controlled labor but left big business to regulate itself.
o No land reform occurred
o Did not establish ruthless police state (only 23 political prisoners executed bet. 1926-1944)
o Racial laws not passed until 1938 and savage persecution of Jews not until late in WWII when Italy was under Nazi control.

**Women**
o Divorce abolished and women told to stay home and procreate.
o Decreed a special tax on bachelors in 1934.
o 1938, women limited by law to a maximum of 10% of better-paying jobs in industry & gov't

**Fascist accomplishments**
o Internal improvements made such as electrification and road building.
o More efficient municipal governing.
o Suppression of the Mafia
o Improvement of the justice system (except for “enemies of the state”)
o *Lateran Pact*, 1929, resulted in reconciliation with the papacy
  ▪ Vatican recognized as a tiny independent state; received $92 mil for seized church lands
  ▪ In return, Pope Pius XII recognized legitimacy of the Italian state.

**Fascist failures**
o Italian democracy destroyed; terrorism became a state policy
o Poor industrial growth due to militarism and colonialism.
o Disastrous wars resulted from attempt to recapture imperialistic glories of Ancient Rome.

**NAZI GERMANY**

- Roots of Nazism: Extreme nationalism + racism = Nazism
- Adolf Hitler became leader of *National German Workers Party (NAZI)* after WWI
  o S.A.: "Brown Shirts" terrorized political opponents on the streets
  o *Beer Hall Putsch, 1923*: Hitler failed to overthrow Bavaria and sentenced to 1 year in jail
    ▪ Hitler realized he’d have to take control of Germany legally, not through revolution
  o *Mein Kampf*, 1923 written while in jail: became the blueprint for Hitler's future plans
    ▪ *Lebensraum* (“living space”): Germans should expand east, liquidate the Jews and turn the Slavs of eastern Europe into slave labor
    ▪ Anti-Semitism: Hitler blamed the Jews for Germany's political and economic problems
    ▪ Leader-dictator, *Fuhrer*, would have unlimited arbitrary power
- Fall of Weimar Republic was the result of the Great Depression
  o Hitler began promised German voters economic, political, and military salvation.
o Nazi's won largest percentage of votes in the Reichstag in 1933 elections
  o Hitler became Chancellor on January 30, 1933; appointed by Hindenburg.
• Third Reich (1933-1945)
  o Hitler consolidates power
    ▪ Reichstag fire occurred during violent electoral campaign: used by Nazis to crack down on communists
    ▪ Enabling Act (March 1933) passed by Reichstag
      ❖ Gave Hitler absolute dictatorial power for four years; only Nazi party was legal
      ❖ Hitler outlawed strikes and abolished independent labor unions.
      ❖ Publishers, universities, and writers were brought into line
    ▪ Joseph Goebbels: minister of propaganda effectively glorified Hitler and the Nazi state
    ▪ “Night of Long Knives” (June 1934)
      ❖ Hitler realized the army and big business were suspicious of the S.A.
      ❖ Hitler’s elite personal guard—the S.S.—arrested and shot without trial about 1,000 S.A. leaders and other political enemies.
    ▪ S.S. grew dramatically in influence as Hitler’s private army and secret police
      ❖ Led by Heinrich Himmler
      ❖ S.S. joined with the political police, the Gestapo, to expand its network of special courts and concentration camps.
    ▪ Hitler Youth: Nazis indoctrinated German youths to obey the state
      ❖ Children encouraged to turn in teachers or even their parents if they seemed disloyal
  o Persecution of Jews
    ▪ By the end of 1934, most Jewish lawyers, doctors, professors, civil servants, and musicians had lost their jobs and the right to practice their professions.
    ▪ Nuremburg Laws of 1935 deprived Jews of all rights of citizenship.
    ▪ By 1938, 25% of German Jews had emigrated (many were the "cream of the crop")
    ▪ Kristallnacht (“The Night of Broken Glass”) 1938: ordered by Hitler
      ❖ Well-organized wave of violence destroyed homes, synagogues, and businesses.
      ❖ Thousands of Jews were arrested and made to pay for the damage.
    ▪ Holocaust: 6 million European Jews eventually killed during WWII ("Final Solution")
      ❖ Formal plan came at Wannsee Conference in 1942
      ❖ Six death camps built in Poland in addition to hundreds of concentration camps
      ❖ Auschwitz was most notorious death camp
      ❖ Other victims of persecution included Slavs, Gypsies, Jehovah’s Witnesses, communists, homosexuals, mentally handicapped, and political opponents
  o German economic recovery contributed to Hitler's soaring popularity
    ▪ Large public works program started to get Germany out of the depression: e.g. superhighways (autobahn), offices, gigantic sports stadiums, and public housing.
    ▪ 1936, Germany began rearmament and gov’t spending began to focus on the military.
    ▪ Results:
      ❖ Unemployment dropped from 6 million in Jan 1933, to about one million in late 1936.
      ❖ By 1938 standard of living for the average employed worker increased moderately.
      ❖ Profits of business rose sharply.
• Nazi society: was there really a social revolution?
  o Quantitative studies show that well-educated classes held on to most of their advantages.
  o Only a modest social leveling occurred.
  o Like Italy, women were viewed as housewives and mothers.
    ▪ Only in wartime were large numbers of women mobilized for work in offices & factories.
WORLD WAR II

Failure of collective security

- **Treaty of Versailles** did not create an enduring peace by severely punishing Germany and triggering future resentment against the "dictated peace."
- **League of Nations**, without (US & USSR) didn't have will nor support to maintain peace.
- **Locarno Pact**, 1925: "spirit of Locarno" no longer relevant once Hitler took power
- **Kellogg-Briand Pact**, 1928: "war is illegal"; not enforceable
- Great Depression resulted in the rise of fascism in Japan and Germany
- Hitler withdrew from League of Nations, 1933: secretly began rearmament
- **Italian invasion of Ethiopia**, 1935: League of Nations ineffective in its actions and protests
- **Spanish Civil War**, 1936: Mussolini and Hitler use conflict as a testing ground for their military forces: Italy's army; Germany's airforce -- **Luftwaffe**
  - Fascism prevails under **Francisco Franco**; also known as **Falangists** (or Royalists)
  - League ineffective in helping republicans (Loyalists) against Franco.
  - **Rome-Berlin Axis** formed: an alliance between fascist Italy and Germany
- **German reoccupation of the Rhineland**, 1936: violated Versailles Treaty and Locarno Pact
  - France unwilling to enforce the treaty without British aid; British didn't want another war

Road to World War II

- Hitler repudiates Versailles Treaty and began massive rearmament in mid-1930s
- **Anschluss**: Germany annexed Austria, 1938
- **Sudetenland**: Hitler demanded the German-speaking province in Czechoslovakia
  - **Munich Conference**, 1938 arranged by British Prime Minister **Neville Chamberlain**
    - Attended by Britain, France, Italy & Germany; Czechoslovakia or Russia not invited
    - British Prime Minister **Neville Chamberlain** adopted a policy of appeasement
    - Agreement: Czechoslovakia forced to give away Sudetenland
- **German invasion of Czechoslovakia**, spring 1939: Hitler double-crossed Chamberlain
- Hitler made demands on port city of Danzig in the Polish Corridor
  - Chamberlain proclaims if Germany attacks Poland there will be war
  - Hitler does not want a two-front war against France & Britain in west and Russia in east
- **Nazi-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact**, Aug. 1939
  - Hitler sought assurances USSR would not attack Germany if Germany invaded Poland
  - Public agreement: nonaggression treaty
  - Private agreement: Germany and USSR would invade Poland and split the country in half.
- **Germany invades Poland**, Sept. 1, 1939: marks beginning of World War II
  - September 3, Britain & France declare war on Germany

Highlights of World War II

- **Blitzkrieg** ("lightning war"): new form of warfare used by Germany to quickly defeat an enemy
  - Used coordinated attack on one part of enemy line with air force, tanks, and artillery
  - Poland defeated in about a month; partition occurred when USSR attacked from east
- Spring 1940: Hitler invaded Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Netherlands, Belgium & Luxembourg
- **Fall of France**, June 1940 occurred in less than six weeks
  - **Vichy France**: Puppet gov’t in southern France
    - Hitler did not wish to waste time subduing all of France
  - “Free French” led by **General Charles De Gaulle**, who fled to Britain
• **Battle of Britain**: one of most critical battles of the war
  o Hitler sought to soften Britain up for an invasion
  o *Luftwaffe* (led by Herman Goring) sent to destroy *Royal Air Force* (RAF)
  o **Winston Churchill** emerged as inspirational war leader of Britain
  o After almost defeating RAF, Hitler ordered bombing of London: fatal error
  o RAF recovered and ultimately defeated *Luftwaffe*: Hitler forced to call off invasion of Britain
  o Significance: Hitler had to guard against a future two-front war; D-Day launched from Britain

• **Tripartite Pact, 1940**: Japan added to Rome-Berlin axis for mutual defense and military support.

• **German invasion of Soviet Union**, June 1941: Hitler's attempt at "*lebensraum*"
  o By winter, Germans at the gates of Moscow; lay siege to Leningrad (lasted two years)

• **Atlantic Charter**: Churchill and FDR meet secretly after invasion of Soviet Union
  o Decide once Axis Powers defeated, there would be no territorial changes contrary to the wishes of inhabitants (self-determination)
  o Called for "a permanent system of general security": later became the United Nations
  o Stalin endorsed the agreement soon thereafter

• **U.S. entry into the war**
  o Japanese attack on *Pearl Harbor*, Dec. 7, 1941, resulted in U.S. entry into the war
  o Hitler declared war on U.S.: another fatal blunder! Instead of focusing on Japan, U.S. (along with Britain) would instead focus on defeating Germany first.

• **The Grand Alliance** formed in 1942: Britain, Soviet Union and U.S. and 2 dozen other countries

• **Turning points in the war**
  o **Stalingrad**, Dec. 1942: first Nazi defeat on land; Soviets began the 2.5 year campaign of pushing the German army back to Berlin
  o **El Alamein**: British drove the Germans out of Egypt
    ▪ Germany eventually defeated in North Africa and suffered mass casualties and surrenders.
  o **Invasion of Sicily and Italy**, 1943
  o **D-Day**, Operation Overlord, June 6, 1944: invasion of Normandy (northern French coast)
    ▪ Western front established; spelled end of Nazi domination of Europe
    ▪ Hitler now fighting on three fronts: Russia, France and Italy
  o **Battle of the Bulge**, Dec. 1944: Hitler's last gasp offensive to drive Allies away from western German border; after it failed, Allies quickly penetrated deep into Germany in 1945.
  o **V-E Day**, May 8, 1945: Germany surrenders (Hitler committed suicide a few days earlier)
  o End of the war against Japan: U.S. dropped atomic bombs on *Hiroshima* and *Nagasaki*

→ **Diplomacy during the war**

• **Yalta Conference**, 1945: "Big Three" met again for the 2nd time
  o Stalin agreed to enter Pacific war against Japan within 3 months after Germany surrendered
  o Stalin agreed to a "Declaration of Liberated Europe” which called for free elections.
  o Called for United Nations to meet in U.S. beginning in April 1945
  o Germany to be divided into occupied zones
  o U.S.S.R. allowed to keep its pre-1939 territory.

• **Potsdam Conference**, July 1945: Stalin, Harry Truman and Clement Atlee
  o Issued warning to Japan of unconditional surrender or face utter devastation
  o Stalin reversed his position on eastern Europe stating there would be no free elections
  o Approvals given to concept of war-crimes trials and the demilitarization and denazification of Germany.
Results of the war
- About 55 million dead (including missing); 22 million in USSR alone
- Millions homeless and millions relocated (especially Germans living outside Germany)
- Much of Europe lay in ruins: would take years to rebuild economy
- Women played even larger role in the war economy than in WWI (gained more rights after war)
- The U.S. and Soviet Union emerged as the two dominant powers in the postwar world.

COLD WAR AND RECOVERY: 1945-1968

Roots of Cold War
- Yalta Conference, 1945:
  - Stalin pledged to allow democratic elections in eastern Europe (but later reneged)
  - Germany would be divided into four zones controlled by U.S., France, Britain and USSR
    - After the war, Soviets dominated their zone and did not allow reunification of Germany
- Potsdam Conference, 1945:
  - Truman demanded free elections in Eastern Europe but Stalin refused
  - Stalin wanted a "buffer zone" between Germany and USSR for protection against a future war
- U.S. point of view:
  - Stalin seemed intent on creating "spheres" of influence in Eastern Europe
    - Broke pledges at Yalta; refused to allow reunification of Germany
    - Churchill's "Iron Curtain" speech in 1946 alerted Americans to a future conflict
  - U.S. wanted democracy spread throughout the world with a strong international organization to maintain global peace
- Soviet point of view:
  - Democracies were traditionally hostile towards communism and the USSR
  - U.S. & Britain did not open western front in Europe early enough; millions of Soviet soldiers were dying fighting the brunt of Nazi armies alone until mid-1944.
  - The U.S. and British froze Russia out of the atomic bomb project.
  - U.S. terminated lend-lease to Moscow in May 1945 but gave Britain aid until 1946.
  - Wanted "buffer zone" for the Soviet western border especially in Poland
- Partition of Germany
  - USSR, U.S., Britain & France would each occupy a part of Germany but would allow for German reunification once she was no longer a threat.
  - Germany was to pay heavy reparations to USSR in form of agricultural and industrial goods.
  - Soviets dominated their Eastern German zone
  - U.S. and western Europeans felt Germany’s economy was vital to the recovery of Europe
    - 1949, West Germany (Federal Republic of Germany) became an independent country when U.S., France and Britain gave back each of their zones
  - 1949, East Germany established (Democratic Republic of Germany); a communist regime influenced by Moscow

Containment: By 1947, the U.S. pledged to prevent the further spread of communism
- Truman Doctrine, 1947: U.S. gave aid to Greece and Turkey to defeat communist forces there.
- Marshall Plan, 1947: Massive aid package to help war-torn Europe recover from the war
  - Purpose: prevent communism from spreading into economically devastated regions
  - Result: Western and Central Europe recovered economically -- the "economic miracle"
  - Soviets refused to allow U.S. aid to countries in eastern Europe
• **Berlin Crisis** (1948-49): Soviets attempted to remove Allies from Berlin by cutting off access
  - One of high tension points of the Cold War; World War III?
  - U.S. instituted a massive airlift; Soviets lifted blockade in 1949

• **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)** formed in 1949
  - Collective security organization consisting of democracies in Europe, U.S. & Canada to prevent against Soviet expansion in Europe.
  - Soviets formed the **Warsaw Pact** in response, 1955

⇒ **Eastern Bloc**: countries in eastern Europe were dominated by Soviet Union after WWII
- Included Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Rumania, Bulgaria
  - Communist parties of eastern Europe established one-party states by 1948
  - Only Yugoslavia, led by **Marshal Tito**, was not dominated by Soviets
- Postwar economic recovery in eastern Europe proceeded along Soviet lines; slow and uneven
- Stalin reinstated oppressive rule
  - Stalin’s new foe, the U.S., provided an excuse for re-establishing harsh dictatorship.
  - After WWII, Stalin repressed millions of Soviet citizens living outside Soviet borders
  - Stalin revived many forced labor camps (**gulags**)
  - Culture and art were also purged
- **Czechoslovakia**
  - In response to Marshall Plan in 1947, Stalin replaced the social democratic gov’t in 1948 with 1-party communist rule to prevent nation from courting the West.

⇒ **USSR under Nikita Khrushchev** (1955-64)
- Power struggle emerged after Stalin died in 1953; Khrushchev emerged a few years later
  - Stalin’s heirs realized reforms were needed.
- **de-Stalinization**
  - **XXth Party Congress, 1956**: Khrushchev took startling initiative against hard-liners by denouncing Stalin’s crimes in a closed session.
  - **Secret anti-Stalin speech** most influential speech in Russia since Lenin’s April Theses, 1917
- **Gosplan**: Resources shifted from heavy industry and the military toward consumer goods and agriculture – Centralized Economic Planning
- Great ferment in the arts occurred (anti-Stalinist views tolerated)
  - **Boris Pasternak** (1890-1960) wrote *Dr. Zhivago* in 1956
  - **Aleksandr Solzenitsyn: One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich** (1962)
    - Portrays in grim detail life in Stalinist concentration camp (he had been a prisoner)
- De-Stalinization resulted in communist reformers and the masses seeking greater liberty and national independence.
  - Poland: 1956, riots led to release of 9,000+ political prisoners and some political autonomy
  - **Hungarian Uprising, 1956**
    - Hungarian nationalists staged huge demonstrations demanding non-communist parties be legalized; turned into armed rebellion and spread throughout the country.
    - Hoped U.S. would come in and help achieve Hungarian independence
    - Soviet forces invaded Hungary and crushed the national democratic revolution.
    - Soviets installed firm communist rule
  - After Hungarian invasion, most eastern Europeans hoped for small domestic gains while obediently following USSR in foreign affairs.
Cold War in the 1950s

- 1949, Communists in China led by Mao Zedong won the Chinese revolution
  - Established "Peoples Republic of China" ("Red China")
- 1949, Soviets successfully test an atomic bomb
- **Korean War:** 1950-1953
  - 1950, communist North Korea (supported by Soviet resources) invaded South Korea
  - United Nations (led by U.S.) sent forces to push back communists
  - Result: cease-fire and border at 38th parallel restored; still in existence today
- Hydrogen bomb developed by U.S. in 1952 & USSR in 1953: world now had two superpowers
- **Warsaw Pact, 1955:** Collective security organization of eastern bloc nations to counter NATO.
- Relations between USSR and U.S. improved with ascension to power of Nikita Khrushchev
  - Khrushchev: “peaceful coexistence” with the West; sought to focus on Soviet economy
    - Resulted in significant reduction in cold war tensions between 1955 & 1957.
  - Khrushchev sought to prove communism was superior to capitalism and the USSR would be the model communist state in the world
    - Khrushchev wooed new nations of Asia and Africa with aid, even if they weren’t communist.
- **Geneva Summit, 1955:** U.S., USSR, Britain, & France began discussions on European security
- **Sputnik, 1957:** A Russian satellite was sent into orbit on a rocket and was brought back safely to the USSR; scientifically, this was an unprecedented achievement.
  - Effectively began the “space race” with the U.S. as Americans were horrified that the Soviets had eclipsed U.S. technology in this area.

Cold War in the 1960s

- **U-2 incident:** U.S. spy plane shot down over USSR, thus deteriorating U.S-USSR relations
- **Berlin Wall** built in 1961
  - 2 million East Germans escaped to West Berlin between 1949-1961; Soviets frustrated
  - Berlin Wall built instead of enforcing Soviet ultimatum to U.S. to leave West Berlin
- **Cuban Missile Crisis, 1962**
  - Cuba became a communist country in 1959 and an ally of the Soviet Union
  - Crisis became the closest USSR and US came to nuclear war
  - Khrushchev agreed to remove missiles in return for U.S. removing its missiles from Turkey and vowing not to invade Cuba in the future.
  - Crisis weakened Khrushchev and contributed to his downfall in 1964
- **Fall of Khrushchev, 1964**
  - His cold war policies were erratic & ultimately unsuccessful (Berlin, Cuban Missile Crisis)
  - Expensive space and armaments programs postponed any significant shift to consumer goods.
  - Most important reason: agricultural projects backfired
  - Resurgence of conservative Stalinists led to quiet removal of Khrushchev in October, 1964
Soviet Union and Cold War under Leonid Brezhnev (General Secretary – 1964-1982)

• Beginning in 1964, USSR began a period of stagnation and limited re-Stalinization
• Massive arms buildup started in response to humiliation of Cuban Missile Crisis.
• USSR avoided direct confrontation with the U.S.; in effect, new era of peaceful coexistence
• “Prague Spring” and the Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia, 1968
  o Due to Khrushchev’s reforms in USSR, 1960s brought modest liberalization and more consumer goods to eastern Europe
  o 1968, Alexander Dubcek elected new leader, replacing a long-time Stalinist
    ▪ Ushered new period of thaw and rebirth: “Prague Spring”
  o Czech reformers building “socialism with a human face” frightened hard-line communists.
  o Soviet troops brutally invaded Czechoslovakia in August 1968.
  o Czechoslovakia became one of most hard-line communist regimes well into 1980s.
  o Brezhnev Doctrine: Soviet Union and its allies had right to intervene in any socialist country whenever they saw the need

• Ostpolitik:
  o Willy Brandt: "eastern initiative" -- West German chancellor, began to improve relations with Eastern Europe
    ▪ Sought a comprehensive peace settlement for central Europe and a new resolution of the “German Question.”
  o Negotiated treaties with USSR, Poland, and Czechoslovakia that formally accepted existing state boundaries and the loss of German territory to Poland and USSR in return for mutual renunciation of force or threat of force.
  o Saw Germany as “Two German states within one German nation”
    ▪ Brandt’s gov’t broke with past and entered into direct relations with East Germany.
    ▪ Aimed for modest practical improvements rather than reunification
  o Result: West Germany’s eastern peace settlement contributed to great reduction in East-West tensions; Germany assumed a leadership role in Europe.

• Détente
  o U.S. president Richard Nixon tried to place Brandt’s eastern initiatives in a broader, American-led framework of reducing East-West tensions in early 1970s.
    ▪ Feared Germany might become neutral and weaken NATO & U.S. influence in Europe
    ▪ Nixon hoped to gain Soviet aid in pressing North Vietnam into peace.
  o Nixon visited Moscow, 1972: ushered in an era known as détente.
    ▪ Sought to establish rules to govern the rivalry between US and USSR and China.
  o SALT I: Brezhnev and Nixon signed treaty to reduce nuclear ballistic missiles
  o Helsinki Conference, 1975
    ▪ Final Act: Officially ended World War II by finally legitimizing the Soviet-dictated boundaries of Poland and other East European countries.
    ▪ In return, Soviets guaranteed more liberal exchanges of people and information between East and West and the protection of certain basic “human rights” (though little improved)
  o End of détente occurred with the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan
    ▪ U.S. refused to ratify SALT II treaty (reducing nuclear armaments) and boycotted 1980 Olympics in Moscow
    ▪ U.S. stopped shipments of grain and certain advanced technology to the Soviet Union.
    ▪ France, Italy and especially West Germany argued that Soviet’s deplorable action should not be turned into an East-West confrontation.
• “Solidarity” in Poland
  o Pope John Paul II (a Polish cardinal) elected in 1979; traveled through Poland preaching human rights
  o Popular movement of working people organized a massive union called “Solidarity.”
    ▪ Led by Lech Walesa
  o Demands included right to form free trade unions, right to strike, freedom of speech, release of political prisoners and economic reforms.
  o 1981, Polish gov’t led by Communist party leader, General Jaruzelski, imposed martial law after being warned by Soviets that if the Polish gov’t could not keep order, the Soviets would.
  o Solidarity was outlawed and driven underground but remained active

➤ Cold War in the 1980s
• The Atlantic Alliance revitalized itself in the 1980s under the leadership of Ronald Reagan in the U.S., Margaret Thatcher in UK, and Helmut Kohl (b. 1930) of Germany.
  o In 1980s, all three nations believed USSR remained a dangerous threat (e.g. Afghanistan)
  o Atlantic Alliance gave indirect support to ongoing efforts to liberalize authoritarian communist states in eastern Europe.
• Reagan dealt with Soviets from position of strength by embarking on massive military buildup.
  o Reagan believed U.S. could better bear economically the burden of an arms race while the Soviets couldn’t.
  o Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI) – “Star Wars”: 1983, Reagan announced his intention to pursue a high-technology missile-defense system
  o Reagan’s dramatic increase in military spending placed enormous pressures on the Soviet economy.

➤ End of the Cold War
• Mikhail Gorbachev assumed control of the Soviet Union in 1985 and sought reforms
  o Perestroika: (“restructuring”): aimed to revive sagging Soviet economy by adopting many of the free-market practices of the West; by 1987 the program had clearly failed
  o Glasnost: aimed to open Soviet society by introducing free speech and some political liberty, while ending party censorship; more successful than perestroika
• Gorbachev sought to reduce East-West tensions
  o Withdrew Soviet troops from Afghanistan
  o Encouraged reform movements in Poland and Hungary
  o Repudiated the Brezhnev Doctrine; pledged to respect political will of eastern Europeans.
  o INF Treaty signed by Gorbachev and Reagan in Dec. 1987
    ▪ All intermediate-range nuclear missiles in Europe were banned.
Revolutions of 1989: end to communist control of eastern Europe

- Costs of maintaining satellite countries for USSR both politically and economically were too much of a burden for the Soviets to handle.
- **Poland:** Solidarity legalized again and free elections promised in June 1989
  - First non-communist leader elected in eastern Europe since the Stalin era
  - Triggered a wave of freedom in eastern Europe.
  - **Lech Walesa** became president in 1990 but Solidarity later broke up into factions
- **Hungary:** October 23, Hungarian leaders proclaimed an independent republic
- **Germany:** Berlin Wall came down in November; East German gov’t fell
  - German reunified in 1990
  - Soviets opposed unified Germany in NATO but eventually acquiesced when West Germany provided massive economic aid to Soviet Union.
- **Bulgaria,** Nov. 1989
- **Czechoslovakia** – the “Velvet Revolution”, Dec. 1989
  - **Vaclav Havel,** the dissident playwright, become president
- **Romania,** Dec. 1989
  - Communist dictator **Nicolai Ceausescu** overthrown and assassinated
- Albania’s communist regime fell in 1990

Fall of the Soviet Union

- Long-term causes:
  - Costs of protecting and maintaining its empire in eastern Europe were too high
  - Call for reforms from the burgeoning middle class became increasingly influential in the 1970s and 1980s.
  - General economic crisis in Europe during the 1970s (largely spurred by the oil crisis) laid the foundation for the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe in the late 1980s.
  - Nationalist resentment of the Soviet government grew among many of the Soviet republics, especially the Baltic republics of Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia, eventually leading to the empire’s downfall
  - The economy continued to lag since the 1960s
    - Although Gorbachev’s *perestroika* policies sought to reform the economy, increased shortages of goods further frustrated the Russian people
- **Coup in Moscow,** 1991: communist hard-liners, frustrated by loss of Soviet power and prestige, attempted to overthrow Gorbachev
  - Coup failed when the Soviet military refused to crush popular resistance.
  - **Boris Yeltsin,** president of Russia, defied tanks and became a national hero.
  - The coup fatally weakened Gorbachev and spelled doom for the Soviet Union.
- Yeltsin and his liberal allies declared Russia independent and withdrew from the Soviet Union—all other 14 republics followed
  - December 25, 1991, Soviet Union dissolved into 15 separate republics
Post-1991 Challenges in Central and Eastern Europe
- Russia’s struggles
  - President Boris Yeltsin’s gov’t failed to significantly improve the Russian economy
  - One of the biggest issues of the 1990s and early 2000s was the insurgency in the predominantly Muslim Russian republic of Chechnya
  - Vladimir Putin succeeded Yeltsin in 2000 and began to centralize power
- Eastern Europe
  - Transition from a communist economy to a market economy proved difficult in the ‘90s
  - Eventually, several eastern European countries joined NATO
    - 1999: Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary
    - 2004: Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Romania, Bulgaria
  - In 2004, several eastern European countries joined the European Union (EU)
    - Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia

NATIONALISM SINCE WORLD WAR II
- Decolonization
  - Asia
    - Postwar era saw total collapse of Europe’s colonial empires
      - Between 1947 and 1962, almost every colonial territory gained independence
      - New nations of Asia and Africa were deeply influenced by Western ideas and achievements
    - Causes
      - Modern nationalism and belief in self-determination and racial equality spread from intellectuals to the masses in virtually every colonial territory after WWI.
      - Decline of European prestige: Japanese victories; destruction of Europe during WWII
      - After 1945, European powers more concerned about rebuilding; willing to let colonies go
    - India played a key role in decolonization and the end of Britain’s empire.
      - Gandhi after WWI led independence movement with principle of passive resistance
      - Nehru led Congress party in its push for independence
      - Clement Attlee and others in the Labour party sought to focus on internal affairs in Britain.
      - 1946, India was divided into two nations: India (Hindu) and Pakistan (Muslim)
    - Vietnam breaks away from France
      - After WWII, Ho Chi Minh led the independence movement in the north
      - 1954, French forces defeated at Dien Bien Phu causing France to abandon Vietnam
      - U.S. fought to keep South Vietnam from falling into communist hands but failed by 1975
        when Vietnam was unified under a communist regime.
    - Arab Nationalism
      - Palestine
        - Britain announced its withdrawal from Palestine in 1948.
        - United Nations in 1948 created two states: one Arab (Palestine) and one Jewish (Israel).
        - Palestinians vowed to fight on until the state of Israel was destroyed or they established their own independent Palestinian state.
        - This issue led to several wars and numerous crises in the middle east into the 21st century
Africa

- Egypt
  - Creation of the new state of Israel triggered a nationalist revolution in Egypt in 1952 that ended Britain’s rule there.
  - 1956, Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal, the last vestige of Western power in the Middle East.

- Algerian Crisis (mid-1950s)
  - Algeria’s large French population considered Algeria an integral part of France.
  - This feeling led to war, atypical of decolonization.
  - General Charles de Gaulle, who had returned to power as part of the movement to keep Algeria in French control, accepted the principle of Algerian self-determination.
  - 1962, after more than a century of French rule, Algeria became independent and the European population quickly fled.
  - Crisis led to the fall of the French Fourth Republic and beginning of the Fifth Republic.

- Sub-Saharan Africa
  - Decolonization proceeded much more smoothly than in northern Africa.
  - British Commonwealth of Nations: beginning in 1957, Britain’s colonies achieved independence with little or no bloodshed; most entered a very loose association with Britain.
  - 1958, French president de Gaulle offered leaders of French black Africa a choice of total break with France or immediate independence within a kind of French commonwealth
    - All but one of the new states chose association with France
  - Cultural imperialism by Europeans continued, however
    - France and European Economic Community partners saw themselves as continuing their civilizing mission in black Africa.
    - Europeans desired untapped markets for industrial goods, raw materials, outlets for profitable investment, and good temporary jobs for their engineers and teachers.

Nationalism: Eastern Europe and Russia during the Cold War

- Revolts against Soviet influence in the 1950s and 1960s: Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia
- 1980s:
  - Solidarity in Poland in 1982
  - Revolutions of 1989 and the fall of communism in eastern Europe.
- Czechoslovakia split into two countries along ethnic lines: Czech Republic and Slovakia
- Fall of the Soviet Union in 1991
  - Baltic states: Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia
  - Muslim republics: Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan
  - Eastern Europe: Russia, Belarus, Moldova, Ukraine
  - Armenia
  - Chechnyan rebellion (within Russia after 1991)
Civil War in Yugoslavia

- **Cause:** 1990, President Slobodan Milosevic sought greater Serbian nationalism throughout Yugoslavia; established tighter central control over previously autonomous regions.
  - In response Croatia & Slovenia declared independence and each fought Serbia in the process
- Bosnia declared its independence in March 1992 and the civil war spread there.
  - Bosnian Serbs (about 30% of pop.) refused to live in a Muslim-dominated state and began military operations assisted by Serbia and the Yugoslav federal army; Sarajevo (capital city) was under attack
  - **Ethnic cleansing:** Bosnian Serbs tried to liquidate or remove Muslims by shelling cities, confiscating or destroying of houses, gang rape, expulsion, and murder
    - Several hundred thousand Bosnians were killed
  - **Dayton Agreements,** 1995: Agreed to divide Bosnia between Muslims and Serbs
    - Bosnian Ser aspirations to join a Greater Serbia frustrated by U.S. and other NATO troops sent to enforce the Dayton agreements.
- **Kosovo crisis,** 1999
  - Milosevic attempted to ethnically cleanse Kosovo (province of Serbia) of ethnic-Albanians
  - **NATO,** led by U.S., bombed Serbia in order to stop the ethnic cleansing
- **Milosevic** was defeated in the 2000 election and was subsequently arrested for war crimes and crimes against humanity; died in prison before he was tried
- Montenegro voted for its independence in 2006 thus eliminating the last vestige of Yugoslavia

Nationalism in Western Europe

- **French resistance to NATO** in the 1960s
  - Feared American dominance in European politics
- **British resistance to the EU** in the late 1980s
  - Though it joined the EU, it did not take part in the European Monetary Union (EMU) and accept the **euro** as its currency
- **Terrorist organizations**
  - **Irish Republican Army (IRA)** terrorized English cities demanding that Northern Ireland be returned to Ireland.
  - ETA in the Basque region of Spain used terrorism in its attempt for independence
- **Xenophobia** (anti-immigration)
  - “**Guest Workers**” became a major source of tension among right-wing nationalists
    - North African immigrants in France
    - Turkish immigrants in Germany and Austria
  - In France, Jean-Marie Le Pen was the most outspoken opponent of both immigration and French integration into the European Union.
  - In Austria, Jorg Haider led the right-wing Austrian Freedom Party that was staunchly opposed to immigration
    - His party’s ascension to the ruling coalition government in 2000 resulted in the EU demanding that he step down
  - Post-9/11 attacks in 2001: Increased concerns in Western Europe concerning large Muslim enclaves
THE ECONOMIC MIRACLE

- Economic hardship after WWII was severe: scarcity of food, runaway inflation, black markets
- Political restructuring
  - **Christian Democrats** inspired by common Christian and European heritage.
    - Came to power in Germany and Italy
    - Rejected authoritarianism & narrow nationalism; had faith in democracy and cooperation
    - Catholic parties also progressive in nature (e.g. France)
  - **Socialists and Communists** also emerged with increased power and prestige, especially in France and Italy
    - Pushed for social change and economic reform with considerable success.
  - **French Fourth Republic** led by **Charles de Gaulle**
    - Result: social reform and political transformation created foundations for a great European renaissance
- Between late 1940s and late 1960s, Europe entered a period of phenomenal economic progress
  - By 1963, western Europe produced more than 2.5X more than before the war.
- Causes:
  - Marshall Plan aid helped western Europe begin recovery in 1947
  - Korean War in 1950 stimulated economic activity.
  - Economic growth became a basic objective of all western European governments.
    - Governments accepted **Keynesian** economics to stimulate their economies.
    - Germany and France were especially successful and influential.
    - In most countries many people willing to work hard for low wages; expanding industries benefited.
  - Increased demand for consumer goods.
  - Many economic barriers eliminated and a large unified market emerged: Common Market.
- German economic recovery led by finance minister **Ludwig Erhard**
  - Combined free-market economy & extensive social welfare network inherited from Nazi era.
  - By late 1950s, West Germany had robust economy, full employment, a strong currency and stable prices.
- France
  - Combined flexible planning and a “mixed” state and private economy to achieve most rapid economic development in its history.
  - **Jean Monnet:** economic pragmatist and architect of European unity.
  - France used Marshall Plan aid money and the nationalized banks to funnel money into key industries, several of which were state owned.
- Creation of the “Welfare State”
  - Western European countries sought to provide universal services to all their people
    - Employment
    - Unemployment and disability insurance
    - Social security for the elderly
    - Free or subsidized health care
    - Redistribution of wealth and income by placing high taxes on wealthier citizens
  - Significantly reduced class tensions that had existed in Europe for centuries.
  - Christian Democrats in Germany, France and Italy played a key role
  - As long as the European economy in western and central Europe continued to grow in the 1950s and 1960s, governments could more or less meet the expenses of the “welfare state”
Britain became the model for the “welfare state” and a “mixed economy” under the socialistic Labour Party and prime minister Clement Atlee. With the economic downturn and high inflation in the 1970s, governments experienced larger deficits, increased national debts, and pressure from conservatives to lower taxes.

- The “welfare state” was thus trimmed throughout Europe.
- In some countries, such as Britain led by conservative Margaret Thatcher, government began privatizing industries that had been state-owned and restricting labor strikes.

**EUROPEAN UNITY**

- Made possible largely due to the “economic miracle” of the late-40s and 1950s
- **Council of Europe** created in 1948
  - European federalists hoped Council would quickly evolve into a true European parliament with sovereign rights, but this did not happen.
  - Britain, with its empire and its “special relationship” with U.S., opposed giving any real political power—sovereignty—to the council.
- **Schuman Plan**, 1950 created the European Coal and Steel Community
  - Put forth by French statesman Jean Monnet and Foreign Minister Robert Schuman.
  - Special international organization to control & integrate European steel and coal production.
  - West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Netherlands, & Luxembourg accepted in 1952.
    - Britain refused to enter
  - Immediate economic goal: a single competitive market w/o national tariffs or quotas.
  - "The Six": By 1958 coal and steel moved freely among six nations of the European Coal and Steel Community
    - Far-reaching political goal: bind six member nations so closely together economically that war among them would become unthinkable and virtually impossible.
- **European Economic Community (EEC)**
  - **Treaty of Rome, 1957**
    - Created European Economic Community (EEC) or the Common Market
      - Signed by same six nations in the ECSC – “the Six”
    - First goal of treaty: Gradual reduction of all tariffs among the Six in order to create a single market almost as large as the U.S.
    - Other goals:
      - Free movement of capital and labor.
      - Common economic policies and institutions.
      - Tariffs were rapidly reduced and regions specialized in what they did best.
  - EEC encouraged hopes of political and economic union.
  - **Euratom** (European Atomic Energy Agency) also created by agency.
- France steps back from European unity
  - Bitter colonial war in Algeria resulted in the election in 1958 of General De Gaulle who established the Fifth French Republic and ruled as president until 1969.
  - Withdrew from "U.S. controlled" NATO and developed own nuclear weapons program.
  - De Gaulle twice vetoed application of pro-American Britain to the EEC
    - Britain did not enter until 1973.
European Union (EU) went into effect in 1993
- European Community (EC) renamed to European Union in 1996
- Chancellor Kohl and President Mitterrand sought to extend the EU to include a single European currency and a common defense and foreign policy
- British prime minister Margaret Thatcher led opposition until she resigned in November 1990, replaced by conservative successor John Major who urged a limited federalism.
- Maastricht Treaty, 1991
  - Promised most radical revision of the EC since its beginning.
  - Eurodollar became the single currency of the EU in 1999 integrating the currency of 11 western and central European nations.
  - Proposals to form common foreign and defense policies.
  - Increased use of majority voting.
  - Greater parliamentary consultation.
  - By 1995 EU had 15 members
  - By 2007, EU had 25 members

Economic crises of the 1970s
- Energy Crisis
  - Postwar economic boom fueled by cheap oil, especially in western Europe.
  - 1973, OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries) dramatically increased oil prices in Europe and U.S. in retaliation for their support of Israel in the Yom Kippur War against Egypt and Syria.
  - Second price increase in 1979 during Iranian Revolution hurt modest progress since 1976.
- Price revolution in energy, coupled with upheaval in international monetary system, plunged world into worst economic decline since 1930s.
  - "Stagflation" hit in the mid 1970s: increased prices and increased unemployment; rare
  - Debts and deficits piled up quickly in the 1970s and 1980s
- Social consequences of the 1970s economic crisis
  - Created condition for collapse of communism in late 1980s.
  - Pessimism replaced optimism in society in general
  - Yet, welfare system created in postwar era prevented mass suffering and degradation.
    - Total government spending in most countries rose during 1970s and 1980s
  - Conservative resurgence in late 1970s and early 1980s in certain countries (e.g. Margaret Thatcher in Britain)
  - By late 1970s, a powerful reaction against increased governments’ role resulted in austerity measures to slow growth of public spending and the welfare state.
SOCIETY AFTER WORLD WAR II

Change in class structure and social reform

- Rise of the middle-class largely result of increased access to higher education
  - European society became more mobile and democratic.
  - New middle-class, based largely on specialized skills and high levels of education, more open, democratic, and insecure than old propertied middle class.
  - Changes in structure of middle class influential in trend toward less rigid class structure.
  - Causes for change in rise of middle class
    - Rapid industrial and technological expansion created in large corporations and gov’t agencies created higher demand for technologists and managers.
    - Old propertied middle class lost control of many family-owned businesses.
    - Top managers and ranking civil servants represented model for new middle class of salaried specialists; well paid and highly trained
      - Passed on opportunity for advanced education to their children.
- Structure of lower classes also became more flexible and open.
  - Mass exodus from farms and countryside.
  - Industrial working class ceased to expand while job opportunities for white-collar and service employees grew rapidly.
- European governments reduced class tensions by further expanding social security reforms: health care, family allowances, maternity grants, public housing

Consumerism worked to level Western society.

- Sparked by social welfare and rising standard of living giving more people disposable income
- European automobile industry expanded phenomenally.
- “Gadget revolution”: Europeans bought washing machines, vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, dishwashers, radios, TVs, and stereos.
  - Leisure and recreation became big business as workers worked fewer hours.
    - Soccer matches, horse races, movies, TV, commercialized hobbies, cultural events
    - Travel industry mushroomed most dramatically

The youth movement and Counterculture

- Counter-Culture: rebellion against parents, authority figures and status quo
- Baby boom after WWII developed distinctive and international youth culture.
  - Many raised in economic prosperity and a more democratic class structure.
  - New generation influenced by revival of leftist thought created a “counter-culture”
    - Youth in America took the lead.
  - Some youth rebelled against conformity and boredom of middle-class suburbs.
  - Rock music helped tie counter-culture together (e.g. the Beatles)
  - Increased sexual behavior among many young people during 1960s and 1970s
    - Growing tendency of young unmarried people to live together on a semi-permanent basis with little thought of getting married or having children.
- Causes of the emergence of international youth culture in 1960s.
  - Mass communication and youth travel linked countries and continents together.
  - Baby boom meant youth became unusually large part of population and exercised exceptional influence on society as a whole.
  - Postwar prosperity and greater equality gave youth more purchasing power than ever before.
  - Good jobs were readily available: high demand for workers meant youth had little need to fear punishment from straight-laced employers for unconventional behavior.
Student Revolts in the late 1960s

- **Causes**
  - Opposition to U.S. war in Vietnam triggered revolutionary ferment among youths
    - Influenced by Marxist current in French universities after 1945 & “New Left” thinking in U.S.
    - Believed older generation & U.S. fighting immoral & imperialistic war against Vietnam.
  - Students in western Europe shared U.S. youth’s rejection of materialism and belief that postwar society was repressive and flawed.
  - Problems in higher education: classes were overcrowded; little contact with professors; competition for grades intense; demanded even more practical areas of study to qualify for high-paying jobs after college.
  - Some students warned of dangers of narrowly trained experts ("technocrats") who would serve the establishment to the detriment of working class.

- **French student revolt, 1968**
  - Students took over the universities, leading to violent clashes with police.
  - Most students demanded changes in curriculum and real voice in running the university.
  - Appealed to industrial workers for help; spontaneous general strike spread across France.
  - To many it seemed the French Fifth Republic might collapse.
  - De Gaulle called in troops and called for new elections (which he won decisively).
  - The mini-Revolution collapsed.

Women’s Issues

- Second wave of women’s movement first assumed real significance in the late 1960s, gathered strength in the 1970s, and won major victories in the 1970s and 1980s.

- **Marriage and Motherhood**
  - In the postwar era, women continued to marry earlier.
  - Typical woman in Europe, U.S. and Canada had children quickly after marrying.
    - Average of only 2 children per family
    - Motherhood occupied a much smaller portion of a women’s life than at the turn of the century.
  - Birth control use increased with oral contraceptives and intrauterine devices.

- **Women in the workplace**
  - In 20th century, especially after WWII, opportunities for women of modest means to earn cash income at home practically disappeared.
  - Thus, sharp increase across Europe and North America in number of married women who became full-time and part-time wage earners outside the home.
  - Rising employment of married women became a powerful force in drive for women’s equality and emancipation.
  - Rising employment for married women became a factor in decline of the birthrate.
Women's Rights Movement

- Simone de Beauvoir: *The Second Sex* (1949) -- existentialist ideas
  - Argued women were in essence free but had almost always been trapped by particularly inflexible and limiting conditions.
  - Only by courageous action and self-assertive creativity could women become free and escape the role of inferior “other.”
  - Inspired a future generation of women's rights intellectuals

- Betty Friedan: *The Feminine Mystique* (1963) -- American
  - Criticized norms where women were expected to conform to false, infantile pattern of femininity and live for husbands and children.
  - Founded National Organization for Women (NOW); inspired European groups

- Goals of women's rights movements
  - New statutes in the workplace: laws against discrimination, “equal pay for equal work,” and maternal leave and affordable day care.
  - Gender and family questions: right to divorce (in some Catholic countries), legalized abortion, needs of single parents (usually women) and protection from rape and physical violence.
  - In almost every country, effort to legalize abortion became catalyst for mobilizing an effective women’s movement.
Important Royal Lines and Governments

FRANCE:
Valois Line:
- Louis XI “Spider King” (1461-83)
- Francis I (1515-1547): Concordat of Bologna; Hapsburg-Valois Wars

Bourbons:
- Henry IV (Henry of Navarre) (1589-1610): *politique*; Edict of Nantes; Duke of Sully
- Louis XIII (1610-1643): Richelieu
- Louis XIV (The “Sun King”) – (1643-1715): Mazarin, Colbert; absolutism, Versailles
- Louis XV (1715-1774)
- Louis XVI (1774-1792): beheaded during French Revolution

The Empire:
Napoleon I (1804-1814)  (Note: Consulate 1799-1804)
Restoration of Bourbons: Louis XVIII: Charter of 1814-constitutional monarchy
Orleans: Louis Philippe (1830-1848) ("Bourgeois King")

Second Republic: 1848-1852 -- President Louis Napoleon
Second Empire: Napoleon III (1842-1870)  (Note: 2nd Republic 1848-1852)
Third Republic: 1870-1940: Adolph Thiers, Leon Gambetta, Raymond Poincarè
Vichy Regime: 1940-1944 (during Nazi occupation of France in WWII)
Fourth Republic: 1944-1958; Charles de Gaulle
Fifth Republic: 1958—present ; Charles de Gaulle, Francois Mitterand

AUSTRIA
Habsburg Succession, 1493-1637: Holy Roman Empire
- Maximilian I (1493-1519): 1st important Habsburg
- Charles V (1519-1556): most powerful ruler in Europe; tried to prevent spread of reformation
- Leopold I (1658-1705): thwarted Turkish invasion
- Charles VI: Pragmatic Sanction, 1713
- Maria Theresa (1740-1780): War of Austrian Succession
- Joseph II (1765-1790): greatest of the "enlightened monarchs"

SPAIN
- Ferdinand and Isabella (1492-1519): created modern unified Spain

Habsburgs:
- Charles V (1519-1556) -- controlled both Austrian and Spanish thrones
- Phillip II (1556-1598) -- son of Charles V: Catholic crusade against England

ENGLAND (Great Britain after 1707)
Tudors
- Henry VII (1489-1509): won "War of the Roses"; "new monarch"
- Henry VIII (1509-1547): English Reformation
- Mary I “Bloody Mary” (1553-1558) – (note: not Mary, “Queen of Scots”)
- Elizabeth I (1558-1603)

Stuarts
- James I (1603-1625): "divine right" theory
- Charles I (1625-1642): beheaded
- Interregnum: Commonwealth (1649-53); Protectorate (1653-58); Oliver Cromwell
Charles II (1660-1685): Restoration
James II (1685-1688): overthrown during "Glorious Revolution"
William and Mary (1688-1702): products of "Glorious Revolution"
Anne (1702-1714): 1707, royal title now King (or Queen) of Great Britain & Ireland

**Hanoverians:**
18th century: George I, George II, George III (lost American Revolution)
Robert Walpole (first prime minister in 1820s)
Queen Victoria (1837-1901)
19th century leaders: Earl Grey, Benjamin Disraeli, William Gladstone
20th century leaders: Winston Churchill, Clement Attlee, Margaret Thatcher

**GERMANY**
**Hohenzollerns:**
Frederick William – The “Great Elector”(1640-1688): foundation for Prussian state
Frederick I (Elector Frederick III) “The Ostentatious” (1688-1713): 1st King of Prussia
Frederick William I (1713-1740) “The Soldiers’ King”
Frederick the Great (Frederick II) (1740-1786): "Enlightened Despotism"
Frederick William IV (1840-1861): "Humiliation of Olmutz"
William I (1861-1888) -- unified Germany under Bismarck; became Kaiser Wilhelm I
William II (1888-1918) -- World War I

**Weimar Republic:** 1919-1933 Gustave Streseman

**Third Reich:** 1933-1945 -- Adolf Hitler

**German Federal Republic** (West Germany): 1949-1990  Konrad Adenauer, Willy Brandt

**German Democratic Republic** (East Germany): 1949-1990

**German Federal Republic** (reunited Germany): 1990- Helmut Kohl

**RUSSIA:**
Ivan III “Ivan the Great” (1442-1505)
Ivan IV “Ivan the Terrible” (1533-1584)

**Romanov Dynasty** (1613-1917)
Michael Romanov (1613-1645)
Peter the Great (1682-1725)
Catharine II, “Catharine the Great” (1762-96): Enlightened despotism?
Alexander I (1801-1825): Napoleonic wars, "Holy Alliance"
Nicholas I (1825-1855): Took control after Decembrist uprising (very conservative)
Alexander II (1855-1881): Emancipation Edict
Alexander III (1881-1894): "Autocracy, Orthodoxy, Russification" (ultra-conservative)
Nicholas II (1894-1917): WWI, Russian Revolution

**Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR):** 1922-1991
Vladimir Lenin (1917-1924) , Joseph Stalin (1927-1953), Nikita Khrushchev (1955-1964)


**ITALY:** Victor Emmanuel I (1849-1878) -- King of Sardinia; unified Italy (Count Cavour)
Victor Emmanuel III (1900-1946): WWI, Mussolini
# SOCIAL HISTORY STUDY GUIDE

## LATE MIDDLE AGES

**MARRIAGE AND FAMILY:**
- Nuclear family
- Divorce nonexistent
- Marriages arranged for economic reasons.
- Prostitution in urban areas
- Ave. age for men: mid-late 20s
- Avg. age for women: less than 20 years old.
- Church encouraged cult of paternal care.
- Many couples did not observe church regulations on marriage.
- Manners shaped men to please women.
- Relative sexual equality

### 16th and 17th CENTURIES

**MARRIAGE AND FAMILY:**
- Nuclear family
- Divorce available in certain cases
- More prostitution
- Marriages still based on economics but increasingly more romantic.
- Average age for marriage: 27 for men; 25 for women.
- Increased infanticide.
- Low rate of illegitimate births.
- Dramatic population growth until 1650; growth slows until 1750.

## 18th CENTURY

**MARRIAGE AND FAMILY:**
- Nuclear family
- Growth of Cottage Industry.
- Marriages based more on romance.
- Average age for marriage: late 20s or later; takes longer for couple to be ready economically for marriage.
- Many women don’t marry; “spinsters”
- Illegitimate birth explosion: 1750-1850
- Increase in infanticide.
- Foundling hospitals created
- Young people increasingly worked away from home in the city.
- “Spare the rod, spoil the child.”
- Rise of humanitarianism (influenced by Enlightenment).

## 19TH CENTURY

**MARRIAGE AND FAMILY:**
- Ideal of romantic love now most important reason
- Fewer children per family; more love towards children
- Middle class more apt to consider economic reasons
- Many men married late
- Women closely monitored
- Sexual double standard
- Rate of illegitimacy declined after 1850 in working classes
- Prostitution sought by middle & upper middle class men
- Freud: early childhood is vital
- Lower class kids less dependent on parents financially than middle class kids

## STATUS OF WOMEN:

### LATE MIDDLE AGES
- Status of upper-class women better than in next two centuries.

### 16th and 17th CENTURIES
- Status of upper-class women declines in Renaissance.
- Most women not affected by Renaissance.
- Educated women allowed involvement but subservient to men.
- Sexual double standard
- Woman was to make herself pleasing to the man (Castiglione)
- Rape not considered serious crime.
- Protestant Reformation: women’s occupation is in the home.
- Catholic orders for women grew.

### 18th CENTURY
- Protestant women still expected to manage the home.
- Upper-class Catholic women had self-development options in religious orders.

### 19TH CENTURY
- After 1850, increasingly separate spheres: men worked in factories; women stayed at home.
- By late-19th century, women worked outside the home only in poor families
- Middle class women began working to organize and expand their rights
## LATE MIDDLE AGES

**EDUCATION:**
- Mostly for upper-classes

**RELIGION:**
- Dominated by Catholic Church
- Reform movements: Wyclif and Hus.
- Some persecution of witches

**NUTRITION AND HEALTH**
- Poor harvests created malnutrition.
- Black Plague resulted in loss of 1/3 of population.

## 16th and 17th CENTURIES

**EDUCATION:**
- Protestantism spurred increased education for boys and girls.
- Humanitarianism of Enlightenment led to improved education

**RELIGION:**
- Protestant Reformation
- Catholic Counter Reformation
- Religious wars
- “New Monarchs” and Absolute Monarchs take control of national churches.
- Major persecution of alleged witches.

**NUTRITION and HEALTH:**
- Poor life expectancy (about 25 years)
- Price Revolution = less food consumption due to higher prices (until about 1650).
- Bread is staple food for poor classes.
- Upper-classes eat large quantities of meat.
- Smallpox and famines still ravaged parts of Europe.

## 18th CENTURY

**EDUCATION:**
- Increase among middle class

**RELIGION:**
- Protestant “Pietism” in Germany.
- Rise of Methodism
- Catholic piety remains.
- Decrease in witch hunts

**NUTRITION and HEALTH:**
- Improved diet: more vegetables (esp. potato).
- Increased life expectancy from 25 years to 35 years.
- Major advances in control of plague and disease (esp. Small Pox—Edward Jenner)
- William Harvey: Circulation of Blood
- Development of public health
- Hospital reform
- Reform for mental health institutions

## 19th CENTURY

**RELIGION:**
- *Rerum Novarum*
- *Syllabus of Errors*
- *Kulturkampf*
- Increased emphasis on morality among middle class
- Decline among urban working classes.

**NUTRITION and HEALTH:**
- Public Health Movement: Bentham & Chadwick
- Bacterial Revolution: Pasteur—“germ theory”
- Antiseptic (Lister)
- Increased life expectancy
- Significant decline in infant mortality after 1890
- Poor living conditions in cities
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LATE MIDDLE AGES</th>
<th>16th and 17th CENTURIES</th>
<th>18th CENTURY</th>
<th>19th CENTURY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL STRUCTURE:</td>
<td>• Feudalism dominated most of Europe.</td>
<td>SOCIAL STRUCTURE:</td>
<td>• Cottage Industry in rural areas.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Population growth began in 16th century until about 1650.</td>
<td>• Growth of cities.</td>
<td>• Increased standard of living for average person; higher wages</td>
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<td>• Cities grew faster than rural areas.</td>
<td>• Serfdom in eastern Europe.</td>
<td>• Society more diverse and less unified</td>
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<td>• Two major hierarchies existed:</td>
<td>• Advancement up the hierarchy possible through education.</td>
<td><strong>Middle Class</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Countryside: landlords, peasants, landless laborers</td>
<td>• Enclosure movement</td>
<td>• Upper Middle Class: Banking; industry; large-scale commerce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Urban: merchants, artisans, laborers</td>
<td>• Putting out system</td>
<td>• Diversified middle class groups</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Clergy, lawyers, teachers, &amp; civil servants fit awkwardly in both hierarchies.</td>
<td>• Serfdom in eastern Europe</td>
<td>Moderately successful industrialists, merchants, professionals (doctors, lawyers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Advancement up the hierarchy possible through education.</td>
<td>• African slavery introduced.</td>
<td>• Lower Middle Class: Shopkeepers, small traders</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Enclosure movement</td>
<td>• Dramatic increase in slave trade in New World.</td>
<td><strong>Lower Class:</strong> (80% of population)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Putting out system</td>
<td>• Still exists in Portuguese, Spanish and British empires.</td>
<td>• Highly skilled: Foremen; highly skilled handicraft trades</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Serfdom in eastern Europe</td>
<td>• Ends in Latin America as Spanish and Portuguese leaders are overthrown and Latin American countries become independent.</td>
<td>• Semi skilled: Craftspeople</td>
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<tr>
<td>SLAVERY:</td>
<td>• Few Africans lived in Europe.</td>
<td>• Still exists in Portuguese, Spanish and British empires.</td>
<td>• Low skilled: day laborers; domestic servants</td>
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<td>SLAVERY:</td>
<td>• African slavery introduced.</td>
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<td>• Britain ends slavery in 1833</td>
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<td>MARRIAGE AND FAMILY:</td>
<td>STATUS OF WOMEN:</td>
<td>EDUCATION:</td>
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<td>- Equality in communist Russia</td>
<td>- Key to social advancement after WWII</td>
<td>- Christian existentialism after WWI</td>
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<td>- Women having children earlier and fewer children (about 2.0)</td>
<td>- Female suffrage after WWI in W &amp; C Europe</td>
<td>- After WWII, college widely available in W &amp; C Europe</td>
<td>- Lateran Pact (1920) between Mussolini and the Papacy</td>
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<td>- Middle class children less economically dependent on parents</td>
<td>- Traditional and oppressed role in Fascist Italy and Germany</td>
<td>- Emphasis on science and math</td>
<td>- Religion far less prominent than in any previous century</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Women work in war industries in WWI and especially WWII</td>
<td>- &quot;Big Science&quot;</td>
<td>- 1963 Catholic Ecumenical Council (end of Latin in Mass)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Women's rights movement in 1960s</td>
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<td>NUTRITION AND HEALTH:</td>
<td>SOCIAL STRUCTURE:</td>
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<td>- Increased life expectancy after WWII</td>
<td>- Increase in the welfare state throughout century</td>
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<td>- Leaner healthier lifestyle after 1970</td>
<td>- Large increase in middle-class after WWII</td>
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<td>- Fewer class distinctions after WWII</td>
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<td>- Aristocracy loses ground economically after WWII</td>
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<td>- Increase in white-collar jobs</td>
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### STUDY GUIDE: EUROPEAN HISTORY BY THE CENTURIES

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## 19th and 20th CENTURIES

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RISE OF CONSTITUTIONALISM AND LIBERALISM

**RENAISSANCE**
- Humanism
- Secularism

**SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION**
- Copernicus, Kepler, Galileo
- Bacon: inductive method -- empiricism
- Descartes: deductive method
- Newton

**ENLIGHTENMENT**
- Locke: natural rights
- Diderot: *encyclopedia*
- *philosophes*: Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau
- Classical liberalism

**LIBERALISM IN 19TH CENTURY**
- Utilitarianism: Jeremy Bentham & John Stuart Mill
- Chartist movement in England; suffrage gains in Great Britain: 1832, 1867, 1884
- Revolutions of 1830 and 1848
- Liberal Empire: France (1852-1871); universal male suffrage
- Age of Mass Politics in late-19th century: France, Great Britain, Germany
- Emancipation of serfs in Russia: Alexander II
- Socialist movement: seeks to extend certain aspects of liberalism (suffrage) to working class

**DEMOCRACY IN 20TH CENTURY** (and rise and fall of Communism)
- Germany: Weimar Republic -- Federal Republic of Germany -- unified Germany
- France: Third Republic, Fourth Republic, Fifth Republic
- United Nations
- Revolutions of 1989 and fall of Soviet Union
- European Union (EU)
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT STUDY GUIDE

Renaissance (Increased Trade)
Italian merchants – “commenda” (esp. northern Italy)

Exploration (16th c.)
“Old Imperialism”
“Golden Age of Spain”

Commercial Revolution (1500-1700 c.)
Banking (Fuggers) & Antwerp (16th c.)
Golden Age of Netherlands (1600-1650)
England in late-16th c. and 17th c.
Enclosure; “Putting-out” Industry

Colonial Conflicts (17th & 18th c.)
late 17th c: Anglo-Dutch Wars
18th c.: War of Spanish Succession: asiento
War of Austrian Succession
7 Years War, Treaty of Paris, 1763

Mercantilism & Capitalism (17th –18th c.)
Louis XIV: Colbert rise of bourgeoisie
Navigation Laws joint-stock companies
Chartered companies Adam Smith (18th c.)
Laissez faire

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Scientific Revolution: 17th c.

Agricultural Revolution (18th c.) – begins in Low Countries
Enclosure
Crop Rotation: Townshend
Heavy manuring
seed drill: Jethro Tull
drainage
better livestock

Population Growth after 1750
Less famine, disease, and destructive war

Cottage Industry (18th c.)
“Putting-out” Industry

Industrial Revolution (1780-1850)
Textiles
Coal: steam powered factories
Iron: heavy machinery and railroads
Railroads: transportation revolution

2nd Industrial Revolution (after 1865)
Steel: railroads, heavy industry, construction
By 1900: 1) U.S. 2) Gr 3) Br 4) Russia
Oil: internal combustible engine—factories
Electricity: lighting, mass transit, power
Chemicals: dyes, photo processing (Germany)

Urbanization:
Socialism
Public health movement – Chadwick
Urban planning – Haussmann

New Imperialism (late 19th, early 20th c.)
“Social Darwinism”; “White Man’s Burden”
China (& Japan), Egypt
Africa: Berlin Conference, 1884-85

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WOMEN IN EUROPEAN HISTORY

I. Renaissance:
   A. Wealthy women
      o Querelles des Femmes (“The Problem of Women”) – new debate emerged over women’s nature and their proper role in society (starting with Christine de Pisan’s City of Ladies in the 14th century); the debate continued for six hundred years.
      o Increased access to education
      o Lost some status compared to Middle Ages; women were to be “ornaments” to their husbands (according to Castiglione)
      o Important Renaissance noblewomen at court in education and culture
      o Christine de Pisan (c.1363-c.1434): The City of Ladies; The Book of Three Virtues
         ▪ Chronicled accomplishments of great women of history.
         ▪ Renaissance woman’s survival manual.
         ▪ She was perhaps Europe’s first feminist
      o Isabella d’Este (1474-1539): “First Lady” of the Renaissance
         ▪ Set an example for women to break away from their traditional roles as mere ornaments to their husbands
         ▪ Ruled Mantua after her husband died; extremely well educated
         ▪ Big patron of the arts
         ▪ Founded a school for young women
         ▪ Wrote over 2000 letters that provide a window into politics & courtly life
      o Artemesia Gentileschi (1593-1651/3) (considered a Baroque painter)
         ▪ Perhaps the first female artist to gain recognition in the post-Renaissance era.
         ▪ First woman to paint historical and religious scenes: e.g. her “Judith” paintings
         ▪ Female artists at this time were consigned to portrait painting and imitative poses
   B. Women in general
      o Status did not change much compared to Middle Ages
      o Marriage
         ▪ European Family Pattern:
            ▪ Nuclear family (poor people tended to be unable to support extended families)
            ▪ Wealthier people (and some landowning peasants) often had extended families
         ▪ Based on economic considerations; not love
         ▪ Dowries were extremely important in wealthy families.
         ▪ Women tended to play a more significant role in the economy in Northern Europe.
         ▪ Average age for women: < 20 (for men it was mid-late 20s)
            ▪ Class issues: rich tend to marry earlier than middle classes, and poor tend to marry later too, or not to marry at all.
            ▪ In Italy, the age gap between husbands and wives was much larger than in Northern Europe
         ▪ Increased infanticide and abandonment (among the poor)
            ▪ Increase of foundling hospitals (2/3 of abandoned babies were girls)
         ▪ Low rate of illegitimate births
         ▪ Dramatic population growth until 1650
o Divorce available in certain areas (Protestant countries) compared to Middle Ages when divorce was non-existent
o Women were to make themselves pleasing to the man (Castiglione)—only upper classes
o Sexual double-standard: women were to remain chaste until marriage; men were permitted to “sow their wild oats.”
o More prostitution than in the Middle Ages
o Rape was not considered a serious crime

C. Important Female Rulers
- Caterina Sforza
- Isabella I
- Mary Tudor
- Elizabeth I
- Catherine de Mèdicis

D. Persecution of witches
- 70,000-100,000 people killed between 1400 and 1700
- Causes
  - Popular belief in magic
    - “Cunning folk” had been common in European villages for centuries: played a positive role in helping villagers deal with tragedies such as plagues, famines, physical disabilities, and impotence.
    - Claims to power often by the elderly or impoverished, and especially women
  - The Catholic Church claimed that powers came from either God or the Devil
    - Used witch hunts to gain control over village life in rural areas.
  - Women seen as “weaker vessels” and prone to temptation: constituted 80% of victims
    - Most between age 45 and 60; unmarried
    - Misogyny (hatred of women) may have played a role as Europe was a highly patriarchal society
  - Most midwives were women; if babies died in childbirth midwives could be blamed
  - Religious wars and divisions created a panic environment; scapegoating of “witches” ensued
    - Leaders tried to gain loyalty of their people; appeared to be protecting them
- End of witch hunts
  - Scientific Revolution of the 16th and 17th centuries increasingly discredited superstition
  - Advances in medicine and the advent of insurance companies enabled people to better take care of themselves when calamities struck.
  - Witch trials had become chaotic; accusers could become the accused (thus, using witch trials for political gain could be very risky)
  - Protestant Reformation emphasized God as the only spiritual force in the universe.
    - Yet, witch trials did occur in great numbers in Protestant countries as well
  - Some literature of the 16th & 17th century implied that people had a large degree of control over their own lives and did not need to rely on superstition.
Joan Kelly: “Did Women Have a Renaissance?” (1977)
- Middle-class women especially suffered a marked decline in their status along with that of noble women during the Italian Renaissance
- Middle class women were exclusively relegated to the private sphere while men monopolized political and economic issues in the public sphere.
- Sexual chastity was essential for both women of the nobility and the bourgeoisie; a double-standard existed as chastity was not expected of men
- Medieval feudalism permitted homage to female vassals but in Renaissance Italy feudalism came to be replaced by powerful city-states. Thus, the political power of women in many cases vanished.
  - Noble women thus experienced a state of almost universal dependence on her family and husband
- Non-military education by tutors for young noblemen (and women) had often been done by females in the Middle Ages. During the Renaissance female tutors were replaced with male humanistic tutors or boarding schools (that emphasized patriarchal and misogynous bias), thus reducing the educational influence of women.

II. Reformation:
A. Protestant women: occupation was in the home taking care of the family
  - Protestant churches had greater official control over marriage
    - Suppressed common law marriages
    - Catholic governments followed suit
  - Marriage became more companionate, Luther and Katerina von Bora were a good example of the husband/helpmate model.
  - Increased women’s literacy became valued because women needed to be able to read the Bible and teach their children.
  - Lost some opportunities in church service that Catholic women enjoyed
  - Luther wrote that sex was an act to be enjoyed by a husband and wife
B. Catholic women:
  - Women continued to enjoy opportunities in the Church in religious orders
    - Teresa de Avila, Carmelite Order
    - Angela Merici, Ursuline Order

III. 18th Century (and Industrial Revolution)
A. Agricultural Revolution
  - Enclosure movements significantly altered peasant life
    - Women had fewer opportunities to make profits off of work on common lands
    - Women increasingly worked away from home in the towns or cities
      - Most work was domestic
      - Many became prostitutes
      - Social consequences of working away from home: more autonomy, the ability to save money for own dowries, slightly more choice in marriage partners, but less communal protection from economic and sexual exploitation
  - Growth of cottage industry
    - Some young women stayed home to work in the cottage industry
    - Young women became increasingly difficult for peasant families to feed due to the loss of common lands
      - Young women were sometimes sent away to work
B. Industrial Revolution
   o Large numbers of women work in factories in late 18th-century England
   o Family wage economy: Families often work together (especially women & children)
     • Declined somewhat after Factory Act of 1833 put limits on child labor
C. Marriage
   • Based more on romance as the Enlightenment moved into the Modern Era
   o Average age for marriage was late 20s or later
   o Many women didn’t marry (“spinsters”); a large population of unmarried middle class women was a new phenomenon.
   • Protestant women were still expected to manage the home
   • Catholic women still had self-development options in the religious orders
   • Views on child care: “spare the rod, spoil the child” (Daniel Defoe)
   • Families became smaller, children lived longer, and people invested more love and economic resources in their children as time went on.
D. Explosion in illegitimate births
   • Increased infanticide
   • Foundling hospitals were created in response
E. Decrease in witch hunts
   • New scientific ideas about physical evidence undermined superstition.
   • Decline of political power of the Roman Catholic Church.
F. Decline in women’s opportunities as midwives, increased professionalization of medicine.
G. Important Female Rulers:
   • Catherine the Great
   • Maria Theresa

IV. Women in the Enlightenment:
A. Science: Emilie du Chatelet (Voltaire’s mistress) translated Newton’s *Principia*
B. Salons
   o Madame de Geoffren: patronized Diderot’s *Encyclopedia*
   o Madame Louise de Warens: major patron of Rousseau
   o Madame Germaine de Staël: brought German romanticism into France
   o Madame Roland: participated politically in the French Revolution
C. Arts
   o Elizabeth Vigee-Lebrun
D. Generally, Enlightenment ideology didn’t support female equality; even the most radical leaders of the French Revolution repressed them.

V. Women in the French Revolution:
A. Bread riots
B. March on Versailles
C. Olympe de Gouges: *The Rights of Woman* (1791)
D. Mary Wollstonecraft: *Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792)
E. Participation with the *sans culottes* (Society of Revolutionary Republican Women)
F. Closing of women’s political clubs by the National Convention
   • French Revolutionary leaders identified women with the debauchery and the effete style of the “old regime” and therefore sought to keep women out of public life.
G. Charlotte Corday: important figure in the Girondins; assassinated Marat

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H. Salons during the revolution (e.g. Roland, Girondins)
I. Victims of Reign of Terror: De Gouges, Roland
J. Napoleonic France:
   o Civil Code reasserted Old Regime’s patriarchal system
     ■ Women were viewed as legal incompetents
   o Women gained few rights (except inheritance rights); which led to increased use of birth control and smaller families.
K. Compare role of women in the French Revolution with role of women in the Russian Revolution
   o Ideals
   o What rights and privileges did they ultimately receive?

IV. 19th Century:
A. Industrial Revolution
   o Working class injustices, gender exploitation and standard-of-living issues became the 19th century’s great social and political dilemmas
   o Family structure: productive work taken out of the home to the factory
   o Gender issues: women’s work was now seen as less valuable; increasingly associated with domestic duties.
   o Working men were separated from wives and children: leaving home to go work or working in different factory
B. Marriage and Family
   o Ideal of romantic love becomes important
   o Fewer children per family; more love toward children
   o Middle class more included to consider economic reasons
     ■ Many men married late
     ■ Women were closely monitored
     ■ Sexual double-standard existed
   o Rate of illegitimacy declined after 1850 in the working classes
   o Prostitution were sought by middle- and upper-middle-class men
   o Freud: early childhood is vital
   o Lower class children were less dependent on parents financially than middle class children
C. Status of Women
   o After 1850, increasingly separate spheres: men worked in factories; women stayed at home
   o Protective legislation drove women out of certain kinds of employment. As the century progressed more jobs were “gendered” and in jobs defined as “women’s work” wages went down, for instance in teaching and office work.
   o Ideology of domesticity
     ■ Reinforced in home schooling or church schools
     ■ Victorian ideal
   o By late-19th century, women worked outside the home only in poor families
   o Middle class women began working to organize and expand their rights
   o Marxist view of women
     ■ Argued that women were doubly oppressed, both by capitalist society and also by men
D. Romanticism: George Sand (Amandine Aurore Lucie Dupin)
E. Realism: George Eliot (Mary Ann Evans)
F. Women played a major role in social reforms in the mid- late-nineteenth century
   - Catholic orders organized schools and hospitals
   - Temperance of alcohol
   - Increase of female teachers in late-19th century (e.g. preschool education)
   - Trend toward gendering certain occupations that had the effect of kicking men out and also making the wages lower.

G. Pacifism: Bertha von Süttner’s *Lay Down Your Arms* (1889)

V. Women’s Rights
   A. Sought increased legal rights
      - Women gained legal right to wages and property ownership
      - Right to work without husband’s permission
      - Many educated women worked in white-collar jobs
      - Legalization of divorce in some countries (e.g. France)
      - Gov’t subsidies to needy mothers (e.g. Britain in 1913)

   B. Female Suffrage
      - Finland was the first country to grant female suffrage (1906)
      - Other countries by 1920: Norway, Denmark, Iceland, Netherlands, Russia, Czechoslovakia, Britain, Germany, Austria
         ▪ Largely the result of women’s participation during WWI

   C. England
      - John Stuart Mill, *The Subjection of Women* (1869)
      - Suffrage was predominantly a middle-class movement
      - Rise of professional suffrage associations
      - Millicent Garrett Fawcett: moderate feminist who campaigned first for increased higher education opportunities for women, and later, female suffrage as leader of the NUWSS
      - Emmeline Pankhurst (Women’s Social and Political Union)
         ▪ Militant tactics: violence, bombings, destruction of property, picketing Parliament
      - Women’s participation in WWI boosted support for female suffrage
      - Representation of the People Act 1918, suffrage for females age 30 and over
      - Representation of the People Act 1928, suffrage for females age 21 and over

VI. 20th Century:
   A. Russia
      - Equality after the Russian Revolution (in theory)
         ▪ Voting rights
         ▪ Equal access to education
         ▪ Job opportunities
         ▪ No sexual double standard; increased abortion
      - Compare role of women in Russian Revolution to role of women in the French Revolution
      - Compare status of women in the Soviet Union with the status of women in Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany

   B. Women make huge contributions to the war effort during WWI and WWII

   C. Traditional and oppressed role in Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany
      - Women encourage to have many children for the benefit of the state
      - Women denied access to high-paying job opportunities

   D. Post-WWI, several countries (not just fascist countries) passed repressive legislation against women in reproductive freedom and employment opportunities. This was due to the
unemployment that followed the war combined with the huge death rate and over-supply of women and under-supply of babies.

E. Post-WWII
   o Baby boom after World War II
   o Middle class children less economically dependent on parents
   o Women remained in the work force in larger numbers

F. Women’s Rights Movement and Feminism
   o Simone de Beauvoir, *The Second Sex*, 1949
   o Betty Friedan, *The Feminine Mystique*, 1963
   o 1965, end to ban on birth control in France
   o Protest marches in favor of abortion rights and decriminalization of homosexuality
   o Some feminists rejected “feminine” conventions such as bras, cosmetics and high heels.
   o Demands for equal pay for equal work
   o Italy in 1970s, women gained divorce rights, access to birth control information and abortion rights
   o Starting in the 1960’s, sharp drop in the birth rate. Native-born European women begin having fewer children, later in life

RUSSIA
→Russia/Muscovy
- Mongols from Asia took control of Russia in 13th century and a left legacy of ruthless rule
- Muscovy
  o Ivan III “Ivan the Great” (1442-1505)
    ▪ Ended Mongol domination of Muscovy
    ▪ Established himself as hereditary ruler of Muscovy
    ▪ Saw Moscow as the “Third Rome”: Assumed leadership of Orthodox Christian Church
    ▪ Ivan reduced power of the Russian nobles (boyars) in return for granting them more power over the serfs
- Ivan IV “Ivan the Terrible” (1533-1584), first to take title “tsar”
  o Conquered Baltic, Far East, and Black Sea region
  o Began westernizing: encouraged trade with England and the Netherlands
  o Peasants fled oppressive rule: became “Cossacks”; led to more severe serfdom by gov’t edict
  o “Time of Troubles”, 1584: period of chaos after Ivan’s death
- Romanov Dynasty (1613-1917)
  o Michael Romanov (1613-1645)
    ▪ Created a Russian empire across Asia to the Pacific (largest nation by 1689)
  o “Old Believers” (The Raskolniki): resisted westernization, severely persecuted.
→Peter the Great (1682-1725)
  o 1698, put down revolt by strelski (Moscow Guards), thus securing his reign
  o Military spending dominated his budget (75% by 1725)
    ▪ Standing army had over 200,000 men; additional 100,000 Cossacks and foreigners
    ▪ Each Russian village required send recruits to the army; 25-year enlistments
    ▪ Royal military and artillery academies were established
    ▪ Built large navy on the Baltic (though it declined after his death)
    ▪ Non-nobles were able to rise up the ranks
  o Great Northern War (1700-1721)
Russia defeated Sweden and gained Baltic states, Russia’s “window to the West”
- Promoted **westernization** (modernization): mostly for military purposes
  - Imported large numbers of western technicians and craftsmen to build large factories
  - By 1725, Russia out-produced England in iron production (but not Germany or Sweden)
    - Industrial serfdom existed where workers could be bought or sold
    - State-regulated monopolies were created (modeled after mercantilist France)
      - This actually stifled economic growth
      - Industrial serfs created inferior products
- Government became more efficient
  - Tsar ruled by decree (example of absolute power) but explained his decrees to gain more popular support
  - **Table of Ranks:** educational training for new civil service (mostly of nobles)
    - Peter sought to replace old Boyar nobility with a new service-based nobility loyal to the tsar.
  - Russian secret police ruthlessly crushed opponents
  - Heavily taxed trade, sales, and placed a head tax on each male
  - Turned Russian Orthodox Church into a gov’t department in 1700
- **St. Petersburg** begun in 1703 on Baltic; largest city in Northern Europe by his death.
  - Sought to create a city like Amsterdam
  - “Winter Palace” sought to emulate Versailles.
  - Became new capital of Russia
  - Peter ordered noble families, merchants, artisans and peasants to move to the city

→ **Catherine II of Russia** r. 1762-1798) “Catherine the Great”
- Least “enlightened” of the Enlightened Despots, although one of greatest rulers in Euro history
- Westernization: architecture, sculpture, music—supported the *philosophes*
- Reforms:
  - Reduced torture
  - Allowed some limited religious toleration (Jews granted civil equality)
  - Some educational improvement; more books published during her reign
  - Increased local control
- **Pugachev Rebellion** (1773): largest peasant uprising in Russian history:
  - Catherine gained support from nobility by granting greater control over serfs: high point for nobles—low point for serfs
- Nobility was the only class that benefited from Catherine’s policies
- Territorial expansion
  - Annexed Polish territory: **3 partitions of Poland** in 1772, 1793, and 1795
  - Gained Ottoman land in the Crimea (controlled by Tartars)
  - Began conquest of Caucasus
  - In 17th century, effectiveness of Russian monarchs limited by vast Russian territories

→ **Concert of Europe:** lasted from 1815 until the Crimean War of the 1850s
- Sought to guarantee the enforcement of the status quo as defined by the Vienna settlement.
- **Quadruple Alliance:** Prussia, England, Austria and Russia (“PEAR”)
  - Provided for concerted action to arrest any threat to the peace or balance of power.
- “Holy Alliance” – proposed by Alexander I in 1815: proposed for all monarchs to sign a statement agreeing to uphold Christian principles of charity and peace; plan was impractical
and few took it seriously
  o Liberals saw it as a sort of unholy alliance of monarchies against liberty and progress.

- **Russia: Decembrist Uprising, 1825**
  o Alexander I’s death led to a power vacuum
  o Decembrists (junior military officers): upper-class opponents of the autocratic Russian system of gov’t
    ▪ Supported popular grievances among Russian society.
    ▪ First upper-class revolt against Russia’s autocratic system of government
    ▪ Sought to prevent Nicholas I’s assumption of the throne
    ▪ Revolt eventually suppressed by Nicholas I
  o Nicholas I became Europe’s most reactionary monarch
    ▪ Russia became a police state with censorship, a secret police, and state-sponsored terrorism
    ▪ No representative assemblies.
    ▪ Education was limited and university curricula were carefully monitored.
    ▪ Resulted in severe alienation of Russian intellectuals
      ▪ **Slavophiles** believed that Russian village (the *mir*) culture was superior to that of the West.
      ▪ **Westernizers** wanted to extend the “genius of Russian culture” by industrializing and setting up a constitutional gov’t.

**Crimean War** (1855-56)

- **Failure of the Concert of Europe**
  o System undermined by failure of the powers to cooperate during the revolutions of 1848-49.
  o Between 1848 and 1878, peace in Europe was interrupted by the Crimean War and the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78.

- **Causes of Crimean War**
  o Dispute between two groups of Christians over privileges in the Holy Land (Palestine)
    ▪ Czar Nicholas I ordered Russian troops to occupy several Turkish provinces in the Danube region
      ▪ Russia would withdraw once Turks had guaranteed rights for Orthodox Christians
    ▪ Turks declared war on Russia in 1853 when Nicholas refused to withdraw
    ▪ 1854, Britain & France declared war against Russia (surprise! Turks were not Christians)
  o Most of the war was fought on the Crimean peninsula in the Black Sea region
    ▪ **Florence Nightingale**: famous for superb nursing (more men died of disease than combat)
  o Peace of Paris: Russia emerged as the big loser in the conflict and had to return all occupied territories back to the Ottoman Empire.
  o Defeat in Crimean War marked a turning point in Russian history by fostering modernization

**Alexander II** (1855-1881): perhaps most liberal ruler in Russian history prior to 20th century.
  o Agricultural problems: 90% of Russian people lived on farm land, most as serfs
    ▪ Serfdom had led to peasant uprisings, poor agricultural output, and exploitation of serfs
      ▪ Serfs could be bought or sold with or without land in early 19th century
      ▪ Serfs could be conscripted into the army for 25 years.
  o **Emancipation Act** (or Emancipation Edict), 1861
Abolished serfdom: peasants no longer dependent on the lord; free to move and change occupations; could enter contracts and own property

Most Russians not impacted by the Emancipation Edict (lived in *mir*):

- *mir*: most Russians lived in communes which were highly regulated
  - Collective ownership and responsibility made it difficult for individual peasants to improve agricultural methods or leave their villages

*Zemstvos* established in 1864: assemblies that administered local areas

- Significant step towards popular participation
- Yet, Lords controlled *Zemstvos* having more power than towns and peasant villages

Other reforms: judiciary improved, censorship relaxed (but not removed), education liberalized

Industrialization in Russia stimulated by railroad construction

- Russia had fallen behind major industrialized nations in Western & Central Europe
- Russia needed better railroads, better armaments and reorganization of the army
- Between 1860 and 1900 construction of railroads was phenomenal
  - Railroads enabled Russia to export grain and earn profits for further industrialization
  - Stimulated domestic manufacturing: industrial suburbs grew up around Moscow and St. Petersburg, and a class of modern factory workers began to emerge
- Strengthened Russia’s military giving rise to territorial expansion to the south and east

**Count S. Y. Witte** oversaw industrialization in the 1890s

- Aggressively courted western capital & advanced technology to build great factories
- Resulted in rise of a small Russian middle-class (far smaller than western Europe)
- By 1900, Russia 4th in steel production (behind U.S., Germany & Britain)
- By 1900, Russia exported half the world’s refined petroleum
- Industrialization contributed to spread of Marxist thought and the transformation of the Russian revolutionary movement after 1890 (as industrial workers felt exploited)
- Despite economic and social reforms, economic problems still staggering by 1900
  - Situation aggravated by Russo-Japanese War of 1905

Critics of Alexander II late in his reign

- Alexander increasingly turned to more traditional (conservative) values (realism in Russia replaced romanticism)
- Radical populist movement emerged that sought a utopian agrarian order
- *Intelligensia*: hostile group of intellectuals who believed they should eventually take over society
- *nihilism*: intellectuals who believed in nothing but science and that the social order should be completely wiped out and built up from scratch.

Alexander II assassinated in 1881 by anarchists who bombed his carriage in St. Petersburg

**Alexander III** (1881-1894)

- Became most reactionary czar of the 19th century:
  - *Autocracy, Orthodoxy, and Russification* (nationalism)
  - Encouraged anti-semitism: *pogroms* resulted in severe persecution of Jews (many emigrated)
  - *Theodore Herzl*: *zionism* -- advocated a Jewish homeland in the Holy Land
Nicholas II (r. 1894-1917)

Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905)
- Russians had established a sphere of influence in Manchuria and now sought Korea
- Humiliating defeat of Russian fleet by Japan and bloody war on land resulted in Russia turning away from east Asia and focusing instead on the Balkans

Revolution of 1905
- Poor economy and strains of war led peasants and middle class to demand reforms.
- A general strike, peasant revolts and troop mutinies paralyzed Russia by October and the czar was forced to make concessions.
- Duma: Assembly created that would serve as an advisory body to the czar
  - Granted freedom of speech, assembly and press
  - Tsar retained absolute veto
  - Revolutionaries were divided thus resulting in Duma having no real influence
  - Propertied classes benefited at expense of workers, peasants and national minorities
- After 1911, czar's court increasingly dominated by the mad holy man, Gregorii Rasputin, resulting in widespread doubts about the czar's ability to lead.

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION (For long-term causes, see pp. 83-84)

Nicholas II (1868-1918), last of the Romanov dynasty; Russia in a perpetual state of crisis
- Russo-Japanese war, Revolution of 1905, staggering economic problems

Birth of socialism in Russia:
- 1898--Social Democratic Worker's party founded in Minsk with Lenin as leader; Lenin exiled
  - Lenin became the heir to Marx in socialist thought
- 3 basic ideas central to Lenin’s philosophy.
  - Capitalism could be destroyed only by violent revolution; he denounced revisionism
  - Socialist revolution possible under certain conditions, even in relatively backward Russia.
    - Peasants were poor and thus potential revolutionaries.
  - Necessity of a highly disciplined workers’ party, strictly controlled by a dedicated elite of intellectuals and full-time revolutionaries (he differed from Marx in this regard).
- 1903, Social Democrats (Social Democratic Worker’s Party) split into two factions
  - Mensheviks (the "minority"): Wanted to await the evolution of capitalism and the proletariat; sought a more democratic party with mass membership.
  - Bolsheviks (the "majority"): Followed Lenin’s ideas

World War I became the major cause of the Russian Revolution
- Massive Russian casualties, food shortages

February Revolution overthrew the Czar and instituted the Provisional Government
- Revolution started by women rioting for bread in Petrograd; workers and soldiers joined in
- Duma responded by declaring a provisional gov’t on March 12, 1917.
- Provisional gov't wanted to continue the war; Soviets controlled the army
- Alexander Kerensky became leader of the Provisional Gov’t
  - Implemented liberal program: equality before the law; freedom of religion, speech, and assembly; right of unions to organize & strike; election of local officials; 8-hr work day
  - Rejected social revolution: doesn't confiscate large landholdings and give them to peasants
  - Provisional Gov't had to share power with Petrograd Soviet of Workers’ & Soldiers’ Deputies
Army Order #1: stripped officers of their authority and placed power in the hands of elected committees of common soldiers (soldiers afraid in the future they might be liable for treason against the czar)
- Led to collapse of army discipline; anarchy existed in Russia by summer of 1917
- Kerensky's refusal to end the war and prevent anarchy led to fall of the Provisional Gov't

October Revolution
- Rise of Vladimir I. Lenin
  - Germany arranged for Lenin to be transported back to Russia; hoped to get Russia out of war
  - "April Theses": Lenin rejected all cooperation with the “bourgeois” provisional gov’t
    - Called for a "Socialist revolution" and establishment of a Soviet republic
    - Nationalization of banks and landed estates
    - “All Power to the Soviets”; “All Land to the Peasants”

October Revolution resulted in a communist dictatorship
- Politburo formed to organize revolution: included Lenin, Trotsky, Stalin
- Leon Trotsky, leader of the Petrograd Soviet (and the Red Army), led Soviet overthrow and arrest of the provisional gov’t
- New elections: Bolshevik's lost (only 25% of vote) but overthrew new gov't with Red Army
  - Lenin: "Peace, Land, Bread"
  - Lenin gave land to peasants (although peasants already took it, like French Revolution)
  - Lenin gave direct control of individual factories to local workers’ committees.
  - Signed Treaty of Brest-Litovsk in March 1918 to take Russia out of WWI
  - These actions led to opposition to the Bolsheviks and the Russian Civil War

Russian Civil War
- Reds (Bolsheviks) vs “Whites” (included officers of old army, and 18 groups proclaiming themselves the real gov't of Russia--had no leader to unify them)
  - Allies sent troops to help "Whites" (in Murmansk and Siberia)
  - By 1921, the communists had defeated their opponents
    - Communists extremely well organized (Trotsky); Whites were poorly organized
- “war communism”: Bolsheviks mobilized the home front for the civil war
  - Earliest form of socialism in the Soviet Union
  - Applied "total war" concept to a civil war
  - Cheka: Secret police formed to hunt down and execute thousands of real or supposed opponents, such as the tsar and his family and other “class enemies.”
- Results of the Russian Revolution:
  - Costs: 15 million dead, economy ruined, international trade gone, millions of workers fled
  - Creation of world's first communist society: one of the monumental events of 20th century

Russia under Vladimir I. Lenin
- Lenin created a totalitarian society
- Marxist-Leninist philosophy
  - Theory of imperialism: imperialism is the highest form of capitalism (haves vs. have nots)
  - "New type of party": cadre of educated professional revolutionaries to serve development of political class consciousness & guidance of the "Dictatorship of Proletariat"
• **Comintern** (Third Communists International) --created in 1919  
  o Was to serve as the preliminary step towards the world wide victory of Communism  
  o Ruthless oppression: secret police (Cheka) liquidated about 250,000 opponents

• **War communism**: The socialization (nationalization) of all means of production & central planning of the economy  
  o First mass communist society in world history  
  o Purpose was to win the Russian Civil War  
  o Bolsheviks unwittingly destroyed the economy: mass starvation from crop failures, decrease in industrial output

• **Kronstadt Rebellion** (1921)  
  o Mutiny by previously pro-Bolshevik sailors in March at Kronstadt naval base had to be crushed with machine gun fire.  
  o Caused by impact of the economic disaster and social upheaval of the Russian Civil War.  
  o Major cause for Lenin instituting NEP

• **NEP – New Economic Policy**, 1921-28  
  o Sought to eliminate harsh aspects of War Communism: response to peasant revolts, military mutiny, and economic ruin  
  o Some Capitalist measures allowed (Lenin: “necessary step backwards”)  
    ▪ Gov’t not to seize surplus grain; peasants could sell grain on the open market  
    ▪ Small manufacturers allowed to run own businesses  
    ▪ Gov’t still in control of heavy industry, banks and railroads.  
  o Results: economy improved  
    ▪ Industry and agricultural output back to pre-WWI levels  
    ▪ Workers shorter hours/better conditions  
    ▪ Temporary relaxing of terror and censorship

• Russia renamed to **Soviet Union** in 1923 (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics -- USSR)

• Power struggle ensued after Lenin’s death in 1924: he left no chosen successor  
  o **Joseph Stalin** believed in "Socialism in one Country": first, Russia had to be strong  
    ▪ Establishment of a Socialist economy without the aid of the West  
  o **Leon Trotsky** believed in "permanent revolution": continuing a world revolution  
    ▪ Party leaders believed Trotsky was too idealistic; Russia first had to survive  
  o Stalin gained control in 1927 and had total control by 1929; Trotsky exiled  

⇒ **USSR under Stalin**  
  • Entire Politburo from Lenin's time was eventually purged leaving Stalin in absolute control.

• **The 5-year plans**  
  o 1st Five Year Plan, 1928; marked end of the NEP  
    ▪ Objectives:  
      ❖ Total industrial output to increase by 250%; steel by 300%; agriculture by 150%  
      ❖ 1/5 of peasants were scheduled to give up their private plots and join collective farms  
    ▪ Results: steel up 400% (now 2nd largest steel producer in Europe); oil up 300%; massive urbanization (25 million people moved to cities)  
    ▪ Costs: quality of goods suspect; standard of living did not rise  
  o **Collectivization** was the greatest of all costs  
    ▪ Purpose: bring peasantry under absolute control of the communist state  
    ▪ Consolidation of individual peasant farms into large, state-controlled enterprises.
• Results:
   Opposed by farmers as it placed them in a bound situation like the *mirs*.
   *Kulaks*, wealthiest peasants, offered greatest resistance to collectivization
    ➢ Stalin ordered party workers to "liquidate them as a class."
    ➢ 10 million dead due to collectivization (7 million in forced starvation in Ukraine)
   Agricultural output no greater than in 1913
   By 1933, 60% of peasant families were on collective farms; 93% by 1938
   Eventually, the state was assured of grain for bread for urban workers who were more important politically than the peasants.
   Collective farmers first had to meet grain quotas before feeding themselves.
• Religion was persecuted: Stalin hoped to turn churches into "museums of atheism"
• Benefits for workers:
  o Old-age pensions, free medical services, free education, and day-care centers for children
  o Education was key to improving one’s position: specialized skills and technical education.
• Women
  o Russian Revolution immediately proclaimed complete equality of rights for women.
  o In 1920s divorce and abortion made easily available.
  o Women urged to work outside the home and liberate themselves sexually.
  o Many women worked as professionals and in universities; men still monopolized best jobs
  o Women still expected to do household chores in off hours as Soviet men considered home and children women’s responsibility.
  o Rapid change and economic hardship led to many broken families.
• Great Terror (1934-38)
  o First directed against peasants after 1929, terror used increasingly on leading Communists, powerful administrators, and ordinary people, often for no apparent reason.
  o The "Great Terror" resulted in 8 million arrests
    ▪ Show trials used eradicate "enemies of the people" (usually ex-party members)
    ▪ Late 1930s, dozens of Old Bolsheviks tried and executed (Lenin’s closest followers)
    ▪ Purges: 40,000 army officers were expelled or liquidated (weakened USSR in WWII)
    ▪ Millions of citizens were killed, died in labor camps (gulags), or simply disappeared

➔ USSR under *Nikita Khrushchev* (1955-64)
• Power struggle emerged after Stalin died in 1953; Khrushchev emerged a few years later
  o Stalin’s heirs realized reforms were needed.
• de-Stalinization
  o XXth Party Congress, 1956: Khrushchev took startling initiative against hard-liners by denouncing Stalin’s crimes in a closed session.
  o Secret anti-Stalin speech most influential speech in Russia since Lenin’s April Theses, 1917
• Gosplan: Resources shifted from heavy industry and the military toward consumer goods and agriculture – Centralized Economic Planning
• Great ferment in the arts occurred (anti-Stalinist views tolerated)
  o Boris Pasternak (1890-1960) wrote *Dr. Zhivago* in 1956
  o Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn: *One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich* (1962)
    ▪ Portrays in grim detail life in Stalinist concentration camp (he had been a prisoner)
De-Stalinization resulted in communist reformers and the masses seeking greater liberty and national independence.
  o Poland: 1956, riots led to release of 9,000+ political prisoners and some political autonomy
  o **Hungarian Uprising, 1956**
    - Hungarian nationalists staged huge demonstrations demanding non-communist parties be legalized; turned into armed rebellion and spread throughout the country.
    - Hoped U.S. would come in and help achieve Hungarian independence
    - Soviet forces invaded Hungary and crushed the national democratic revolution.
    - Soviets installed firm communist rule
  o After Hungarian invasion, most eastern Europeans hoped for small domestic gains while obediently following USSR in foreign affairs.

**Cold War in the 1950s**
- **Korean War**: 1950-1953
  o 1950, communist North Korea (supported by Soviet resources) invaded South Korea
  o United Nations (led by U.S.) sent forces to push back communists
  o Result: cease-fire and border at 38th parallel restored; still in existence today
- Hydrogen bomb developed by U.S. in 1952 & USSR in 1953: world now had two **superpowers**
- **Warsaw Pact, 1955**: Collective security organization of eastern bloc nations to counter NATO.
- Relations between USSR and U.S. improved with ascension to power of **Nikita Khrushchev**
  o Khrushchev: “peaceful coexistence” with the West; sought to focus on Soviet economy
  o Austria: USSR agreed in 1955 to real independence for a neutral Austria
    - Resulted in significant reduction in cold war tensions between 1955 & 1957.
- Khrushchev sought to prove communism was superior to capitalism and the USSR would be the model communist state in the world
  o Khrushchev wooed new nations of Asia and Africa with aid, even if they weren’t communist.
- **Geneva Summit, 1955**: U.S., USSR, Britain, & France began discussions on European security
- **Sputnik, 1957**: A Russian satellite was sent into orbit on a rocket and was brought back safely to the USSR; scientifically, this was an unprecedented achievement.
  o Effectively began the “**space race**” with the U.S. as Americans were horrified that the Soviets had eclipsed U.S. technology in this area.

**Cold War in 1960s**
- **U-2 incident**: U.S. spy plane shot down over USSR, thus deteriorating U.S-USSR relations
- **Berlin Wall** built in 1961
  o 2 million East Germans escaped to West Berlin between 1949-1961; Soviets frustrated
  o Berlin Wall built instead of enforcing Soviet ultimatum to U.S. to leave West Berlin
- **Cuban Missile Crisis, 1962**
  o Cuba became a communist country in 1959 and an ally of the Soviet Union
  o Crisis became the closest USSR and US came to nuclear war
  o Khrushchev agreed to remove missiles in return for U.S. removing its missiles from Turkey and vowing not to invade Cuba in the future.
  o Crisis weakened Khrushchev and contributed to his downfall in 1964
• Fall of Khrushchev, 1964  
  o His cold war policies were erratic & ultimately unsuccessful (Berlin, Cuban Missile Crisis)  
  o Expensive space and armaments programs postponed any significant shift to consumer goods.  
  o Most important reason: agricultural projects backfired  
  o Resurgence of conservative Stalinists led to quiet removal of Khrushchev in October, 1964

➤ Soviet Union and Cold War under Leonid Brezhnev (General Secretary – 1964-1982)  
• Beginning in 1964, USSR began a period of stagnation and limited re-Stalinization  
• Massive arms buildup started in response to humiliation of Cuban Missile Crisis.  
• USSR avoided direct confrontation with the U.S.; in effect, new era of peaceful coexistence  
• “Prague Spring” and the Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia, 1968  
  o Due to Khrushchev’s reforms in USSR, 1960s brought modest liberalization and more consumer goods to eastern Europe  
  o 1968, Alexander Dubček elected new leader, replacing a long-time Stalinist  
    ▪ Ushered new period of thaw and rebirth: “Prague Spring”  
  o Czech reformers building “socialism with a human face” frightened hard-line communists.  
  o Soviet troops brutally invaded Czechoslovakia in August 1968.  
  o Czechoslovakia became one of most hard-line communist regimes well into 1980s.  
  o Brezhnev Doctrine: Soviet Union and its allies had right to intervene in any socialist country whenever they saw the need

• Détente  
  o U.S. president Richard Nixon tried to place Brandt’s eastern initiatives in a broader, American-led framework of reducing East-West tensions in early 1970s.  
    ▪ Feared Germany might become neutral and weaken NATO & U.S. influence in Europe  
    ▪ Nixon hoped to gain Soviet aid in pressuring North Vietnam into peace.  
  o Nixon visited Moscow, 1972: ushered in an era known as détente.  
    ▪ Sought to establish rules to govern the rivalry between US and USSR and China.  
  o SALT I: Brezhnev and Nixon signed treaty to reduce nuclear ballistic missiles  
  o Helsinki Conference, 1975  
    ▪ Final Act: Officially ended World War II by finally legitimizing the Soviet-dictated boundaries of Poland and other East European countries.  
    ▪ In return, Soviets guaranteed more liberal exchanges of people and information between East and West and the protection of certain basic “human rights” (though little improved)  
  o End of détente occurred with the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan  
    ▪ U.S. refused to ratify SALT II treaty (reducing nuclear armaments) and boycotted 1980 Olympics in Moscow  
    ▪ U.S. stopped shipments of grain and certain advanced technology to the Soviet Union.  
    ▪ France, Italy and especially West Germany argued that Soviet’s deplorable action should not be turned into an East-West confrontation.

➤ End of the Cold War  
• Mikhail Gorbachev assumed control of the Soviet Union in 1985 and sought reforms  
  o Perestroika: (“restructuring”): aimed to revive sagging Soviet economy by adopting many of the free-market practices of the West; by 1987 the program had clearly failed  
  o Glasnost: aimed to open Soviet society by introducing free speech and some political liberty, while ending party censorship; more successful than perestroika
• Gorbachev sought to reduce East-West tensions
  o Withdrew Soviet troops from Afghanistan
  o Encouraged reform movements in Poland and Hungary
  o Repudiated the Brezhnev Doctrine; pledged to respect political will of eastern Europeans.
  o **INF Treaty** signed by Gorbachev and Reagan in Dec. 1987
    ▪ All intermediate-range nuclear missiles in Europe were banned.

➤ **Revolutions of 1989**: end to communist control of eastern Europe
• Costs of maintaining satellite countries for USSR both politically and economically were too much of a burden for the Soviets to handle.
• **Poland**: Solidarity legalized again and free elections promised in June 1989
  o First non-communist leader elected in eastern Europe since the Stalin era
  o Triggered a wave of freedom in eastern Europe.
  o **Lech Walesa** became president in 1990 but Solidarity later broke up into factions
• **Hungary**: October 23, Hungarian leaders proclaimed an independent republic
• **Germany**: Berlin Wall came down in November; East German gov’t fell
  o German reunified in 1990
  o Soviets opposed unified Germany in NATO but eventually acquiesced when West Germany provided massive economic aid to Soviet Union.
• **Bulgaria**, Nov. 1989
• **Czechoslovakia** – the “**Velvet Revolution**”, Dec. 1989
  o **Vaclav Havel**, the dissident playwright, become president
• **Romania**, Dec. 1989
  o Communist dictator **Nicolai Ceausescu** overthrown and assassinated
  o Albania’s communist regime fell in 1990

➤ **Fall of the Soviet Union**
• Long-term causes:
  o Costs of protecting and maintaining its empire in eastern Europe were too high
  o Call for reforms from the burgeoning middle class became increasingly influential in the 1970s and 1980s.
  o General economic crisis in Europe during the 1970s (largely spurred by the oil crisis) laid the foundation for the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe in the late 1980s.
  o Nationalist resentment of the Soviet government grew among many of the Soviet republics, especially the Baltic republics of Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia, eventually leading to the empire’s downfall
  o The economy continued to lag since the 1960s
    ▪ Although Gorbachev’s *perestroika* policies sought to reform the economy, increased shortages of goods further frustrated the Russian people
• **Coup in Moscow**, 1991: communist hard-liners, frustrated by loss of Soviet power and prestige, attempted to overthrow Gorbachev
  o Coup failed when the Soviet military refused to crush popular resistance.
  o **Boris Yeltsin**, president of Russia, defied tanks and became a national hero.
  o The coup fatally weakened Gorbachev and spelled doom for the Soviet Union.
• Yeltsin and his liberal allies declared Russia independent and withdrew from the Soviet Union—all other 14 republics followed
December 25, 1991, Soviet Union dissolved into 15 separate republics

Post-1991 Challenges in Central and Eastern Europe

Russia’s struggles
- President Boris Yeltsin’s gov’t failed to significantly improve the Russian economy
- One of the biggest issues of the 1990s and early 2000s was the insurgency in the predominantly Muslim Russian republic of Chechnya
- Vladimir Putin succeeded Yeltsin in 2000 and began to centralize power

Eastern Europe
- Transition from a communist economy to a market economy proved difficult in the ‘90s
- Eventually, several eastern European countries joined NATO
  - 1999: Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary
  - 2004: Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Romania, Bulgaria
- In 2004, several eastern European countries joined the European Union (EU)
  - Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia
### MEMORY DEVICES

**Memory Device for the Catholic Reformation: SAINT PAUL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Society of Jesus</th>
<th>Pope Paul III</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buses reformed in Church practices</td>
<td>Anti-Protestant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of Prohibited Books</td>
<td>Ursuline Order of Nuns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No significant change in Church doctrine</td>
<td>Latin Vulgate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trent, Council of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Memory Device for Religious Wars: “30 FEDS”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>30 Years’ War</th>
<th>French Civil Wars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Civil War</td>
<td>Dutch Revolt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Armada</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Memory Device for Treaty of Westphalia: EF-CHIP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>End of Wars of Religion</th>
<th>France emerges as Europe’s most powerful country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Calvinism added to the Peace of Augsburg</td>
<td>Holy Roman Empire effectively destroyed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence for the Netherlands and Switzerland</td>
<td>Russia emerges as a great power</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Memory Device for Scientific Revolution:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cop</th>
<th>Copernicus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brahe</td>
<td>Brahe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kepler</td>
<td>Kepler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galileo</td>
<td>Galileo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacon</td>
<td>Bacon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descartes</td>
<td>Descartes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newton</td>
<td>Newton</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>