ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY

[Accredited with 'A+' Grade by NAAC (CGPA:3.64) in the Third Cycle and Graded as Category–I University by MHRD-UGC]

KARAIKUDI – 630 003

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

B.A. [History]
108 24



HISTORY OF EUROPE
(FROM 1453 TO 1789 A.D.)

II - Semester

ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY

[Accredited with 'A+' Grade by NAAC (CGPA:3.64) in the Third Cycle and Graded as Category–I University by MHRD-UGC]

(A State University Established by the Government of Tamil Nadu)

KARAIKUDI – 630 003

Directorate of Distance Education

B.A. [History]

II - Semester

108 24

HISTORY OF EUROPE (FROM 1453 TO 1789 A.D.)

Authors

Dr. Waseem Raja, *Associate Professor, Department of History, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh*
Units (1, 8, 11)

Dr. Nirja Sharma, *Assistant Professor, University of Delhi*
Units (2, 4,0-4.2, 4.4-4.8, 14.0-14.1, 14.3-14.9)

Aditi Sharma, *Academic Writer and Content Specialist*
Units (3, 4.3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14.2)

"The copyright shall be vested with Alagappa University"

All rights reserved. No part of this publication which is material protected by this copyright notice may be reproduced or transmitted or utilized or stored in any form or by any means now known or hereinafter invented, electronic, digital or mechanical, including photocopying, scanning, recording or by any information storage or retrieval system, without prior written permission from the Alagappa University, Karaikudi, Tamil Nadu.

Information contained in this book has been published by VIKAS® Publishing House Pvt. Ltd. and has been obtained by its Authors from sources believed to be reliable and are correct to the best of their knowledge. However, the Alagappa University, Publisher and its Authors shall in no event be liable for any errors, omissions or damages arising out of use of this information and specifically disclaim any implied warranties or merchantability or fitness for any particular use.



Vikas® is the registered trademark of Vikas® Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

VIKAS® PUBLISHING HOUSE PVT. LTD.
E-28, Sector-8, Noida - 201301 (UP)
Phone: 0120-4078900 • Fax: 0120-4078999
Regd. Office: 7361, Ravindra Mansion, Ram Nagar, New Delhi 110 055
• Website: www.vikaspublishing.com • Email: helpline@vikaspublishing.com

Work Order No. AU/DDE/DE1-291/Preparation and Printing of Course Materials/2018 Dated 19.11.2018 Copies - 500

SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

History of Europe (From 1453 to 1789 A.D.)

Syllabi	Mapping in Book
BLOCK - I: MARITIME AND DISCOVERIES OF THE 15TH AND 16TH CENTURIES	
Unit 1: Europe at the End of the Middle Ages. **Unit 2:** Renaissance in Europe - Resuslts - Maritime and Discoveries of the 15th and 16th Centuries. **Unit 3:** Indian Wars - Holy Roman Emperor - Charles V - Carrer and Achievements.	**Unit 1:** Fall of Constantinople **(Pages 1-21);** **Unit 2:** Renaissance in Europe and Maritime Discoveries **(Pages 22-36);** **Unit 3:** Indian Wars **(Pages 37-49)**
BLOCK - II: HOLY ROMAN EMPERORS AND REFORMATION	
Unit 4: The Reformation in Germany - Other Countries. **Unit 5:** The Counter Reformation - Effects - Philip II of Spain. **Unit 6:** Internal and Foreign Policies - Dutch War of Independence - Decline of Spain.	**Unit 4:** Reformation in Germany **(Pages 50-70);** **Unit 5:** Effects of Counter-Reformation **(Pages 71-78);** **Unit 6:** Policies of Philip II **(Pages 79-91)**
BLOCK - III: REFORMS OF HENRY IV AND LOUIS XIII	
Unit 7: France under Henry IV - Reforms. **Unit 8:** Louis XIII - The Thirty Year's War - Treatise of Westphalia. **Unit 9:** Rise of Russia - Peter, the Great - Catherine. **Unit 10:** II Partition of Poland - Russia's War.	**Unit 7:** France Under Henry IV **(Pages 92-97);** **Unit 8:** Thirty Years' War **(Pages 98-115);** **Unit 9:** The Rise of Russia **(Pages 116-125);** **Unit 10:** Partition of Poland **(Pages 126-134)**
BLOCK - IV: STATUS OF PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA IN THE PERIOD OF FRENCH REVOLUTION	
Unit 11: Turkey - Louis XIV - Domestic and Foreign Policies. **Unit 12:** Rise of Prissis - Frederick, The Great - His Wars - Maria Theresa. **Unit 13:** War of Australian Succession - Diplomatic Revolution. **Unit 14:** The Seven Years War - Joseph II of Austria - Louis XV and Lousi XVI - French Revolution - Causes - Courses and Results.	**Unit 11:** Absolutism of Louis XIV **(Pages 135-144);** **Unit 12:** Rise of Prussia: An Overview **(Pages 145-158);** **Unit 13:** War of Austrian Succession: An Overview **(Pages 159-165);** **Unit 14:** The Seven Years War and the French Revolution **(Pages 166-192)**

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

BLOCK I: MARITIME AND DISCOVERIES OF THE 15TH AND 16TH CENTURIES

UNIT 1 FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE **1-21**

1.0 Introduction
1.1 Objectives
1.2 Europe at the End of the Middle Ages
1.3 Impact of the Fall of Constantinople
1.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
1.5 Summary
1.6 Key Words
1.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
1.8 Further Readings

UNIT 2 RENAISSANCE IN EUROPE AND MARITIME DISCOVERIES **22-36**

2.0 Introduction
2.1 Objectives
2.2 Renaissance in Europe: An Introduction
2.3 Results and Maritime Discoveries
2.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
2.5 Summary
2.6 Key Words
2.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
2.8 Further Readings

UNIT 3 INDIAN WARS **37-49**

3.0 Introduction
3.1 Objectives
3.2 Indian Wars: An Introduction
3.3 Holy Roman Emperor
3.4 Charles V: Career and Achievements
3.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
3.6 Summary
3.7 Key Words
3.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
3.9 Further Readings

BLOCK II: HOLY ROMAN EMPERORS AND REFORMATION

UNIT 4 REFORMATION IN GERMANY **50-70**

4.0 Introduction
4.1 Objectives
4.2 The Reformation in Germany: An Overview
4.3 Other Countries
4.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
4.5 Summary

4.6 Key Words
4.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
4.8 Further Readings

UNIT 5 EFFECTS OF COUNTER-REFORMATION 71-78

5.0 Introduction
5.1 Objectives
5.2 Counter-Reformation
5.3 Effects of Counter-Reformation
5.4 Philip II of Spain
5.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
5.6 Summary
5.7 Key Words
5.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
5.9 Further Readings

UNIT 6 POLICIES OF PHILIP II 79-91

6.0 Introduction
6.1 Objectives
6.2 Internal and Foreign Policies during the Reign of Philip II of Spain
  6.2.1 Method of Internal Administration
  6.2.2 Foreign Policy of Philip II
6.3 Dutch War of Independence (1568-1648)
6.4 Decline of Spain
6.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
6.6 Summary
6.7 Key Words
6.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
6.9 Further Readings

BLOCK III: REFORMS OF HENRY IV AND LOUIS XIII

UNIT 7 FRANCE UNDER HENRY IV 92-97

7.0 Introduction
7.1 Objectives
7.2 Henry IV
7.3 Reforms in France under the Reign of Henry IV
7.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
7.5 Summary
7.6 Key Words
7.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
7.8 Further Readings

UNIT 8 THIRTY YEARS' WAR 98-115

8.0 Introduction
8.1 Objectives
8.2 Prelude to the Thirty Years' War
8.3 Phases of the Thirty Years' War
  8.3.1 The Bohemian Period (1618-23)
  8.3.2 The Danish Period (1624-29)
  8.3.3 The Swedish Period (1629-35)
  8.3.4 The French Period (1635-48)

8.4 Treatise of Westphalia
8.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
8.6 Summary
8.7 Key Words
8.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
8.9 Further Readings

UNIT 9 THE RISE OF RUSSIA **116-125**

9.0 Introduction
9.1 Objectives
9.2 The Rise of Russia: An Overview
9.3 Peter the Great (1672-1725)
9.4 Catherine the Great (1762-1796)
9.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
9.6 Summary
9.7 Key Words
9.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
9.9 Further Readings

UNIT 10 PARTITION OF POLAND **126-134**

10.0 Introduction
10.1 Objectives
10.2 Partition of Poland
10.3 Russia's War
10.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
10.5 Summary
10.6 Key Words
10.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
10.8 Further Readings

BLOCK IV: STATUS OF PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA IN THE PERIOD OF FRENCH REVOLUTION

UNIT 11 ABSOLUTISM OF LOUIS XIV **135-144**

11.0 Introduction
11.1 Objectives
11.2 Domestic and Foreign Policies of Louis XIV
11.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
11.4 Summary
11.5 Key Words
11.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
11.7 Further Readings

UNIT 12 RISE OF PRUSSIA: AN OVERVIEW **145-158**

12.0 Introduction
12.1 Objectives
12.2 Rise of Prussia
12.3 Frederick the Great and His Wars
12.4 Maria Theresa
12.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
12.6 Summary

12.7 Key Words
12.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
12.9 Further Readings

UNIT 13 WAR OF AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION: AN OVERVIEW 159-165

13.0 Introduction
13.1 Objectives
13.2 War of Austrian Succession
13.3 Diplomatic Revolution
13.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
13.5 Summary
13.6 Key Words
13.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
13.8 Further Readings

UNIT 14 THE SEVEN YEARS WAR AND THE FRENCH REVOLUTION 166-192

14.0 Introduction
14.1 Objectives
14.2 The Seven Years War
  14.2.1 Joseph II of Austria
14.3 Louis XV and Lousi XVI: Causes of the French Revolution
  14.3.1 Causes of the French Revolution
  14.3.2 Course of the Revolution
14.4 Results of the French Revolution
14.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
14.6 Summary
14.7 Key Words
14.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
14.9 Further Readings

INTRODUCTION

NOTES

The history of Europe from the 15th century to the 18th century can be considered to be the beginning of the modern age. During this time, many major events caused Europe to change around the turn of the 16th century, starting with the Fall of Constantinople in 1453, the fall of Muslim Spain and the discovery of the Americas in 1492, and Martin Luther's Protestant Reformation in 1517. In England, the Modern period is often dated to the start of the Tudor period, with the victory of Henry VII over Richard III at the Battle of Bosworth in 1485. The period was characterised by the rise to importance of science and increasingly rapid technological progress, secularised civic politics and the nation state.

The period spanned the Age of Reason and Age of Enlightenment in the 17th and 18th centuries, until the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in the late 18th century. This book, *History of Europe (From 1453 to 1789 A.D.)*, discusses the major events of the time period in detail, beginning with the Fall of Constantinople to the French Revolution.

This book has been designed keeping in mind the self-instruction mode (SIM) format and follows a simple pattern, wherein each unit of the book begins with the Introduction followed by the Objectives for the topic. The content is then presented in a simple and easy-to-understand manner, and is interspersed with Check Your Progress questions to reinforce the student's understanding of the topic. A list of Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit. The Summary and Key Words further act as useful tools for students and are meant for effective recapitulation of the text.

BLOCK - I
MARITIME AND DISCOVERIES OF THE 15TH AND 16TH CENTURIES

NOTES

UNIT 1 FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE

Structure

1.0 Introduction
1.1 Objectives
1.2 Europe at the End of the Middle Ages
1.3 Impact of the Fall of Constantinople
1.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
1.5 Summary
1.6 Key Words
1.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
1.8 Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The term *Modern* can mean all of post-medieval European history, in the context of dividing history into three large epochs: Antiquity, Medieval, and Modern. The Modern Era chronicles influential world events and developments since the 16th century to support research and analysis of global trends, causal relationships, and current conflicts. Modern history, or the modern era, describes the historical timeline after the Middle Ages. Modern history can be further broken down into the early modern period and the late modern period after the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution.

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

The term 'Renaissance' is a French word and means 'rebirth'. It was used to describe the cultural movement that began in Italy in the 14th century and spread

across Europe by the 16th and the 17th centuries. The movement was characterized by a revival of the classical sources in the sphere of learning. Linear perspective emerged in painting and there was reform in the educational system as well.

NOTES

1.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss about the Byzantine Empire and its culture
- Examine the impact of the fall Constantinople in 1453
- List the basic features of a feudal society
- Explain the reasons for the downfall of the Byzantine Empire
- Discuss the Byzantine religious practices

1.2 EUROPE AT THE END OF THE MIDDLE AGES

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

The Byzantine Empire and its Culture

Once dismissed by historian Gibbon as 'a tedious and uniform tale of weakness and misery,' the story of Byzantine civilization is today recognized as the most interesting and impressive one. It is true that the Byzantine Empire was in many respects not very innovative; it was also continually beset by grave external threats and internal weaknesses.

NOTES

Nonetheless, it managed to survive for a millennium. In fact, the empire did not just survive; it frequently prospered and greatly influenced the world around it. Among many other achievements, it helped preserve ancient Greek thought, created magnificent works of art, and brought the Christian culture to pagan people, above all the Slavs. Simply stated, it was one of the most enduring and influential empires the world has ever known.

It is impossible to date the beginning of Byzantine history with any precision because the Byzantine Empire was the uninterrupted successor of the Roman state. For this reason, different historians prefer different beginnings. Some argue that 'Byzantine' characteristics already emerged in Roman history as a result of the easternizing policy of Diocletian while others say that Byzantine history began when King Constantine moved his capital from Rome to Constantinople, the city which subsequently became the center of the Byzantine world. (The old name for the site on which Constantinople was built was Byzantium, from which we get the adjective Byzantine); it would be more accurate but cumbersome to say Constantinopolitine. Diocletian and Constantine, however, continued to rule a united Roman Empire.

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

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

Once Persia was subjugated, Heraclius ruled in relative peace till CE 641. However, in the last few years of his rule, new armies began invading the Byzantine territory, swarming out of hitherto placid Arabia. Interestingly during this period, the Arabs were becoming blusterous, taking advantage of the exhausted Byzantine power and inspired by the new religion of Islam. To establish themselves as the only Mediterranean power, the Arabs took to the sea. By CE 650, they had captured most of the Byzantine territories, which the Persians had occupied briefly

NOTES

in the early 7th century, conquered all of Persia, and were making inroads towards the west, across North Africa. This was possible as the Arab fleets secured bases along the coasts of Asia Minor and then proceeded to install a loose blockade around Constantinople. In CE 677, they attacked Constantinople, but failed. In CE 717, they made renewed attempt to conquer the city by means of a concerted land and sea operation.

The End of the Byzantine Empire

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

Over the next few decades, the Byzantines were able to reclaim most of its lost territories along Asia Minor. This region, along with Greece, became the seat of the Byzantine Empire for the next three hundred years. Thereafter, there was a truce between the Byzantines and the Islamic power until they were able to take the offensive against a decaying Islamic power in the second half of the 10th century. In that period—the greatest in Byzantine history—Byzantine troops recaptured most of Syria.

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

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

Despite this, in 1095, Byzantine emperor Alexius Comnenus sought help from the West against the Turks. This was a big mistake. His call ignited the desire among the Crusaders to attack the empire. During the first Crusade, the Westerners helped Byzantine win back Asia Minor, but they also carved out territories for themselves in Syria, which the Byzantines considered to be their own. With time

NOTES

frictions mounted and westerners viewed Constantinople as ideal for conquest. In 1204, they finally conquered it. Crusaders, who should have been intent on conquering Jerusalem conquered Constantinople instead and sacked the city with ruthless ferocity. By 1261, the Byzantine state was an empire in name and a reminiscent of past glories. After 1261, it eked out a reduced existence in parts of Greece until 1453, when powerful Turkish successors to the Seljuk Turks, the Ottomans, completed the Crusaders' work of destruction by conquering the last vestiges of the empire and taking Constantinople—now Istanbul.

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

Efficient bureaucratic government indeed was one of the major elements of Byzantine success and longevity. The Byzantines could count on having an adequate supply of manpower for their bureaucracy because Byzantine civilization preserved and encouraged the practice of education for the laity. This was one of the major differences between the Byzantine East and the early Latin West. Right from about 600 to about 1200 there was practically no literate laity in Western Christendom, while literacy in the Byzantine East was the basis of governmental accomplishment. Bureaucrats helped supervise education and religion and presided over all forms of economic endeavour. Urban officials in Constantinople, for example, regulated prices and wages, maintained systems of licensing, controlled exports, and enforced the observance of the Sabbath. What is more, they usually did this with comparative efficiency and did not stifle business initiative. Bureaucratic methods too helped regulate the army and navy, the courts, and the diplomatic service, endowing them with organizational strengths incomparable for their age.

Another explanation for Byzantine endurance was the comparatively sound economic base of the state until the 11th century. As historian, Sir Steven Runciman, said, 'If Byzantium owed her strength and security to the efficiency of her services, it was her trade that enabled her to pay for them.' While long-distance trade and urban life all but disappeared in the West for hundreds of years, commerce and cities continued to flourish in the Byzantine East. Above all, in the 9th and 10th centuries, Constantinople was a vital trade emporium for Far Eastern luxury goods and Western raw materials. The empire also nurtured and protected its own

NOTES

industries, most notably that of silk-making, and it was renowned until the 11th century for its stable gold and silver coinage. Among its urban centres was not only Constantinople, which at times may have had a population of close to a million, but also in certain periods Antioch, and up until the end of Byzantine history the bustling cities of Thessalonica and Trebizond.

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

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

Religious Practices

Byzantine religious dissensions were greatly complicated by the fact that the emperors took an active role in them. Because the emperors carried great power in the life of the Church—emperors were sometimes deemed by churchmen to be 'similar to God'—they exerted great influence in religious debates. Nonetheless, especially in the face of provincial separatism, rulers could never force all their subjects to believe what they did. Only after the loss of many eastern provinces

and the refinement of doctrinal formulae did religious peace seem near in the 8th century. But then it was shattered for another century by what is known as the Iconoclastic Controversy.

NOTES

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

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

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

Those were some consequences of Iconoclasm's temporary victory; a major consequence of its defeat was the reassertion of some major traits of Byzantine

NOTES

religiosity, which from the 9th century until the end of Byzantine history remained predominant. One of these was the re-emphasis of a faith in traditionalism. Even when Byzantines were experimenting with religious matters, they consistently stated that they were only restating or developing the implications of tradition.

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

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

Literature, Art and Architecture

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

Byzantine classicism was a product of an educational system for the laity which extended to the education of women as well as men. Given the attitudes and practices in the contemporary Christian West and Islam, Byzantine commitment to female education was truly unusual. Girls from aristocratic or prosperous families did not go to schools but were relatively well educated at home by private tutors.

NOTES

We are told, for example, of one Byzantine woman who could discourse like Plato or Pythagoras. The most famous Byzantine woman intellectual was the Princess Anna Comnena, who described the deeds of her father Alexius in an urbane biography in which she freely cited Homer and the ancient tragedians. In addition to such literary figures there were women doctors in the Byzantine Empire.

Byzantine achievements in the realms of architecture and art are more familiar. The finest example of Byzantine architecture was the Church of Santa Sophia (Holy Wisdom), built at enormous cost in the 6th century. Although built before the date taken here as the beginning of Byzantine history, it was typically Byzantine in both its style and subsequent influence. Though designed by architects of Hellenic descent, it was vastly different from any Greek temple. Its purpose was not to express human pride in the power of the individual, but to symbolize the inward and spiritual character of the Christian religion. For this reason the architects gave little attention to the external appearance of the building. Nothing but plain brick covered with plaster was used for the exterior walls; there were no marble facings, graceful columns, or sculptured entablatures. The interior, however, was decorated with richly coloured mosaics, gold leaf, coloured marble columns, and bits of tinted glass set on edge to refract the rays of sunlight after the fashion of sparkling gems. To emphasize a sense of the miraculous, the building was constructed in such a way that no light appeared to come from the outside at all but to be manufactured within.

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

As in architecture, so in art the Byzantines profoundly altered the earlier Greek classical style. Byzantines excelled in ivory carving, manuscript illumination, jewellery-making, and, above all, the creation of mosaics—that is, designs of pictures produced by fitting together small pieces of coloured glass or stone. Human figures in these mosaics were usually distorted and elongated in a very unclassical fashion to create the impression of intense piety or extreme majesty. Most Byzantine

NOTES

art is marked by highly abstract, formal, and jewel-like qualities. For this reason many consider Byzantine artistic culture to be a model of timeless perfection. Modern poet W. B. Yeats expressed this point of view most eloquently when he wrote in his *Sailing to Byzantium,* 'of artificial birds made by Byzantine goldsmiths . . . tosing / To lords and ladies of Byzantium / Of what is past, or passing, or to come.'

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

Check Your Progress

1. What was the main cause of Renaissance?
2. Define the term 'Renaissance'.

1.3 IMPACT OF THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE

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

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

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

The impact of the conquest of Byzantine would be greatly felt on the high seas also. Europe had began sea exploration searching for new routes where they would search for new colonies as well. By now, instead of trade taking place on

land, sea routes were being discovered. Vasco Da Gama, Columbus, Magellan and scores of others had set off for finding new sea routes and they not only found them but also found new continents.

NOTES

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

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

Decline of Feudalism

During the early Middle Ages, at the close of the 5th century, the tribes which invaded the Roman Empire seized a large part of its territory. Initially, the land was common property, but soon tribal chieftains began to acquire people's property and a monarchical form of government appeared. Large tracts of land came into the hands of the church, which now became a strong supporter of the monarchy. The kings distributed the land among their retinue, first for life, and later converted it to hereditary tenure. Those given land were obliged to render military services to the king. The land was, as earlier, cultivated by individual farmers known as serfs. The serfs were dependent on their new masters, who imposed manifold duties on them. The plots held on these conditions were called 'feuds' and their owners were called 'feudals', hence the name 'feudalism'. In these arrangements, there were also some elements surviving from the Roman period linked with the conversion to Christianity. The settled inhabitants of Western Europe and the invaders underwent a long and slow process of mutual adjustment leading to widely varying social and political combinations which is described as feudalism. Feudal institutions were the arrangements—personal, territorial, and governmental—that made survival possible under the new system that replaced the centralized Roman administration.

NOTES

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

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

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

The church also played a great role in shaping feudalism. The church hierarchy paralleled the feudal hierarchy. The church owned much land held by monasteries, church dignitaries and by the churches themselves. Most of this land, given by

nobles as a bequest or gift, carried feudal benefits. Thus, clerical land, like lay land, assumed a feudal aspect.

NOTES

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

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

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

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

In the economic interpretation, Marx and Marxists defined feudalism as a political and social order appropriate to natural economy, in which land is the main source of income and the only embodiment of wealth. In such a system, goods were acquired by barter, gifts or booty. The allegiance of the upper classes was secured by grants of land, and labour was extracted by extra-economic coercion rather than wage contract; hence the view of feudal villeinage and servility as by-

NOTES

products of a natural economy. Marx used the term 'feudalism' to describe a whole social order whose main feature was domination of the rest of the society, mainly peasants, by a military landowning aristocracy. The essence of the feudal mode of production in the Marxist sense is the exploitative relationship between landowners and subordinate peasants. In this, the surplus beyond subsistence of the peasant, whether in direct labour or in rent in kind or in money, is transferred under coercive sanction to the landowner. The feudal mode of production, according to Marx, was one in which the direct producer was not separated from the means of production. Thus, feudalism rests on a solid base of petty production. Since the dominant class, the nobility, did not perform any economic function production, the form of surplus appropriation was extra-economic or political. The basic characteristic of feudalism was the political domination of the peasant producers. Maurice Dobb defined feudalism as a system under which economic status and authority were associated with land tenure and the direct producer (who was himself the holder of some land) was under obligation, based on law or customary right, to devote a certain quota of his labour or his produce for the benefit of his feudal superior. Thus, as a system of socio-economic relations, it was virtually identical to that of serfdom but also included direct labour service and tribute or feudal rent in produce or money. Thus, serfdom is an essential condition of feudalism.

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

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

NOTES

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

Crises of the 14th and the 15th Centuries

As a consequence of the crisis of feudal rents, the lords tried to impose a variety of new obligations, thus transgressing the ideology of paternalism and protection by which feudal rents were legitimized in the first place. The late medieval rebellions were, thus directed not against the lordship itself, but against the abuse of lord's power. The causes of the crisis of feudalism, was purely coercive and extra economic nature of feudal benefits was exposed. Since the 13th century, with the growing monetization of social relations, the legitimation of feudal relationships in terms of military and political hierarchy of subordination was weakened. But it was only in the 14th and 15th centuries that the feudal ideology of paternalism was finally destroyed. One of the features of peasant rebellions was that they were marked by a 'negative class-consciousness'. Basically, these movements were not rebellions by the entire peasantry but were combinations of rich peasants voicing their protests against restrictions and the small marginal peasants protesting against the regulation of wages. These peasant movements included not just peasants but also various other groups that were essential for the functioning of the peasant society like artisans, small traders and wage labourers.

The social organization of agricultural production varied everywhere in Europe. In Western Europe, the demesne was the largest because denser population required the relative efficiency of larger units. In Central Europe, the effects of economic recession led to desertions of marginal land—Wustungen, and were due to enclosures as well as to abandonment. Further east, in Brandenburg and Poland where population density was thinner and where lords collectively owned much less land than peasants, the lords soon acquired all the lands deserted due to the sudden demographic collapse. This step would be very profitable to them in the 16th century. It altered the social structure of Eastern Europe and was also very important for the development of Western Europe. In England, the manor was the typical unit for organizing production. During the 13th century, demesne farming developed in a very big way. Labour services were also intensified and the difference between the free peasants and the dependent peasants, i.e., villeins, increased. With the depopulation of Europe and the subsequent rise in wages, production by wage labour became unprofitable. Since there was a vast decline in the prices of food grains, commercial production lost its profitability. There was

NOTES

severe decline in demesne cultivation by the landlords. Land was now leased out in family-sized units and not in big units. There was also a decline in labour services.

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

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

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

In Eastern Europe, the nobility solved the problem of declining rents by intensifying the labour services and in the 15th century the nobility increased its political power over the peasants in order to dominate them economically. In Eastern Europe, where the settlement was more recent, the village structure was also more homogeneous and conducive to control. In East Germany, during periods of depopulation, vacant land was appropriated by the lords and the peasantry was coerced into cultivating it as serfs. The nobles gave a subsidy to the state and were in turn granted rights to enslave the peasants. In this way, the area under the demesnes was expanded and labour obligations on the peasantry also increased.

From 15th century onwards, there was also a growth in the export of grain from Eastern Europe by the merchants of the Hanseatic League. The nobility increased demesne production and thus its share in this grain trade. The development of the state on the other hand, was linked to the nobility's attempt to find free access to the sea. In the Baltic region the expansion in agricultural exports and demesne production was also linked to the enserfment of the peasantry. In Lithuania, there was a scramble for land and peasants by the nobles. In Denmark, serfdom was linked to dairy products. In Russia, the development of serfdom was linked more to the demands of the internal market than to the export trade in grain. During the 16th and the17th centuries, there was a further intensification of the grain trade and the development of the 'second serfdom' which Engels talked of. The agrarian crisis of the 14th and 15th centuries thus, had different implications on different regions of Europe.

NOTES

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

Rise of Capitalism

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

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

NOTES

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

Check Your Progress

3. What do you understand by the concept of feudalism?
4. What was the basic characteristic of feudalism?

1.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The main cause of Renaissance was the fall of Constantinople.
2. The term 'Renaissance' is a French word and means 'rebirth'. It was used to describe the cultural movement that began in Italy in the 14th century and spread across Europe by the 16th and the 17th centuries.
3. Feudalism was a combination of legal and military customs in medieval Europe that flourished between the 9th and 15th centuries. Broadly defined, it was a way of structuring society around relationships derived from the holding of land in exchange for service or labour.
4. The basic characteristic of feudalism was the political domination of the peasant producers.

1.5 SUMMARY

- The term Modern can mean all of post-medieval European history, in the context of dividing history into three large epochs: Antiquity, Medieval, and Modern.
- The European society witnessed tremendous changes during the 15th and 16th century CE. The beginning of Renaissance developed enquiring spirit and scientific outlook among the Europeans.

NOTES

- The term 'Renaissance' is a French word and means 'rebirth'. It was used to describe the cultural movement that began in Italy in the 14th century and spread across Europe by the 16th and the 17th centuries.
- Justinian's reign was clearly an important turning point in the redirection of the Byzantine civilization because it saw the crystallization of new forms of thought and art that can be considered more 'Byzanthan Roman.'
- It is also convenient to begin in CE 610 because from then until 1071 the main lines of Byzantine military and political history were determined by resistance against successive waves of invasions from the East.
- Over the next few decades, the Byzantines were able to reclaim most of its lost territories along Asia Minor.
- In the 11th century, however, the Byzantine Empire faced its worst defeat in the hands of the Seljuk Turks and lost most of its gains.
- That Constantinople was finally taken was no surprise. However, the main reason for giving a thought is that the Byzantine state survived for so many centuries in the face of so many different hostile forces.
- Historians emphasize Byzantine trade and industry because these were so advanced for the time and provided most of the surplus wealth which supported the state.
- Byzantine religious dissensions were greatly complicated by the fact that the emperors took an active role in them. Because the emperors carried great power in the life of the Church—emperors were sometimes deemed by churchmen to be 'similar to God'—they exerted great influence in religious debates.
- Since religion was so dominant in Byzantine life, certain secular aspects of Byzantine civilization often go unnoticed, but there are good reasons why some of these should not be forgotten. One is Byzantine cultivation of the classics.
- Byzantine classicism was a product of an educational system for the laity which extended to the education of women as well as men.
- As in architecture, so in art the Byzantines profoundly altered the earlier Greek classical style. Byzantines excelled in ivory carving, manuscript illumination, jewelry-making, and, above all, the creation of mosaics—that is, designs of pictures produced by fitting together small pieces of coloured glass or stone.
- The impact of the fall Constantinople in 1453 made the Russians feel that they were chosen to carry on both the faith and the imperial mission of the fallen Byzantine Empire.
- Feudalism and feudal practice did not extend uniformly to the whole of Europe. Northern France and the 'low countries' were the most thoroughly feudalized areas, Germany much less so.

NOTES

- In Western Europe, with the decline in demesne production, serfdom and labour rents disappeared from the peasantry. The 14th and 15th centuries saw the rise of substantial peasant farms, owing to depopulation and vacant holdings. It led to the emergence of the middle level peasants in both England and France.

1.6 KEY WORDS

- **Millennium:** A millennium is a period equal to 1000 years, also called kiloyears. It derives from the Latin mille, thousand, and annus, year. It is often, but not always, related to a particular dating system.
- **Bureaucratic:** Bureaucratic means relating to a system of government in which most of the important decisions are taken by state officials rather than by elected representatives.
- **Iconoclasm:** Iconoclasm is the social belief in the importance of the destruction of icons and other images or monuments, most frequently for religious or political reasons.

1.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short note about the Byzantine Empire and its culture.
2. Why is Emperor Leo's victory significant for the European history?
3. What was the impact of the fall of Constantinople in 1453?
4. List the basic features of a feudal society.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the reasons for the downfall of the Byzantine Empire.
2. Discuss the Byzantine religious practices.
3. Describe the literature, art and architecture of the Byzantine Empire.
4. Critically analyze the decline of feudalism.

1.8 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.).* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

NOTES

NOTES

UNIT 2 RENAISSANCE IN EUROPE AND MARITIME DISCOVERIES

Structure

2.0 Introduction
2.1 Objectives
2.2 Renaissance in Europe: An Introduction
2.3 Results and Maritime Discoveries
2.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
2.5 Summary
2.6 Key Words
2.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
2.8 Further Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

As you learnt in the previous unit, the term 'Renaissance' is borrowed from French and means 'rebirth'. It was used to describe the cultural movement that began in Italy in the fourteenth century and spread across Europe by the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries. The movement was characterized by a revival of the classical sources in the sphere of learning. Linear perspective emerged in painting and there was reform in the educational system as well.

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

The age of humanism, as Renaissance is often termed, coupled with deep emphasis on economic expansion totally upturned the hitherto practiced and preached ideas of the Catholic Church. The medieval philosophy upheld in Western Europe laid all agency in the Lord. A just social order was considered beyond bounds in this world. However, the enterprising middle class wrested all agency and emerged as the masters of their own destinies relying on their own capabilities and enterprise. Hence, God was displaced and the man became the nucleus of the newly emergent order. This change gained currency throughout Europe and soon

NOTES

the humanist philosophy came to be known as Renaissance or 'rebirth'. This 'rebirth' in fact signified an intellectual awakening.

The movement began in Italy and soon encompassed the whole of Europe. It was marked by revival of classical style in the artistic sphere with humanists seeking to imitate the genius of Romans and Greeks.

There emerged a greater engagement with scientific discoveries of the past and an effort to carry them forward. The humanist movement received a shot in the arm in the middle of fifteenth century when Johann Gutenberg discovered printing in Germany. Another stalwart during the early years of Renaissance was Dante Alighieri (1265–1321), a Florentine poet.

Coming at an age when the medieval beliefs were on the decline and the humanist movement was just gathering force, Dante became a defining figure. His Divine Comedy, written in Italian, was hugely acclaimed. That he chose to write a literary treatise in his native language highlighted an emerging trend, i.e., the growing national consciousness amongst the humanist writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

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

Art also reflected the humanist ideal of celebration of the individual and the world around him. Therefore, paintings and sculptures were marked by a realism that celebrated man both in body and in spirit. Famous names amongst the artists are Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Raphael, Titian, Velasquez, and Rembrandt amongst others. The third dimension of Renaissance was its scientific vigour. Great discoveries were made and with emphasis on empiricism the seed of many of the modern natural sciences was sown.

Valuable contributions were made by Galileo in astronomy and mechanics apart from natural sciences. Other major contributions were by Cardano in natural sciences, Leonardo da Vinci in mechanics, Copernicus in astronomy, Francis Bacon and Giordano Bruno in the materialist perspective on nature and Vesalius and Harvey in anatomy and physiology.

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

NOTES

2.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Describe the impact of the Renaissance on Art
- Discuss how literature underwent a transformation with the Renaissance
- Explain how the discovery of new trade routes and the explorations by travellers helped Renaissance spread far and wide

2.2 RENAISSANCE IN EUROPE: AN INTRODUCTION

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

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

Causes of Renaissance

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

- **Turkey's capture of Constantinople:** Constantinople was of vital importance as it was the centre of classical learning in the eastern Roman Empire. In 1453, when the Turks seized control of Constantinople, there was a shift in the seat of classical learning. Greek scholars carried along with them rare manuscripts to the new centre of learning-Italy. Therefore, classical learning now flourished in Italy.
- **Decline of feudalism:** With the emergence of monarchy in England, France and Spain and the birth of nation states, feudalism as perpetrated by the church through imposition of taxes was fast losing ground. These rulers

NOTES

kept the forces of feudalism in check and around AD 1300 feudalism was on its way out.

- **Growth of towns:** Renaissance was marked by enterprise. Italy saw the spawning of large cities as trade and commerce flourished. Free from feudal overlords, the traders and craftsmen settled in the cities which become the new centres for learning. This spirit of enterprise and expansion ushered in Renaissance.
- **The Crusades:** The Crusades or the holy wars were the prolonged conflict between Christians and Muslims for control over Jerusalem, the holy city. They also played a crucial role in transforming the European society.
- **The spirit of enquiry:** With the decline of the church and a rejection of age old beliefs, ideas of realism in art, empiricism in science and humanism in general gathered force. These new ideas that stressed on reason and observation ushered in progress in science. Humanism ensured that man was now revered as body and form.
- **Invention of printing press and other discoveries:** There was gradual educational reform, emergence of universities and rise of printing press that led to spread of education. Germany got its first printing press in 1455 while England got the same in 1477 due to the efforts of William Caxton. Other important discoveries included gunpowder and progress in shipbuilding, mariner's compass and maps that were essential for purposes of navigation.
- **Encouragement to Art and Learning:** Art and learning found new patrons from amongst monarchs to merchants. Cultural activities were promoted through schools and universities set up by families of patrons. The humanist thinkers devoted themselves to the recovery of the relics of ancient Greek and Latin works of literature, oratory and history. Their interest in literary and historical treatises set them apart from a host of medieval scholars whose areas of interest were chiefly Greek and Arab works on natural sciences, philosophy and mathematics.

  Religion was not discarded in Renaissance but marked by a subtle shift in the way it was perceived by the intellectuals. Christianity found expression in art and many religious works of art were commissioned by the church as well. A fresh engagement began with Greek Christian texts including the Greek New Testament, when they were recovered from Byzantium. This exchange, promoted by Lorenzo Valla and Erasmus was one of the contributed to the reformation drive by the Protestants.

  The Renaissance engaged with the classics and used their ideas but only to promote an essentially secular society. Divergent view comes from a group of scholars like Rodney Stark, who believe that the source of Renaissance was Italian city states which were therefore, of more importance than the

NOTES

movement itself. Moreover these city states amalgamated a centralized state, church and capitalist culture successfully. It was the progress ushered in by the capitalism of Italian city states that paved way for the genesis of Renaissance. Quite contrastingly, other European states like France and Spain where monarchies while other parts of Europe were under the control of Church.

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

The Age of Discovery

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

The Portuguese explorers

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

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

NOTES

Origin of Renaissance in Italy

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

Impact of Renaissance on Art

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



Fig. 2.1 *Mona Lisa*

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

NOTES



Fig. 2.2 *The Last Supper*

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



Fig. 2.3 *Michelangelo's David*

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

NOTES



Fig. 2.4 *Madonna and Child*

Renaissance and Literature

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

Renaissance and Science

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

- Roger Becon (AD 1214–1294), who discovered uses of gunpowder and magnifying lenses. He also anticipated an improvement in ships with them becoming oarless and carriage that need not be horse drawn.
- Copernicus (AD 1473–1543), a Polish priest who faced much flak for suggesting that the sun and not the earth was the centre of the universe and that the earth and other heavenly bodies revolved around it. His discovery was in contention to the belief held by the church. He also suggested that the earth rotated about its axis.
- Galileo (AD 1564–1642) apart from being the inventor of telescope and studying the movement of heavenly bodies also proved the Copernican theory correct through his experiments and mathematical calculations.

NOTES

- Johannes Kepler (AD 1571–1630) discovered that the earth and the planets revolve around the sun in elliptical orbit and not in a circular one as earlier believed.
- Newton, a British scientist, is famous for his theory of gravitation and laws of motion.
- Halley theorized about the appearance of comets at regular periods.
- There was great progress in the field of medicine.
- Vesalius, a physician, wrote De Humani Corporis Fabricia, a study of anatomy.

Other Effects of Renaissance

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

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

Check Your Progress

1. Who were the earliest patrons of explorers?
2. Who earned the title of 'Navigator' and why?

2.3 RESULTS AND MARITIME DISCOVERIES

The beginning of the Renaissance was an era that embodied the spirit of discovery. Travel was patronized and people went far and wide to discover new lands, find new sea routes and carry on trade across different parts of the world. Hence,

NOTES

America was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492, the continent getting its name from Amerigo Vespucci, another explorer who was meant to perform this feat. In 1498, Portuguese sailor, Vasco da Gama, discovered an all new sea route to India via the Cape of Good Hope and reached Calicut. Another important achievement was the circumnavigation of the world by Magellan in 1519. The strait between America and Tierra del Fuego has got its name from him. While he lost his life near the Philippine Island, his crew carried on the voyage under del Cano and reached Spain in 1522. Seventeenth century saw the Dutch discovering Australia.

As a result of these discoveries and exploration of new lands, trade and commerce between different regions of the world flourished. The Mediterranean region was dominated by the Greeks and Romans for trade purposes. With the fall of Constantinople, the Turks gained control over Asia Minor and blocked land and sea routes to the east. As a result, Europeans had to discover alternative routes to carry on trade between the east and west. As early as 1418, the Portuguese started exploring African coast along the Atlantic succeeding finally in 1488. Christopher Columbus also set sail in 1492 with the aim of discovering the sea route to the Indies, trans-Atlantic. However, he accidently discovered America, the 'new world'. This region was divided between Spain and Portugal so that they may carry on explorations in regions discovered by them.

Vasco Da Gama

Having set sail in 1498, Vasco da Gama succeeded in reaching the coast of India having sailed around Africa and discovering a direct trade route for trade with Asia.



Fig. 2.5 *Vasco da Gama, 1498*

NOTES

Vasco da Gama (1460–1524) started his journey eastwards from Lisbon in Portugal on July 8, 1497. Having circumnavigated the Cape of Good Hope of Africa on November 22, he stayed on course his voyage to India. He overcame hardships on the way, in the form of Muslim traders who did not want him to interfere with their established trade routes and finally reached Calicut on the Indian shore on May 20, 1948. The initial welcome extended to da Gama was soon withdrawn. He was subjected to high taxation and asked to leave all his goods in India. He finally set sail for Portugal on August 29, 1498 accompanied by Indian hostages apart from his goods, and reached there in 1499. He received great honour for his achievement and was sent on another expedition to India in 1502-03 by King Manuel I of Portugal. Twenty armed ships accompanied him on his second voyage, expecting Muslim traders to again create trouble. To demonstrate his power, da Gama now massacred hundreds of Muslims. He was later the Portuguese viceroy to India, sent by King John III after the death of King Manuel.

The success of the Portuguese and Spanish explorations inspired the French and the British to venture upon similar expeditions in 1495. The Dutch also joined the fray later looking for new trade routes to different parts of the world, to the north, in the Pacific region and finally to Asia via the Cape of Good Hope. This led to the discovery of Australia, New Zealand and Hawaii in 1606, 1642 and 1778, respectively. The Russians also established their control over Siberia from 1580s to 1640s.

Ferdinand Magellan

Ferdinand Magellan was the first one to circumnavigate the world with his Spanish crew. Meanwhile, other Spanish explorers were also discovering parts of America and islands of the South Pacific region.



Fig. 2.6 *Ferdinand Magellan*

NOTES

In the service of King Charles I of Spain, Magellan, a Portuguese by birth, sailed westwards in the quest of the Spice Islands, the Maluku Islands of Indonesia as we know them today. He set sail in 1519 and was the first man to cross the Atlantic and enter into the Pacific or the 'peaceful sea' and also the first to cross the Pacific Ocean. The region through which he entered the Pacific was called the straits of Magellan. While Magellan lost his life in the Battle of Mactan in the Philippines, the expedition reached Spain in 1522.

Marco Polo

Marco Polo travelled to east, journeying to China and Japan from Venice.

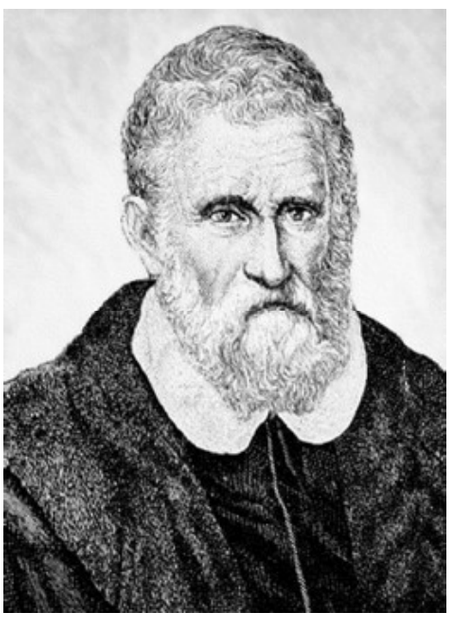


Fig. 2.7 *Marco Polo*

The age of discovery went hand in hand with the Renaissance movement marking a transition from the medieval to the modern age. This age was characterized by the rise of nation states, exploration of newer territories for trade purposes followed by the colonial expansion of the new found lands. The rise of printing press, accounts of travellers and the scientific advancements of the age produced a whole new social order.

Check Your Progress

3. Who was the first one to circumnavigate the world with his Spanish crew?
4. Mention the first person to sail directly from Europe to India.

NOTES

2.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The earliest patrons of explorers were the Portuguese and the Spanish.
2. The Portuguese prince Henry, earned the title of 'Navigator' because of his immense interest in and promotion of navigation.
3. Ferdinand Magellan was the first one to circumnavigate the world with his Spanish crew.
4. Vasco da Gama was the first person to sail directly from Europe to India.

2.5 SUMMARY

- The term 'Renaissance' is borrowed from French and means 'rebirth'.
- It was used to describe the cultural movement that began in Italy in the fourteenth century and spread across Europe by the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries.
- The emergence of capitalism and along with it the rise of the new middle class, the bourgeoisie, transformed the European cultural climate.
- Renaissance is therefore deeply entwined with the rise and growth of the market economy, capitalism and the bourgeoisie.
- Valuable contributions were made by Galileo in astronomy and mechanics apart from natural sciences.
- Other major contributions were by Cardano in natural sciences, Leonardo da Vinci in mechanics, Copernicus in astronomy, Francis Bacon and Giordano Bruno in the materialist perspective on nature and Vesalius and Harvey in anatomy and physiology.
- Constantinople was of vital importance as it was the centre of classical learning in the eastern Roman Empire.
- Religion was not discarded in Renaissance but marked by a subtle shift in the way it was perceived by the intellectuals.
- The discovery of new trade routes and the explorations by travellers helped Renaissance spread far and wide. With Greek and Roman trade centres situated close to the Mediterranean, there was greater exchange with the outside world.
- The earliest patrons of explorers were the Portuguese and the Spanish. The Portuguese prince Henry, earned the title of 'Navigator' because of his immense interest in and promotion of navigation.

NOTES

- One of the most renowned Renaissance artists was Leonardo da Vinci (AD 1452–1519), a skilled musician, architect, engineer, mathematician apart from being a painter.
- Literature underwent a transformation with Renaissance. Humanist writers engaged with classical literature which in turn gave shape to a whole new corpus of work.
- Having set sail in 1498, Vasco da Gama succeeded in reaching the coast of India having sailed around Africa and discovering a direct trade route for trade with Asia.
- Ferdinand Magellan was the first one to circumnavigate the world with his Spanish crew. Meanwhile, other Spanish explorers were also discovering parts of America and islands of the South Pacific region.
- Marco Polo travelled to east, journeying to China and Japan from Venice.

2.6 KEY WORDS

- **Capitalism:** Capitalism is an economic system based on the private ownership of the means of production and their operation for profit.
- **Bourgeoisie:** The bourgeoisie is a polysemous French term that can mean: a sociologically defined class, especially in contemporary times, referring to people with a certain cultural and financial capital belonging to the middle or upper middle class.
- **Feudalism:** Feudalism the dominant social system in medieval Europe, in which the nobility held lands from the Crown in exchange for military service, and vassals were in turn tenants of the nobles, while the peasants (villeins or serfs) were obliged to live on their lord's land and give him homage, labour, and a share of the produce, notionally in exchange for military protection.

2.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Why did the Renaissance prove to be the vital connect between the medieval times and the modern age?
2. What were the reasons that led to the beginning of the Renaissance?
3. Write a short note on one of the most renowned Renaissance artists was Leonardo da Vinci.
4. List some of the prominent scientists during the Renaissance.

NOTES

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain how the discovery of new trade routes and the explorations by travellers helped Renaissance spread far and wide.
2. Describe the impact of the Renaissance on art.
3. Discuss how literature underwent a transformation with the Renaissance.
4. Write a long-note about Ferdinand Magellan.

2.8 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.)*. London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

UNIT 3 INDIAN WARS

NOTES

Structure

3.0 Introduction
3.1 Objectives
3.2 Indian Wars: An Introduction
3.3 Holy Roman Emperor
3.4 Charles V: Career and Achievements
3.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
3.6 Summary
3.7 Key Words
3.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
3.9 Further Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The Indian Wars or American Indian Wars is the combined term used for the several armed wars battled by governments and colonists of Europe and subsequently by the government and settlers of the United States with numerous American Indian tribes. These wars began to take place in the United States and Canada from the seventeenth century and lasted beyond the 1920s. These wars took place due to a number of reasons, these included clashes due to cultural differences, disputes over lands and many unlawful activities carried out by both the sides. European powers and the colonies also enlisted Indian tribes were compelled to help the European powers and the colonies to carry out wars with other colonial establishments. The unit will discuss the Indian wars bought on the North American continent. It will go on to discuss the career of Charles V.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss the Indian Wars and timeline of the conflicts
- Identify why the Native Americans were one of the major reasons for enimity between France, Spain, and England
- Explain the title 'Holy Roman Emperor'
- Critically analyze the life of Charles V as the Holy Roman Emperor
- Discuss the various achievements of Charles V

3.2 INDIAN WARS: AN INTRODUCTION

NOTES

The period after the American Revolution saw several localised wars as these were mostly land disputes in a particular area, few of these disputes were extremely violent. The British Royal Proclamation of 1763 incorporated in the Constitution of Canada barred white settlers from capturing the property of natives of Canada; they could take their land only after a treaty was signed between both the parties. The law prevails even in modern times. The treaty helped in curbing the conflicts over land use.

After 1780 the white settlers began to spread westward, this intensified the conflicts amongst the Indians and the settlers. The outcome of these conflicts was seen in form of the War of 1812, the war led to the defeat of most important Indian coalitions in the Midwest and the South, and fight with settlers were not so frequent and the disputes began to be resolved with the help of a treaty, mostly with the help of a sale or batter system between the particular tribe and the government. The Indian Removal Act of 1830 allowed the government of United States to implement the removal of Indians in the eastern part of Mississippi River up to the other side of the American frontier that was populated sparsely. The removal policy was in due course developed so that the relocation of the Indian tribes could take place in areas which were specifically demarcated and protected by the government.

Indians were one of the major reasons for enmities between France, Spain, and England. By the eighteenth century these wars were not just fought for empire building.

The Indian Wars and Battles against the US Cavalry

There were numerous battles, fights and clashes amongst various tribes of American Native Indians and the US Cavalry. Most of these had extremely bloody outcomes. In 1864 the shameful Sand Creek Massacre led to the death of over four hundred innocent Arapaho and Cheyenne men, women, and infants, the massacre was conducted by Colonel John Chivington and his army of seven hundred men. They carried out violence against the passive villages of Cheyenne and Arapaho Indians. During the Battle of Little Big Horn in 1876 General George Custer and his troops consisting of 264 men were exterminated by Sioux Native Americans in Montana. The chief of the Nez Perce tribe and his men were ruthlessly hunted by the army of United States and as a result in 1890 in the Battle of Wounded Knee more than two hundred defenceless Sioux Indians were killed and this finally ended the Indian Wars.

The French and Indian War

The French and Indian War broke out during 1688 and lasted till 1763. These wars were fought between Great Britain and France; the two were in conflict due

to the lands in the New World. The involvement of the Native Indians was due to the alliance between the Iroquois Indians and France and the alliance of the Algonquian tribes with British at the time of the European wars.

Indian Wars and Timeline of the Conflicts

1622 1624-The Powhatan Wars
1634 1638- Pequot War
1640 1701- Beaver Wars
1655 1655- Peach Tree War
1675 1676- Bacon's Rebellion
1675 1676- King Philip's War
1675 1760 The 'Indian Wars' comprising the French and Indian Wars
1680 1692- The Revolt of Pueblo
1688 1763 -The French and Indian Wars
1688 1699- King William's War
1702 1713- Queen Anne's War
1711 1715- Tuscarora War
1712 1716- First Fox War
1715 1717- Yamasee War
1716 1729- Natchez Wars
1721 1763- Chickasaw Wars
1722 1725- Wabanaki-New England War
1728 1733- Second Fox War
1744 1748- King George's War
1756 1763- Seven Years' War
1758 1761- Anglo-Cherokee War
1763 1766- Pontiac's War
1776 1794- Chickamauga Wars
1785 1795- Northwest Indian War
1794 Battle of Fallen Timbers
1811 1813- Tecumseh's War - Battle of Tippecanoe
1813 1814- Creek War
1817 1842- Seminole Wars
1820 1875 -Texas–Indian wars
1827 1827- Winnebago War

NOTES

NOTES

1836 1877- Comanche Wars

1846 1864- Navajo Wars

1848 1855- Cayuse War

1849 1924- Apache Wars

1850 1865- California Indian Wars

1850 1853- Yuma War

1850 1923- Ute Wars

1854 1890- The Sioux Wars

1855 1858- Yakima War

1860 1886- Chiricahua Wars

1864 1868- Snake War

1865 1872- Black Hawk's War

1866 1868- Red Cloud's War

1872 1873- Modoc War

1876 1877- Buffalo Hunters' War

1876 1877- Great Sioux War, aka the Black Hills War

1876- Battle of the Rosebud

1876- Battle of Little Bighorn

1877- Nez Perce War

1878- Bannock War

1879- Sheepeater Indian War

1879 1880- Victorio's War

1881 1886- Geronimo's War refer to Geronimo

1896- Yaqui Uprising

1915- The Bluff War, aka Posey War

The British was responsible for several Indian raids and this subsequently became an important factor for US to declare a war on Great Britain in 1812. Alaska and Florida also became sights of acrimonious clashes. The natives were extremely against the occupation of Alaska by the Russians. After the cession of Florida by the Spanish, US started to remove the tribes in the territory towards the western part of the Mississippi River. This led to the Second Seminole War (1835-1842), the Seminole Indians and runaway slaves were not willing to move. The war resulted in the removal of the more than three thousand Seminole after the capturing of the Seminole leader, Osceola in 1837. The Third Seminole War (1855-1858) resulted in removal of all the members of the tribe merely a handful of them were left after the war.

NOTES

The policy of removal was met with casual opposition since the whites were moved into the valley of Mississippi River throughout the 1830s and 1840s. The Black Hawk War led to the crushing of the Sac and Fox Indians. The tribes in the region were left powerless in front of the expansion undertaken by the whites; they had constructed several forts and military roads. However the fresh conflicts were sparked between the Indians and the whites in the 1840s with the acquisition of Texas and the Southwest.

In the Pacific Coast, the assaults against the native peoples were clubbed with influx of immigrants to California. The population of the natives during the 1860s had dropped down to 35,000; disease, undernourishment, and war clubbed with the sad state of reserved lands were major causes for the drop in the numbers. In 1845 the population was 150,000. An important role was played by the army in Oregon and Washington; many tribes were relocated to the reserved lands with the help of Rogue River (1855-1856), Yakima (1855-1856), and Spokane (1858) wars.

Arizona and New Mexico were also plagued with casual conflicts during the 1850s since the army was struggling to manifest itself. The expansion of the whites in the southern plains was challenged by the mounted warriors. Assaults against the Sioux, Cheyennes, Arapahos, Comanches, and Kiowas only laid the foundation for fierce conflicts in the following years. The Civil War witnessed the exclusion of the Regulars and an additional upsurge in the quantity and force of the conflicts between the whites and the Indians.

The army continued to be guarded in anticipation of budding trouble due to the continuation of extreme atrocities. Barring the clash in 1973, the main conflicts between the whites and the Indians had ended. The advancement in technology proved to be advantageous for a short duration. Though this was not an advantage universally.

During the course of conflicts spread over two centuries the loss could be felt on both sides. The whites had managed to effectively exploit the rivalry that existed within the tribes. This helped the white government to win over the tribes. Although the entire credit for defeating the Indians cannot be given to the army. There were other factors such as the expansion of the railways, destruction of the buffalo, increase in the number of non-native settlers, and the resolve of succeeding governments to eliminate any threat to their independence that helped in overwhelming the natives.

Check Your Progress

1. What do you understand by the term the 'Indian Wars' or 'American Indian Wars'?
2. What were the reasons behind the Indian Wars?

NOTES

3.3 HOLY ROMAN EMPEROR

The Holy Roman Emperor which may be translated as 'Emperor of the Romans' was the ruler of the Holy Roman Empire from the period between 800/962-1806 AD. The title was, practically, non-stop detained in concurrence with the rule of the Kingdom of Germany.

The title came into existence from a dictatorship during the Carolingian times, it developed into an elected monarchy selected by the electors of the prince. The Holy Roman Emperor was considered as a ruler by divine right, although he frequently challenged the Pope, this is essentially visible in the controversy during the Investiture. Theoretically, the Holy Roman Emperor was regarded as first among equals (primus inter pares) in regards to remaining Catholic monarchs. But in reality, a Holy Roman Emperor's strength greatly relied on his army and treaties; these even included the alliances in marriage alliances. Theophanu and Maria Theresa of Austria functioned as de facto Empresses regnant, the only Holy Roman Empress regnant.

During the course of its existence the title holder was regarded as a protector of the Roman Catholic faith. Till the Reformation, the imperator electus (Emperor elect) had to be crowned by the Pope prior to be taking the regal title. The last Holy Roman Emperor to be crowned by the Pope was Charles V, he was crowned in 1530. The elected Emperor had to be a Roman Catholic post Reformation as well. In history, the Electoral College was controlled by the Protestants for a very short duration. The political interest was paramount during these elections thus the electors voted accordingly. Several European royal houses were hereditary holders of this title during their respective eras. The tilted was held by Habsburgs for the longest period. The Holy Roman Emperor, Francis II dissolved the title after the downfall of the polity in the Napoleonic wars. One of the most important Holy Roman Emperor's was Charles V.

3.4 CHARLES V: CAREER AND ACHIEVEMENTS

Charles V held many titles and the most prominent among them was the title of Spanish Emperor and Holy Roman Emperor. He was a man of conviction, principle, and confrontation. Charles V transported Europe into a novel era of empires. He was born in 1500 on February 24. He was the heir of three imperial dynasties, namely, the Valois-Burgundy dynasty of the Netherlands, the Hapsburgs of Germany, and the Trastámara of Spain. The Emperor was a product of many Catholic kingdoms, and as a result became an impeccable Catholic king. His spent most of his time in Northern Europe yet his Spanish heritage cannot be ignored.

As heritor of the House of Burgundy, areas in the Netherlands and around the eastern border of France were inherited by him. Due to his second inheritance he inherited Austria and extra lands in central parts of Europe, and as a Holy

NOTES

Roman Emperor, he was designated to succeed his grandfather, Maximilian I. He also inherited the Crown of Castile that was emerging as a promising empire in the Americas and Asia, and the Crown of Aragon; this consisted of the Mediterranean empire stretched till the south of Italy. Charles became the first ruler of Castile and Aragon; he is often called the first king of Spain. Under Charles, with his titles of the Holy Roman Empire with the Spanish King Europe began to be considered as a universal monarchy. Before his rule this had happened only in the ninth century during the era of Charlemagne.

His titles and establishment of a universal monarchy resulted in acquiring many enemies. His period as a ruler witnessed several wars and conflicts, the most prominent being the French-Italian Wars, the tussle to stop the progress of Turkey into Europe, and the struggle with the German princes consequential of the Protestant Reformation. His reign was dominated by the French wars, mostly battled in Italy. The wars coasted an enormous amount and led to the establishment of the first European professional army known as the Tercios.

The tussle with the Ottoman Empire was battled in Hungary and the Mediterranean. The advancement of Turkey was stopped at the Siege of Vienna in 1529 and this led to a long war of abrasion, fought by Charles' younger brother who was also the king of Hungary and archduke of Austria. In the Mediterranean, even though there were few achievements, but he was not able to stop the increasing dominance of the Ottoman's navy and was also unable to prevent the activities of the pirates of the Barbary. The Reformation was also opposed by Charles and along with that he was not on favourable terms with the nobles of Protestant in Germany. As a result he was unable to stop the advancement of Protestantism. This resulted in his conceding of the Peace of Augsburg of 1555, this caused division of Germany on denominational lines.

Even though Charles was not generally worried about rebellions, but still he managed to control three daring rebellions, these were the Revolt of the Comuneros in Castile, the revolt of the Arumer Zwarte Hoop in Frisia, and, well along in during his rule, the Revolt of Ghent in 1539. After these rebellions were suppressed the crucial Castilian and Burgundian territories continued to remain faithful to Charles while he ruled.

The Spanish dominions were the major source of power and wealth for Charles. These were essential throughout his reign. In the Americas, Charles endorsed the conquest through the Castilian conquistadores of the Aztec and Inca kingdoms. Control of Castilian was stretched across most of South and Central America. The continuous expanding of the territory and the pours of silver from South America to Castile had long lasting impact on Spain.

At the young age of 56 he was abdicated. Even then his rule had physically tired him out to such an extent that he had to find peace in a monastery, he spent the last two years of his at the monastery as he died at the young age of 58. After his death his younger brother Ferdinand, archduke of Austria took over the as

Holy Roman Emperor and his son Philip II of Spain took over his Spanish Empire, together with the properties in the Netherlands and Italy. Charles V is often regarded as one pf the most influential personalities throughout the history.

NOTES

The Holy Roman Emperor

Charles V is considered to be the ruler of most powerful universal empire, and moreover he had a control over several European territories. With the vastness of his control he was able to foresee an amalgamated European empire. A great phase in this trend arose in 1519, when Charles was crowned as the Holy Roman Emperor after the death of his grandfather Maximilian and he became the monarch of Germany.

As stated earlier the title came into being during the reign of Charlemagne, and the holder of this title became the real protector of the Catholic faith and supreme amongst Catholic kings. In principle, the Holy Roman Emperor was thought to be at par with the Pope. In 1519 Charles V was elected as the Holy Roman Emperor, with his title he had control over most of the Western Europe.

During the course of his reign Charles' main aim was to be able to uphold the patrimony of his family and to safeguard the Catholic Church.

His simple aims were challenged with three hurdles: the first hurdle was in form of the obstinate resentment of Francis I of France, he ruled between 1515–1547, expansion of the towards the Danube valley and in the Mediterranean was the second hurdle and the last one was due to the continuous crisis in Germany, this was connected with the religious Reformation started by Martin Luther and extended till the expansion of princely sovereignty. Even though the reasons for all these hurdles were separate and all progressed separately in the history, yet Charles V was not able to resolve either one as adoption of policy in either of the aspects had a direct impact on the other two. As a result majority part of Charles reign was spent in wars.

Charles was able to achieve one of his ultimate victories against Francis I, as he was always disputing his titles in Italy and braced his enemies in the Netherlands. During the seven year wars with France, Charles was able to establish his titles in Naples, Sicily, and Milan, and amalgamated his properties in the Netherlands. These wars with France drained the finances and diverted him from his other aims which were important for him. He was not able to concentrate on the war against the Turks. The extension of the Ottoman Empire in the Danube valley got Muslim armies to boarders of Vienna by 1529. In the Mediterranean, fleets of Muslim sailing from the ports of North Africa invaded the Spanish and Italian kingdoms of Charles, these invasions caused vast destruction and miseries. The battling model fascinated Charles; however he could only partially control the threat of the Muslim and they only turned back from Vienna as they had completely exhausted their logistics. He was able to capture the Tunis in the Mediterranean in 1535, nonetheless was unsuccessful in seizing Algiers in 1541.

NOTES

The problem in Germany was not easily resolved and as devoted Catholic, Charles considered that it was his responsibility as emperor to challenge the spreading of Protestantism and to develop a strategy which would help in strengthening the institution in the empire. His disapproval of Martin Luther at the Diet of Worms in 1521 was not fruitful in anyway. In 1530 at Augsburg and once more in 1540 at Regensburg he tried to attain diplomatic solutions to the religious issue, but was unsuccessful at both the times. He was able to defeat the Protestant Schmalkaldic League in 1546–1547, however the French in 1552 helped them to revive back. In 1555 Charles half-heartedly approved of the Religious Peace of Augsburg, the right of German princes to decide the religion of their own territories was recognised and guaranteed that the empire would continue in its original form, a free federation controlled by the princes rather than by the emperor.

The inheritance of Charles V was moulded mostly within the background of these struggles. As the reign advanced, he started depending more on his wealth from the Spanish inheritance and core of his military system was also formed with the Spanish army. The soaring expenses compelled him to increase the taxes in Spain as well as in Netherlands, and plus he had to borrow huge sum of money from global money markets. These borrowings had adverse effects and were faced by his successors as well. Although, serious efforts were made by Charles in order to improve the administration in every part of his empire. He established an upgraded conciliar system of government in Spain and its effects were felt as late as the eighteenth century. In America he upheld Spain's foremost supporter for the Indians, Bartolomé de Las Casas, and tried to sincerely safeguard the native population from being exploited by the colonists. In Naples and Sicily his viceroys tried to maintain order with negligible transgression towards local susceptibilities. Charles personally established a system of benefaction that managed many of the princes and cities of the north, guaranteeing reasonable peace in the areas for the future. In all places, he tried to enhance the maintenance of records and the setting up of an organised system of archives.

The impact of his reign on the Netherlands is not easy to evaluate since the seventeen provinces had begun to rebel under his descendant. During his rule Frisia, Utrecht, Gelderland, and a few smaller estates were added to his prevailing legacy. His financial demands, conceivably ironical, helped in solidification of provincial government and this aided to Dutch triumph in the subsequent revolt. The provinces shaped an intricate system of supported debt constructed mainly on fresh excise taxes; however these taxes triggered extensive antipathy. Same antipathy was seen towards the religious policies though the response was comparatively peaceful. His determination to uproot completely directed him to propagate laws or notices that, along with other things, necessitated the death penalty of the Protestants. In spite of this Charles was not responsible for provoking the Revolt of the Netherlands. Even after his death, heresy seemed to be controlled and the monarchy continued to retain the backing of the elites in Netherlands, their rights were always safeguarded by the emperor. Philip II had the responsibility of

NOTES

squandering the leftover goodwill with the help of the policies; these seemed to pose a threat towards the interest of the aristocrats and townsfolk similarly. The subsequent war of independence continued for over eighty years (1568–1648) and as a result Dutch Republic was established. By 1585, Spain was able to recover ten of its provinces in the southern parts.

The health of the emperor began to fail by 1550; he suffered from frequent bouts of depression. As a result in 1531 he decided to retire and hand over his office to his younger brother Ferdinand as king of the Romans, since he was instrumental in managing the affairs in Germany during his reign. He handed over Spanish and Italian properties to his son Philip. By this time he had detached Netherlands from the empire due to his plan of leaving it to his son. This decision had led to quarrels within the family and finally Philip was given Spain and the Netherlands, although Ferdinand continued to remain the emperor. Moreover it was evident that Philip will not be elected as the emperor.

This partition of Charles's heritage had an intensive impact on the finances of Spain and as a result the Dutch Republic was established. Ferdinand along with his successors dedicated their greatest determinations towards creating the empire of Habsburg in Eastern Europe, this continued till 1918. The Habsburgs conserved and extended their inheritance, on the other hand Charles was unsuccessful in his efforts to change the empire or prevent Protestantism from spreading so fast. The main reason for his failure was lack of resources, as he completely relied on his Spanish inheritance for fulfilling all his aims, they soon began to replenish. All this led to his abdication in 1557.

Check Your Progress

3. How did the title 'Holy Roman Emperor' come into existence?
4. Who was the last Holy Roman Emperor to be crowned by the Pope?

3.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The Indian Wars or American Indian Wars is the combined term used for the several armed wars battled by governments and colonists of Europe and subsequently by the government and settlers of United States with numerous American Indian tribes.
2. There were number of reasons, these included clashes due to cultural differences, disputes over lands and many unlawful activities carried out by both the sides.
3. The title 'Holy Roman Emperor' came into existence from a dictatorship during the Carolingian times, it developed into an elected monarchy selected

by the electors of the prince. The Holy Roman Emperor was considered as a ruler by divine right, although he frequently challenged the Pope, this is essentially visible in the controversy during the Investiture.

4. The last Holy Roman Emperor to be crowned by the Pope was Charles V, he was crowned in 1530.

NOTES

3.6 SUMMARY

- The Indian Wars or American Indian Wars is the combined term used for the several armed wars battled by governments and colonists of Europe and subsequently by the government and settlers of United States with numerous American Indian tribes.
- Indians were one of the major reasons for enmities between France, Spain, and England. By the eighteenth century these wars were not just fought for empire building.
- There were numerous battles, fights and clashes amongst various tribes of American Native Indians and the US Cavalry.
- The French and Indian War broke out during 1688 and lasted till 1763. These wars were fought between Great Britain and France; the two were in conflict due to the lands in the New World.
- The British was responsible for several Indian raids and this subsequently became an important factor for US to declare a war on Great Britain in 1812.
- In the Pacific Coast, the assaults against the native peoples were clubbed with influx of immigrants to California.
- Arizona and New Mexico were also plagued with casual conflicts during the 1850s since the army was struggling to manifest itself.
- The Holy Roman Emperor which may be translated as 'Emperor of the Romans' was the ruler of the Holy Roman Empire from the period between 800/962-1806 AD.
- The title was, practically, non-stop detained in concurrence with the rule of the Kingdom of Germany.
- The title came into existence from a dictatorship during the Carolingian times, it developed into an elected monarchy selected by the electors of the prince.
- Charles V held many titles and the most prominent among them was the title of Spanish Emperor and Holy Roman Emperor.
- He was a man of conviction, principle, and confrontation. Charles V transported Europe into a novel era of empires. He was born in 1500 on February 24.

NOTES

- Even though Charles was not generally worried about rebellions, but still he managed to control three daring rebellions, these were the Revolt of the Comuneros in Castile, the revolt of the Arumer Zwarte Hoop in Frisia, and, well along in during his rule, the Revolt of Ghent in 1539.
- The Spanish dominions were the major source of power and wealth for Charles. These were essential throughout his reign.
- At the young age of 56 he was abdicated. Even then his rule had physically tired him out to such an extent that he had to find peace in a monastery, he spent the last two years of his at the monastery as he died at the young age of 58.
- Charles V is considered to be the ruler of most powerful universal empire, and moreover he had a control over several European territories.
- Charles was able to achieve one of his ultimate victories against Francis I, as he was always disputing his titles in Italy and braced his enemies in the Netherlands.
- This partition of Charles's heritage had an intensive impact on the finances of Spain and as a result the Dutch Republic was established.

3.7 KEY WORDS

- **Tribe:** Tribe is a social division in a traditional society consisting of families or communities linked by social, economic, religious, or blood ties, with a common culture and dialect, typically having a recognized leader.
- **Native:** Native means a person born in a specified place or associated with a place by birth, whether subsequently resident there or not.
- **Holy Roman Emperor:** The Holy Roman Emperor which may be translated as 'Emperor of the Romans' was the ruler of the Holy Roman Empire from the period between 800/962-1806 AD. The title was, practically, non-stop detained in concurrence with the rule of the Kingdom of Germany.
- **Abdication:** Abdication is the act of formally relinquishing monarchical authority.

3.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Why were the Native American tribes one of the major reasons for enimity between France, Spain, and England?
2. Write a short note about the Indian Wars and Battles against the US Cavalry.

3. What were the conflicts between Great Britain and France?
4. What were the major source of power and wealth for Charles V?

Long-Answers Question

NOTES

1. Discuss the Indian Wars and timeline of the conflicts.
2. Explain why the British was responsible for several Indian and how this subsequently became an important factor for US to declare a war on Great Britain in 1812.
3. Write an essay about the title 'Holy Roman Emperor'.
4. Critically analyse the life of Charles V as the Holy Roman Emperor.
5. Discuss the various achievements of Charles V.

3.9 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.).* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

BLOCK - II
HOLY ROMAN EMPERORS AND REFORMATION

NOTES

UNIT 4 REFORMATION IN GERMANY

Structure

4.0 Introduction
4.1 Objectives
4.2 The Reformation in Germany: An Overview
4.3 Other Countries
4.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
4.5 Summary
4.6 Key Words
4.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
4.8 Further Readings

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Capitalist countries were amongst the first to break away from the Catholic Church. They subjugated their churches to the control of their rulers thereby depriving the church of the supremacy that it had long enjoyed. Moreover, they altered religious discourse in a manner that served the interests of the rising middle class. In this unit, you will deal with the concept of reformation in Germany and other countries. The reformations was primarily a division in christianity brought about by the ideas of Martin Luther.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- List the various causes of the Reformation
- Explain how corruption in the church became the cause of the reformation
- Discuss the various prominent protestant movements
- Describe the role of reformation in Germany and other countries

4.2 THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY: AN OVERVIEW

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

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

Meaning of Reformation

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

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

The Causes of the Reformation

The causes of the Reformation were as follows:

1. **Influence of the Renaissance:** The Renaissance had brought about remarkable changes in the European society. With the intellectual awakening, cultural changes, rise of humanism and generation of spirit of enquiry, there was irreverence for authority and meaningless dogmas that were upheld by the church. The scientific and geographical advancements, the crusades, the emergence of printing press and educational reforms all brought about a change in the perception of people.
2. **Corruption in the church:** Classical studies were not banished by the Catholic Church. The Church was aware of all richness and value that these texts contained that would help men transcend their own mental boundaries. There were apprehensions from certain quarters about pagan associations plaguing the minds of the youth but by and large these were dismissed. Origen, St. Clement of Alexandria, St. Gregory of Nazianzen, St. Basil, and St. Jerome were among a few of the Catholics who encouraged their followers to engage with classical texts leading to the early efforts to bring

NOTES

together the religious and the secular, i.e., classical culture and Christian beliefs. The fall of the Roman Empire and the proceeding Dark Ages saw a changing scenario when classical studies were relegated to Britain, Ireland and the western Isles. The Carolingian reform resurrected these dying classics and gave them a new lease of life in the continent. Soon compilations of classics emerged in schools and colleges; however the glory days of classical literature were gone. The reform now was directed towards philosophy and not as it had been in the 12th century, when it was directed towards classics supported by men like John of Salisbury. Consequently, classical languages like Greek and Latin started disappearing from the school curriculum in Western Europe. There was now a thrust of rationality and logic amongst the scholars rather than beauty of expression and literary grace. The neglect was confined not just to the languages but also to monuments and other architecture. As a result there was widespread decline.

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

The decline of Italy and Rome aroused deep anger in Petrarch. He believed that the absence of Popes from Avignon was a cause of the downfall. Encouraged by nationalist feelings, he supported Cola di Rienzi, when in 1347 the latter announced the formation of Roman republic. He sought to protect the remaining pagan monuments and to bring alive the relics of the past to arouse nationalist sentiments among his fellow countrymen. Virgil was his inspiration in poetry. Most of his writing was in Italian but he incorporated in them the ideals of Renaissance, the celebration of beauty as opposed to the self-restraint practised in the middle ages. While his work *Africa* is a glorification of ancient Rome and full of nationalist zeal, Petrarch has received great acclaim for the *Canzoni* or his love songs. Petrarch, however, did not see religion and paganism in conflict. He may have attacked

NOTES

the church at times in his nationalist fervour but he never sought a confrontation with religion and rather believed in confrontation. His disciple, Boccaccio (1313–1375), too reverted to the classics and had even acquired knowledge of Greek but unlike Petrarch he chose paganism over Christianity. His works, including the famous *Decameron*, betray the pagan in him. His harsh criticism of the clergy, accusing them of hypocrisy, put his followers in conflict with the religious minded. Yet he did not do this to promote paganism in the garb of promoting literature. He still believed in Christianity and in the later years of his life realized the mistakes he had made and bequeathed his library to the monks whom he had earlier taken pleasure in reviling.

3. **Influence of economic changes:** The flourishing trade and commerce changed the outlook of the people during Renaissance. The educated middle class began to question the authority that the church exercised over the common man. New trade routes were discovered, and as exports grew, the wealth of the mercantile class increased manifold. With irreverence towards the church on the rise, it was a matter of time that the humanist and the scholars of religion came at loggerheads. The corruption in the church made the humanist advocate not only a revival of the classics but went a step ahead to call for a revival of paganism itself. On the other hand, the scholastics were determined to wipe out all pagan influences in Christian learning. Though a middle path was possible for revival of culture, those who supported this were far too few. They aimed at harmonizing religion and culture by respecting the place that the Church had given to the classics in its own domain. However, they could not bring about the two warring sections to reconciliation. The humanists took the opportunity to shed the yoke that Christianity had required them to carry in the form of piety and restraint. Laurentius Valla (1405-57) in his work, *De Voluptate*, preached excesses that were in direct conflict with the teachings of the Church. He advocated indulgence and gratification of sensual desires as against self-restraint. His epicurean theory was accompanied by a rejection of the Pope and his authority. If this was not enough, Beccadelli went a step ahead and entirely devoted himself in the production of distasteful work against the Church.

   Others who unleashed polemic against the church were the likes of Poggio Bracciolini—who wrote *Facetiae*—and Fileflo. These men undermined Renaissance as a cultural movement and reduced it to a glorification of paganism to triumph over the church. Morality was now in shreds and these works were lapped up in Florence, Venice and Siena. In the later stages, a number of schools though bearing Christian names betrayed pagan influence. However, most of the times, it was not suspected as a rejection of religion but rather just their sophistry. What was apparent although was that Christianity was losing its followers. There were also a number of renowned people who made no effort to hide their leanings towards paganism. They

NOTES

were Carlo Marsuppini, Chancellor of Florence, Gemistos Plethon, who propounded the Platonic philosophy, Marsilio Ficino, Rinaldo degli Albizzi, and the members of the Roman Academy (1460), under the leadership of Pomponius Laetus. It was the moral degeneration of the age that prevented the suppression of these ideas in Italy.

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

Prominent Protestant Movements

The Protestant revolution was only one of the phases of the great movement known as the Reformation. The other was the Catholic Reformation, or the Counter Reformation. It was based on the assumption that the primary purpose of its leaders was to cleanse the Catholic Church in order to check the growth of Protestantism. Modern historians have shown that the beginnings of the movement for Catholic reforms were entirely independent of the Protestant revolt. During the closing years of the 15th Century, a religious revival was inaugurated in Spain by Cardinal Ximenes, with the approval of the monarchy. Schools were established, abuses were eliminated from the monasteries, and priests were urged to accept their responsibilities as 'shepherds of their flocks'.

The movement was launched chiefly for the purpose of strengthening the Church in the war against heretics and infields. However, it had considerable effect in regenerating the spiritual life of the nation. In Italy also, since the beginning of the 16th century attempts were being made to make the priests of the Church more

worthy of their Christian calling. But the task was difficult due to paganism of the Renaissance and the extravagance of the papal court. In spite of these obstacles, the movement did lead to the founding of several religious orders dedicated to high ideals of piety and social service.

The Catholic reform was slow until after the Protestant Revolution began to make serious inroads upon the ancient faith. The Catholics were baffled and dismayed by the great increase in heresy. Protestantism, together with a variety of radical sects, made inroads in almost half of the traditional Catholic nations of Europe, England, the Scandinavian countries Switzerland, much of Germany, Poland, and the Dutch speaking parts of the Netherland, had accepted the Protestant faith by the middle of the 16th century. Italy was not immune to Protestant teaching. Italy was headed by non-reforming popes, whose policy was dictated by family and secular interests.

Counter Reformation

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

Check Your Progress

1. Define the term 'reformation'.
2. Who are known as the Protestants?

4.3 OTHER COUNTRIES

The Reformation is often referred to as Protestant Reformation, the religious revolution that occurred during the sixteenth century in the Western church. The most prominent leaders of the revolution were Martin Luther and John Calvin. It had extensive political, economic, and social impact; the revolution provided the foundation for the establishment of Protestantism, which is a major branch of Christianity.

In the sixteenth century the scenario of the medieval Roman Catholic Church had become very complexed. In Western Europe the office of the papacy began to get extensively involved in political matters. The involvement resulted in conspiracies and began to manipulate the political matters. The church became

NOTES

powerful and wealthy but was drained of its spiritual strength. The spiritual authority of the church was undermined due to the increased level of corruption among the clergy men. Though people continued to seek spiritual comfort from the church and remained loyal but the increased political involvement was causing tension at some levels since the political authorities began to curb the role of public in the church.

The Reformation of the sixteenth century was not exceptional. There were many reformers in the medieval church like the St. Francis of Assisi, Valdes, Jan Hus, and John Wycliffe who had raised concern over the changing role of church prior to the year 1517. During the sixteenth century great humanist scholar, Erasmus of Rotterdam was among the main supporter of liberal Catholic reforms. He had condemned the prevalent superstitions of the church and insisted the simulated of Christ as the ultimate moral teacher. This clearly establishes the fact that many had tried to renew the church prior to Luther's post titled as Ninety-five Theses on October 31, 1517. It was posted on the door of the Castle Church, Wittenberg, Germany; this was also evening before the All Saints' Day. The date is regarded as the official date for starting of the Reformation.

Martin Luther felt that he was different from other reformers since he wanted to resolve the problem at the root levels of the theory of the church rather than just end the prevailing corruption that had become a part of the church life. With the help of his theses he condemned the indulgence system, asserting that the pope was not an authority above the purgatory and he also felt that the doctrine of the merits of the saints was baseless in the gospel. In 1521 Luther was expelled; what started as an in-house reform movement had soon turned into a splintering in western Christendom.

The Reformation movement spread fast in Germany, and various reform instincts rose unconventionally of Luther. In Zürich, Huldrych Zwingli constructed a Christian theocracy, the church and state merged for servicing of the God. Zwingli was in agreement with Luther about the uniqueness of the doctrine of justification by faith, but at the same time he also promoted an altered interpretation of the Holy Communion. According to the notion of Luther, the body of Christ was actually present in all origins since Christ had a presence in everything whereas Zwingli notion involved a spiritual presence of Christ and an affirmation of faith by the followers.

Anabaptists was another group of reformers, they asserted that baptism should be performed on adults who had established their faith in Christ rather than new-borns. They continued as a negligible phenomenon during the sixteenth century however lasted in spite of severe maltreatment as Mennonites and Hutterites up to the twenty-first century. Adversaries of the antediluvian Trinitarian creed also appeared, they were referred to as Socinians, named after their forefather, and they developed prosperous congregations, particularly in Poland.

NOTES

One more prominent form of Protestantism is referred to as Calvinism, titled after their founder John Calvin who was a French lawyer, he escaped from France when he began to promote the cause of Protestant. In 1536 Calvin took out the opening edition of his Institutes of the Christian Religion in Basel, Switzerland. This was the initial methodical, theological discourse of the new reform movement. Calvin consented with teachings of Luther over justification by faith. But, he initiated a new positive place for law in the Christianity than proposed by Luther. In Geneva, Calvin could put in practice his ideas in Geneva with the presence of an orderly community of the elect. He laid a lot of stress on the doctrine of predestination and understood Holy Communion as a spiritual sharing of the body and blood of Christ. Calvin and Zwingli came together in 1561 and presented their Reformed tradition in form of second Helvetic Confession.

The Reformation began to spread to other parts of Europe during the sixteenth century. Northern Europe was completely influenced with Lutheranism by the mid of the century. An extra radical form of Protestantism came to life in Eastern Europe. This was because of the weak monarchy, strength of the nobles and fewer cities and above all for a long time there was religious pluralism in these areas. Spain and Italy became hubs of countering Reformation, and thus Protestantism could not gain strength here.

Austria

Austria began to follow a similar arrangement as Germany and states in the Holy Roman Empire. The population began to follow the form promoted by Martin Luther. In these parts Calvinism could not gain momentum. In the end the espousal of the Anti-Reformation upturned the trend.

Czech Lands

The prominent representative of the Bohemian Reformation was Czech reformer and university professor Jan Hus. He is also regarded among the pioneers of the Protestant Reformation.

In 1415, Jan Hus was confirmed as heretic and was killed at the Council of Constance while he was freely defending his teachings.

Hussite movement was a religious movement started in order to confront the issues prevailing at the social front and also to strengthen the awareness among the people of Czech nations. Two years after the death of Jan Hus the Czech reformation began to pick up momentum all over the country.

The members of the Hussite movement were a large part of the local population and therefore they compelled the Council of Basel to acknowledge two systems of religions in 1437, for the first time the Compacts of Basel for the kingdom was signed, subsequently two Protestant kings were also elected. Once the region began to be controlled by the Habsburgs the Hussite churches were banned and some parts of the kingdom were non-Catholic. Once Lutheranism expanded several members of the movement affirmed themselves as Lutherans.

Czech Brethren and Czechoslovak Hussite Church are present day churches and their roots are found in the Hussite churches of the Reformation period. They are amongst the second and the third largest churches of the country.

NOTES

Switzerland

The teachings of both Zwingli and Calvin had a deep impact on the population of Switzerland, in spite of the regular differences among the two reformer's thinking on Reformation.

Reformation in Zürich

Along with the activity in Germany, the Swiss Confederation witnessed its own movement with Huldrych Zwingli at the helm of it. Zwingli relocated to Zurich in 1518, a year after Martin Luther started Reformation in Germany. There were a lot of similarities between the two reformers and their movement Zwinglianism seems to have a strange semblance to Lutheranism. But it is believed that the two never came face to face with each other. The German Prince Philip of Hesse did try to arrange a meeting between the two in 1529 (Colloquy of Marburg) and the meeting was a complete disaster as they could not formulate a common doctrine.

Even though Luther discoursed consubstantiation in the Eucharist above transubstantiation, he held that Christ was present everywhere. At the same time Zwingli was motivated by Dutch theologian Cornelius Hoen and he felt that mass was a form of representation of the Christ and it was present only in spiritual manner. His views had angered Luther. Few followers of Zwingli considered the Reformation to be extremely conservative and shifted towards Anabaptists.

Reformation in Republic of Geneva

One of the leading personalities for Reformation in Geneva was John Calvin; his legacy is visible in modern day churches as well. After the throwing out of Luther and Pope's condemnation of the Reformation, the effort and literatures of John Calvin were effective in formulation of an informal agreement between different groups in Switzerland, Scotland, Hungary, Germany and in various other places. In 1526 the Bishop was expelled and Berne reformer Guillaume (William) Farel was not able to bring order to the city of Geneva, help was sought from Calvin because of his law background to organise the city's administration. In his ordinances of 1541, Calvin collaborated the affairs of the Church and City council in order to establish morality in all aspects of life. In 1559 Geneva academy was established and then on it began to be regarded as the informal capital of the Protestant movement, giving shelter to all Protestant exiles from several parts of Europe and training them as Calvinist missionaries. The training helped in spreading Calvinism extensively, and helped in establishing the French Huguenots while Calvin was alive. The wide spread teachings also helped in conversion of Scotland with John Knox as its leader in 1560. Calvinism continued to spread even after John Calvin's demise in 1563 and by beginning of seventeenth century it has spread up to Constantinople.

NOTES

Nordic Countries

Protestantism in Denmark was introduced by Johannes Bugenhagen. All the countries in the Scandinavian region finally implemented Lutheranism by the end of the sixteenth century. This happened after the monarch adapted the faith. Norway, Iceland, Finland and Sweden were ruled by the same monarch.

In 1523, Reformation was led by Gustav Vasa in Sweden; he was the elected king at that time. The increasing interference of pope in political matters led to the discontinuation of formal association with the papacy. In 1527, at the Diet of Västerås, the king was successful in making the diet to consent his supremacy above the Church in the nation. He acquired the church property and all appointments of the church would require his consent. The clergy came under the civil law, and the ideas of Lutheran began to be preached in churches and schools.

Denmark was officially Catholic till 1533, when their ruler was Frederick I (1523–33), although in the beginning Frederick vowed to oppress Lutherans, he quickly assumed a policy about sheltering preachers and reformers of Lutheranism, among them Hans Tausen was the most prominent. During his reign, Lutheranism made noteworthy inroads during his reign with the people of Denmark. His son Christian was a complete Lutheran, as a result he was not able become the king after the death of his father. It was only in 1536 once the power of the Catholic bishops was ended by national assembly he became the king in 1537 and then with the guidance of Johannes Bugenhagen he sustained the Reformation of the church in the state.

Icelandic Reformation had started prior to the ruling of King Christian. In 1533 the Germans has established a Lutheran church in Hafnarfjörður. There were several citizens of Icelaand studying in Hamburg due to the German trade connections. In 1538, after the kingly ruling of the fresh Church ordinance got to Iceland, bishop Ögmundur and his clergy condemned it; they threatened expulsion for those giving in e to the German 'heresy'. In 1539, a new governor was sent to Iceland by the king. Klaus von Mervitz carried the mandate which authorised him to take over the church and also reform it.

Reformation in England

Reformation started in England once the Church of England was separated from Rome during the reign of Henry VIII; it started in 1529 and ended in 1537. The course of English Reformation was very different from the one followed in other parts continental Europe. Feeling of anti-clericalism had been brewing from long. England had already given rise to The Lollard movement of John Wycliffe, had already inspired the Hussites in Bohemia. Lollardy had been repressed and was only a concealed movement; this made the assessment of its influence a difficult task. The character of Reformation was different because of the role of henry VIII, for him it was a political requirement to promote the movement. Thomas Cranmer became vital for the development of the Reformation in England.

NOTES

Church of England was removed from the authority of Rome by Henry. In 1534, he became the supreme head under the Act of Supremacy. During the period between 1535 and 1540 Thomas Cromwell put in place the policy recognized as the Dissolution of the Monasteries. The reverence of towards few of the saints, pilgrimages and sites of pilgrim were attacked as well in this period. Property under the church was seized handed over to the Crown and noble population. Reformation by Henry was opposed by few reformers like Thomas More and Cardinal John Fisher; they paid with their life for their disagreement. There were few reformers who were followers of the doctrines of Calvinism, Lutheranism and Zwinglianism. Henry was succeeded by Edward VI, he was Protestant and he commanded that the images of the church should be destructed and the chantries should be closed. During his rule the Church of England stirred nearer to continental Protestantism.

On general level state of confusion continued on the religious front in England. Catholic Church was restored during the rule of Mary (1553–1558), a free consent was established during the rule of Elizabeth I, her religious beliefs fluctuated between severe Calvinism on one side and Catholicism on the other side. The state in England was better when compared with that of modern France. Due to the long reign of the queen the Reformation continued till the English Civil War of seventeenth century.

Oliver Cromwell was a not only a sincere Puritan but also a military leader and he became Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

The accomplishment of the Counter-Reformation in the Continent and the growing Puritan party helped in furthering the Protestant reform opposed during the Elizabethan Age, though it was only in 1640s that England experienced a religious friction that had been a part of other countries much earlier.

The Puritan movement was initially Calvinist in nature and its aim was to reform the Church of England. Its roots lay in the dissatisfaction which prevailed during the rule of Elizabeth. The aspiration was for the Church of England to bear a resemblance to other European Protestant churches, particularly Genevan model. The Puritans were not in favour of ornaments and ritual in the churches and they were against the ecclesiastical courts as well. In the later parts of the Puritan movement, which is sometimes called the dissenters and nonconformists, finally became the cause of forming several reformed denominations.

Welsh Reformation

Bishop Richard Davies and dissident Protestant cleric John Penry acquainted the population of wales with Calvinist theology. In 1588, complete bible was published in the Welsh by Bishop of Llandaff. The interpretation was very impactful for the population and aided in establishing Protestantism in Wales. Here the model of the Synod of Dort was used. The Puritan period saw the development of Calvinism after the renewal of the monarchy under Charles II, and in Calvinistic Methodist

movement of Wales But by the mid of nineteenth century only some of the copies of writing by Calvin were available.

Scottish Reformation

NOTES

Scottish Reformation flourished under the leadership of John Knox. He helped in establishing reforms in the church and away from the influence of the French political conditions. The pope's authority was repudiated by the Papal Jurisdiction Act 1560; the Act prohibited the celebration of the Mass and sanctioned a Protestant Confession of Faith. This was possible because of the revolution against French hegemony in the regime of the regent Mary of Guise.

Even though Protestantism prevailed quite effortlessly in Scotland, it was still not easy to determine its true form. During the seventeenth century there was a multifaceted struggle amid Presbyterianism and Episcopalianism. The control of the church in Scotland was subsequently taken over by Presbyterians and this helped in keeping the Episcopalians in minority.

Reformed Church of France

Catholic clergyman Cardinal Richelieu helped in aligning France with Protestant states. Protestantism spread into France from Germany, here it was also referred to as Huguenots; the reforming of church also led years of civil wars in France.

Francis I (ruled 1515–1547) was not too keen on religious reforms personally yet he did not oppose them as he considered them to be a part of humanist movement. This altered in 1534 with the Affair of the Placards. According to the act, Protestants condemned the Catholic Mass in posters that were visible in various parts of France; they even reached the apartment of the royals. The subject of religious faith began to affect the political scenario, this made Francis realise the threat the movement posed to the stability of his kingdom. With this began the chief phase of anti-Protestant oppression in France, in this the "Burning Chamber" was established (1535) in the Parliament of Paris in order to tackle the rising issue of heresy. Many French Protestants escaped the country, among them was John Calvin; he migrated to Basel in 1535 and finally settled in Geneva a year later.

Even after leaving his country, Calvin maintained keen interest in its religious matters; he continued to train his missionaries away from the reach of the King. In spite of substantial oppression by King Henry II of France (reigned 1547–1559), the Reformed Church of France, mostly Calvinist in direction, made stable development in different parts of France. The aim was to appeal to the people to free themselves from the implacability and the self-righteousness of the Catholic Church.

French Protestantism developed even under oppression, it began to adopt a very political character and this became very evident with the transformations of nobles in the 1550s. This created the prerequisites for a number of negative and

NOTES

recurrent conflicts; these came to be known as the Wars of Religion. In 1559, after the death of Henry II the civil wars began to gain momentum. This started a long period of weak monarchies in France. The period was filled with atrocities and outrage. It was very evident in 1572 when in August; St. Bartholomew's Day massacre took place and the Catholic party crushed more than 100,000 Huguenots all over France. The wars ended only once Henry IV, who was also a Huguenot previously, delivered the Edict of Nantes (1598), this promised to tolerate the Protestant minority officially though this tolerance came with many restrictions and conditions. Catholicism continued to remain the religion of the state officially and the wealth of the French Protestants slowly reduced in the following century and came to a complete end with Louis XIV's Edict of Fontainebleau in 1685, with this the Edict of Nantes was revoked and France was declared a catholic state. In October 1685 Frederick William I, Elector of Brandenburg responded to the Edict of Fontainebleau by declaring the Edict of Potsdam, this gave free passage to refugees of Huguenot refugees and exempted them from paying taxes for the next ten years.

During the seventeenth century several Huguenots escaped to England, Netherlands, Prussia, Switzerland, and to the colonies of English and Dutch situated overseas. A substantial community in France continued to stay in the region of Cévennes. A discrete Protestant community belonging to the Lutheran faith began to stay in the freshly acquired province of Alsace, and their status did not change with the Edict of Fontainebleau.

Spanish Reformation

During the beginning of sixteenth century, Spain's political and cultural environment was very different from its neighbours and this also had an impact on the minds of the people about the Reformation movement. Spain had only recently accomplished to re-conquest of the Peninsula from the Moors recently and was busy with conversion of its Muslim and Jewish population living in the newly acquired land. The monarchs of the country wanted to reinforce unity in all aspects political as well as religious and cultural unity. During the time Reformation by Luther started Spain had in the forty years managed to deal with the fresh movement that had been interpreted by the Catholic Church as heterodoxy of religion. Charles V was not in favour of dividing Spain or Habsburg parts of Europe. He was aware about the continuous threat from the Ottomans and wanted to reform the Catholic Church from inside. This steered the Counter-Reformation in Spain during the 1530s. In the 1520s, the Spanish Inquisition had produced an environment that was filled with suspicion and wanted to stop development of suspicious thoughts about religion. In the starting of 1521, the Pope had warned the monarch from encouraging unrest in northern parts of Europe as he felt that the same would be repeated in Spain. Starting from 1520 till the 1550, there was a tight control over the printing presses and books carrying Protestant teaching were banned.

NOTES

During 1530 and 1540, Protestantism in Spain managed to have secret followers. The followers clandestinely met in cities of Seville and Valladolid, they would pray and read the Bible during these meetings that were held in private houses. The number of Protestants in Spain was around three thousand and they were mainly intellects who were familiar with the work of Erasmus. Some of the prominent reformers comprised of Dr. Juan Gil and Juan Pérez de Pineda, they consequently escaped and operated along with reformers such as Francisco de Enzinas in order to interpret the Greek New Testament into the Spanish, and this work was finished by 1556. Protestant teachings were brought to Spain secretly by Spanish men like Julián Hernández; he was denounced and burnt by the Inquisition in 1557. During the rule of Philip II, conservatives in the Spanish church tighten up their hold, and people like Rodrigo de Valer were sentenced to life imprisonment. In May 1559, Spanish followers of Lutheranism were killed by strangulation and then were burnt, some were even burnt alive. Many Spanish Protestants fled and settled in other parts of Europe. The ones who fled to Geneva began to follow the Calvinist teachings and the ones who landed up in England began to back the Church of England. The Kingdom of Navarre began to support Calvinism.

Reformation in Portugal was not a success and some of the reasons for its failure were similar to that of Spain.

Reformation in Netherlands

The Reformation in the Netherlands was not started by the monarchs of the Seventeen Provinces; rather it was an outcome of many famous movements instigated by refugees of Protestantism from different parts of Europe. In the beginning years of the Reformation, the Anabaptist movement revelled in acceptance. During the 1560s Calvinism, in shape of the Dutch Reformed Church gained popularity. This lasted only till the initial years of seventeenth century, with a conflict between two tendencies of Calvinism, the Gomarists and the liberal Arminians, caused Gomarist Calvinism to become the state religion.

Reformation in Belgium

Severe oppression of Protestants by Philip II's government sparked the urgency for independence in the outlying areas; this became the cause of the Eighty Years' War and, finally, the split-up of the chiefly Protestant Dutch Republic from the Catholic-dominated Southern Netherlands which is the modern day Belgium. In 1566 there were approximately 300,000 Protestants in Belguim.

Reformation did not take place in Luxembourg, it was a part of the Spanish Netherlands, continued to be a Catholic state.

Reformation in Hungary

The Holy Roman Emperor was stopped by Stephen when he tried to impose Catholicism in Hungary. By the sixteenth century majority of the population had

NOTES

embraced Protestantism. The Battle of Mohács of 1526 left the population of Hungray completely disheartened as the government was not able to safeguard their faith. Thus they were attracted towards the faith that infused them with power required for resisting the intruder in future. The teachings of Protestant reformers like Martin Luther gave them encouragement. The ethnic German minority living in Hungary helped in spreading Protestantism in the country. These minority groups were able to interpret and explain the writings of Martin Luther. Lutheranism became popular amongst the people who were German and Slovakians, whereas the ethnic Hungarians adopted Calvinism.

In the sovereign north-western parts, the monarchs and clerics, sheltered under the Habsburg Monarchy, they had also fought the Turks, continued to defend the timeworn Catholic faith. They hauled the Protestants in the prison and burnt them alive whenever they got the opportunity. Such actions led to severe protests. The Protestantism was led by leaders like Mátyás Dévai Bíró, Mihály Sztárai, István Szegedi Kis, and Ferenc Dávid.

By the end of sixteenth century majority of the Hungarian population has turned into Protestants, though this did not last. The seventeenth century the efforts of Counter-Reformation gained momentum and the majority of the population was again supporting Catholicism. Although a substantial Protestant minority continued in the country and by now they all were followers of Calvinism.

In 1558, the Transylvanian Diet of Turda announced free practice of the Catholic and Lutheran religions, however Calvinism was banned. In 1568, the Diet stretched this freedom to all four religions and the fourth religion was Unitarianism, this was made official in 1583 as the faith of the solitary Unitarian king, John II Sigismund Zápolya, r. 1540–1571, though Eastern Orthodox Christianity was endured and constructing Orthodox churches using stone was not allowed. In the course of the Thirty Years' War, Royal Hungary united with the Catholic side, till Transylvania united with the Protestant side. The period between 1604 and 1711 witnessed a succession of anti-Habsburg revolutions demanding for equality of rights and independence for all Christian denominations, these revolutions were a success to some extent and most of them were frequently planned from Transylvania.

Reformation in Romania

The modern day Romania was Transylvania during that period and it was considered to be a place for transporting people who were not willing to be a part of the Habsburg or the Catholic Church. They were considered unwanted by the Habsburg monarchy. This practice over the centuries helped in gathering Protestants belonging to Lutheranism, Calvinism and even Unitarianism in Romania.

Reformation in Ukraine

The south-western parts of Hungary made up the present day Ukraine and people in the area were followers of Calvinism. Though Calvinists were in the north-

western regions of the country as well but they were soon removed due to the impact of Poland's Counter-reformation.

Reformation in Belarus

NOTES

The initial Protestant gathering was started in Brest-Litovsk in the Reformed institution. Here also Protestantism came to an end with the Counter-Reformation in Poland.

Reformation in Ireland

A fervent Catholic, Mary I of England initiated the initial Plantations of Ireland, these as luck would have it were also closely linked with Protestantism.

The Reformation in Ireland began as a drive meant for reforming the institutions and religious life of people. They were introduced by the administration on the initiative of King Henry VIII of England. He began the drive when the Pope Clement VII rejected the petition for annulment of his marriage. This compelled the king to establish his supremacy over the Catholic Church so that he could legally end his marriage. The supremacy was confirmed by the English Parliament. This act challenged the Papal authority and was seen as a fissure with the Catholic Church. In 1541, the Irish Parliament had decided to bring about a change in the status of the country, now it began to be Kingdom of Ireland.

Most of the changes that became a part of English Reformation in Ireland were an outcome of changed government policies and these changes were slowly adapted by the people. It was not easy to adapt to the religious innovations for the people as most of them were Catholic. Reformation in the city of Dublin took place with the support of George Browne.

Reformation in Italy

Though the awareness about Protestant reformers had been there in Italy even during the 1520s but people did not react towards and for this reason it never really started and any future chances were completely ended with the starting of Counter-Reformation, the Inquisition and moreover general lack of concern among the people. The Church in Italy made sure that strong Protestant leadership could not formulate and it aggressively suppressed heresy. The Bible was not translated in Italian by anyone, only a few tracts were inscribed. There was no emergence of a central Protestantism. The handful of preachers attracted to Lutheranism was rapidly repressed and some were exiled to northern parts of the country. Dye to these factors Reformation did not have a lasting impact in Italy rather it helped in further consolidation of the Catholic Church and encouraged the Counter-Reformation thoroughly.

Reformation in Poland and Lithuania

During the initial years of the sixteenth century, the population of vast Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth was made up of various faiths; however Catholicism

NOTES

continued to be the religion of the majority. Reformation landed up in Poland during the 1520s and rapidly became popular amongst the cities where there was majority of German speaking people, these included Danzig, Thorn and Elbing. In 1530 a small Catechism of Luther was published in Polish language in Königsberg. The Territory of Prussia also a Polish fief, developed as an important centre for the movement, many publishing houses began to issue translated copies of Bibles and Catechisms. They were available in not just Polish language but also in German and Lithuanian. The northern parts of the country were influenced by Lutheranism; meanwhile Calvinism began to attract the nobles settled in Lesser Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. As a result many printing houses began to function in these areas by middle of the sixteenth century. Few came up in localities of S³omniki and Raków as well. During this time Poland was visited by Mennonites and Czech Brothers. The Czech Brothers settled in Greater Poland near Leszno. In 1565, the Polish Brethren emerged as one more movement for reformation.

The Commonwealth during that time was exceptional as it had vast tolerance provided under the Warsaw Confederation. In 1563, the Brest Bible was printed. The phase of tolerance came to an end when King Sigismund III Vasa became the ruler; he was strongly influenced by Piotr Skarga and other Jesuits. The period post Deluge, and wars during the middle of seventeenth century changed the attitude of the ruler in the country, the enemies during these wars were mostly Protestant and Orthodox Christians. The Counter-Reformation started to prevail and as a result in 1658 the Polish Brethren were compelled to go from the country, and in 1666, the Sejm debarred apostasy from Catholicism to any of the other religions, failure to comply will be punished with death penalty. As a final point, in 1717, the Silent Sejm debarred non-Catholics from being recruited as deputies in the Parliament. The most prominent Protestants of the country were Miko³aj Rej, Marcin Czechowic, Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski and Symon Budny.

Reformation in Moldavia

The Reformation in Moldavia was not significant at all and it had a congregation of Hussitism and Calvinism had found base in areas around Besserabia.

Reformation in Slovenia

The most notable figure of Slovenian Reformation was Primož Trubar, he contributed in consolidation of the Slovene language and was regarded as a significant personality in the cultural history of Slovenia. He also was the main figure in the Protestant Church of the country as it had been founded by him and he began the first superintendent of the Church. He was the author of the earliest books titled as Catechismus and Abecedarium.

Reformation in Slovakia

There was a time when major part of the population in Slovakia were influenced by Lutheranism. People influenced by Calvinism were settled in the southernmost

parts which is the modern day Slovakia. In those days Slovakia was a part of the Kingdom of Hungary. The Counter-Reformation instigated by the Habsburgs relentlessly smashed Slovakian Protestantism; even during 2010s Protestants remained a passable minority in the region.

Reformation in Croatia

Lutheranism touched only the northern parts of the country.

Reformation in Serbia was limited and Vojvodina was Lutheran in a partial way only.

Reformation in Greece

In 1629, the Protestant teachings of the Western Church were adopted for a short time in the Eastern Orthodox Church with the help of the Greek Patriarch Cyril Lucaris. This happened due to the publishing of the Confessio, Calvinistic doctrine, in Geneva. Reformation was adopted because of rivalry that had been a part of the histroy and mistrust amongst the Greek Orthodox and Catholic Church together with their worries of Jesuit priests arriving in Greek lands and promoting the teachings of the Counter-Reformation among the Greek people. He consequently supported Maximos of Gallipoli's translation of the New Testament into the Modern Greek language and in 1638 it was published in Geneva. After the death of Lucaris in 1638, the conservative groups inside the Eastern Orthodox Church carried two synods: the Synod of Constantinople (1638) and Synod of Jassy (1642), they criticised any form of reforms and finally in1672 convocation headed by Dositheos, the Calvinistic doctrines were officially condemned.

Reformation began to spread in all parts of Europe as soon as it started in 1517, it reached its peak during 1545 and 1620, and the movement ended in 1648.

Check Your Progress

3. Name the most prominent leaders of the reformation revolution.
4. What is Calvinism?

4.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Reformation, the term, means an effort to bring about a change. In the context of European history, it emerged in the 16th century as a movement against the increasing corruption within the Catholic Church, the evil practises and rites and rituals that it imposed upon the people in order to maintain its supremacy.

NOTES

2. Those who protested against the malpractices of the Catholic Church and sought reform came to be known as Protestants and eventually Protestantism became a branch of Christianity.
3. The most prominent leaders of the revolution were Martin Luther and John Calvin.
4. Calvinism is a major branch of Protestantism that follows the theological tradition and forms of Christian practice set down by John Calvin and other Reformation-era theologians. Calvinists broke from the Roman Catholic Church in the 16th century.

4.5 SUMMARY

- Capitalist countries were amongst the first to break away from the Catholic Church.
- A prominent supporter of Reformation was John Calvin. In keeping with the spirit of the times, he supported the ills perpetuated by capitalism like slavery and colonial expansion.
- In the context of European history, it emerged in the 16th century as a movement against the increasing corruption within the Catholic Church, the evil practises and rites and rituals that it imposed upon the people in order to maintain its supremacy.
- The Reformation movement saw the setting up of new protestant churches in opposition to the rigid ecclesiastical order of the Catholic Church.
- The Protestant revolution was only one of the phases of the great movement known as the Reformation.
- The other was the Catholic Reformation, or the Counter Reformation.
- The Catholic reform was slow until after the Protestant Revolution began to make serious inroads upon the ancient faith.
- With the Reformation movement targeting the Roman Catholic Church and enlisting support of the middle class, it became necessary for the Catholic Church to take measures to salvage itself.
- Reformation is often referred to as Protestant Reformation, the religious revolution that occurred during the sixteenth century in the Western church.
- Austria began to follow a similar arrangement as Germany and states in the Holy Roman Empire. The population began to follow the form promoted by Martin Luther.
- The prominent representative of the Bohemian Reformation was Czech reformer and university professor Jan Hus. He is also regarded among the pioneers of the Protestant Reformation.

NOTES

- One of the leading personalities for Reformation in Geneva was John Calvin; his legacy is visible in modern day churches as well.
- Protestantism in Denmark was introduced by Johannes Bugenhagen. All the countries in the Scandinavian region finally implemented Lutheranism by the end of the sixteenth century.
- Reformation started in England once the Church of England was separated from Rome during the reign of Henry VIII; it started in 1529 and ended in 1537.
- Bishop Richard Davies and dissident Protestant cleric John Penry acquainted the population of wales with Calvinist theology.
- Catholic clergyman Cardinal Richelieu helped in aligning France with Protestant states. Protestantism spread into France from Germany, here it was also referred to as Huguenots; the reforming of church also led years of civil wars in France.
- The Reformation in the Netherlands was not started by the monarchs of the Seventeen Provinces; rather it was an outcome of many famous movements instigated by refugees of Protestantism from different parts of Europe.
- The modern day Romania was Transylvania during that period and it was considered to be a place for transporting people who were not willing to be a part of the Habsburg or the Catholic Church.
- The initial Protestant gathering was started in Brest-Litovsk in the Reformed institution. Here also Protestantism came to an end with the Counter-Reformation in Poland.
- Reformation began to spread in all parts of Europe as soon as it started in 1517, it reached its peak during 1545 and 1620, and the movement ended in 1648.

4.6 KEY WORDS

- **Capitalism:** Capitalism is an economic system based on the private ownership of the means of production and their operation for profit.
- **Protestantism:** Protestantism is the second largest form of Christianity with collectively between 800 million and more than 900 million adherents worldwide or nearly 40% of all Christians. It originated with the 16th century Reformation, a movement against what its followers perceived to be errors in the Roman Catholic Church.
- **Humanism:** Humanism is a philosophical and ethical stance that emphasizes the value and agency of human beings, individually and collectively, and generally prefers critical thinking and evidence over acceptance of dogma or superstition.

4.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

NOTES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the various causes of the Reformation?
2. Write a short note on the counter-reformation.
3. What do the Anabaptists believe?
4. Why the character of Reformation was different in England?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain how corruption in the church became the cause of the reformation?
2. Discuss the various prominent protestant movements.
3. Write an essay on the Hussite movement.
4. Describe the role of the reformation in Zürich.
5. Describe the Welsh Reformation and Scottish Reformation.

4.8 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.)*. London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

UNIT 5 EFFECTS OF COUNTER-REFORMATION

NOTES

Structure

5.0 Introduction
5.1 Objectives
5.2 Counter-Reformation
5.3 Effects of Counter-Reformation
5.4 Philip II of Spain
5.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
5.6 Summary
5.7 Key Words
5.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
5.9 Further Readings

5.0 INTRODUCTION

The Counter-Reformation has been referred to as the Catholic Reformation and the Catholic Revival. It denotes the period when the Church began its resurgence; Protestant Reformation had challenged the authority of the Catholic Church in Europe during the sixteenth century. The Protestant Reformation had started with the Council of Trent (1545–1563) and ended only in 1648 after the closing of the Thirty Years' War. In this unit, you will study about the effects of the Counter-Reformation on Europe.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the effects of the Counter-Reformation on Europe
- Discuss the significant events of the reign of Philip II of Spain

5.2 COUNTER-REFORMATION

The Counter-Reformation had started not only to safeguard the authority, power and wealth that had been a part of the Catholic Church but also to provide a theological and physical challenge to Reformation. The Counter-Reformation was a wide-ranging effort comprising five main components, namely:

(i) Protection of Catholic sacramental practice;

(ii) Ecclesiastical or structural reconfiguration;

(iii) Religious orders;

(iv) Spiritual movements;

(v) Political magnitudes

NOTES

These components also contained the basis of institutions that would provide adequate training for the spiritual aspects of a priest's life and make them understand the theological traditions of the Church.

The Counter-Reformation included political activities as well these covered by the Roman Inquisition. One basic mission of Counter-Reformation was to spread to all parts of the world that were under colonial rule and were essentially Catholic and the attempt was to convert regions of Sweden and England back to Catholicism; these had converted into Protestant states during Reformation.

Some of the theologians of the Counter-Reformation stressed upon defending doctrinal positions only like the sacraments and religious practices that had been attacked by the reformers of Protestant.

The Counter-Reformation was successful in weakening Protestantism in Poland, France, Italy, Ireland, and the vast lands under the control of the Habsburgs containing Austria, southern Germany, Bohemia, the Spanish Netherlands, now Belgium, Croatia, and Slovenia. Prominently, it was unsuccessful in Hungary; here even today a substantial minority of Protestant continues to live, even though Catholics have the majority amongst the Christian denomination.

5.3 EFFECTS OF COUNTER-REFORMATION

The Counter-Reformation is commonly assumed to have started from Pope Paul III (1534-1549), who sanctioned the Society of Jesus in1540. In 1542, he created the Roman Inquisition and instigated the Council of Trent in 1545. It sustained up till the preachment of Sixtus V (1585-1590). Philip II, King of Spain (1556-1598) was a strong political supporter of the Counter-Reformation.

The Counter-Reformation was extensively effective in constructing the Church in South America and Asia mostly because of the missionary efforts of Jesuits. But it was not able to bring an end to Protestantism in Europe. The Counter-Reformation really re-energized faith and devoutness but due to its Inquisition it had a negative side as well. However, as Catholic Reformation the movement had intended to bring reforms similar to that of Protestant Reformation, although the path chosen to bring about the change was not the same. The benefits were anyhow aimed at bringing the Catholic Churches closer to the Protestant Churches.

The three major instruments of the Counter-Reformation were The Council of Trent, the Roman Inquisition and the Society of Jesus.

NOTES

Pope Paul III (1534-1549) started the Council of Trent (1545-1547, 1551-1552, 1562-1563), a directive of cardinals functioning to bring institutional reform, to deal with the antagonistic issues, like corruption among the bishops and priests, absolutions and other monetary misuses. The Council noticeably rejected particular Protestant post and supported the elementary arrangement of the Medieval Church, along with its sacramental system, religious orders and doctrine. It overruled all co-operations with the Protestants, reaffirming elementary doctrines of Medieval Catholicism. The Council plainly supported the doctrine of salvation taken by faith and works. Transubstantiation, which embraces that in the course of communion or the mass the sacred bread and wine substantively converts into the body and blood of Christ, was supported, together with the Seven Sacraments. All the remaining Catholic practices drawing the wrath of open-minded reformers in the Church, like tolerances, journeys, the adoration of saints and relics, and the adoration of the Virgin Mary, were intensely endorsed as well.

The Council, through its actions, renounced the multiplicity of the secular Renaissance Church. The Council tightened the organization of the religious institutions, improved the discipline of the parish. The bishops were no longer selected for political gains. Efforts were made to reduce the institutional rigidness of the Church. The Council tried to control the 'absenteeism,' that had been practiced by bishops residing in Rome. The Council authorized the bishops to control all matters of religious life. Enthusiastic bishops like Archbishop Charles Borromeo of Milan (1538-1584), was subsequently idolized as a saint. He became an ideal by touring parishes in remote areas and establishing high standards.

In 1542, Paul III set up the Roman Inquisition; he was suggested by Cardinal Caraffa as he was very impressed with the effectiveness of the Spanish Inquisition established in 1479 by Ferdinand V and Isabella. The aim was to subdue Italian Lutheran heretics. There were six Inquisitors in the Holy Office of the Roman Inquisition and they were autonomous from bishops in their authority and had the authority to punish everyone excluding the Pope. Cardinal Caraffa had functioned as Inquisitor General and eventually he became Pope Paul IV (1555-1559). He had made up his mind about punishing the high ranked heretics in a severe manner. This also served as an example for those in smaller ranks. The Inquisition was at its peak while Pope Pius V (1566-1572), the Italian Protestants were not speared. The Inquisition also made a list of prohibited books and censorship was practiced extensively. Paul IV is occasionally considered as the first Pope of the Counter-Reformation since he was so deeply involved in the task of eliminating Protestantism. The approach based on Inquisition was a reflection of the path towards absolutism that became the feature of the Catholic Church during the sixteenth century.

New religious orders became an essential part of this movement. Prior to the establishment of Paul III, religious orders like the Capuchins, the Theatines, and the Barnabites had been initiated. These helped in strengthening the parishes

NOTES

in the rural areas, enhanced general devotion, assisted in controlling corruption inside the Church, and helped in paving the path for the renewal of Catholic Church. The Capuchins was a branch of the Franciscan order famous for their propagandising and for being concerned about the poor and the sick, developed swiftly in size as well as popularity. The foundation of the Capuchin order was laid on imitating the life of Jesus as explained in the Gospels. The Theatines was order involving priests who were known for their devotion and they helped in controlling the heresy from spreading and contributed towards renewal of the clergy. The Ursulines was established 1535 and all the focus was on education especially of girls. All these orders helped in strengthening the faith and the works of the Counter-Reformation. They strongly renounced the sola scriptura of the Protestants highlighted by Lutherans and other groups of Protestant. They helped in increasing the effectiveness of the Church and re-established the essential boundaries of the Medieval Church. There is no denying the fact that the Counter-Reformation helped in truly reviving the Catholic devoutness. In spite of being closely involved in Inquisition; Pius V helped in improving general faithfulness so that the charm of Protestantism could be reduced.

The use of polyphony in the Lutheran Church music was prohibited by the Council of Trent. This was done in order to maintain simplicity as it made the words more audible. Due to his mastery of music and his skilful setting of words, Giovanni Pierluigi da Palestrina (1525/26-1594), created a six-part polyphonic mass, tilted as the 'Pope Marcellus Mass' of 1555 and with this he proved that polyphony was harmonious with the directives of the Counter-Reformation. As per the legend, the aim of this composition was to convince the Council of Trent that a prohibition on polyphony was not required.

The question about the Counter-Reformation being a success or a failure is frequently raised. As far as the growth of the Church is considered, it was partially both. In Asia and South America, it was successful as the followers of Catholicism increased. This was possible due to the efforts of spirited and forceful Jesuit missionaries. It was not such a success in Northern Europe as there was an increase in the number of Protestants. The movement managed to retain its followers in France, Poland, Southern Germany, Italy and Spain. Another level of its success is measured by realizing how far it was able to develop spirituality among people. On this level, it may be regarded successful as it helped in truly reviving the devotedness among people with the help of significant spiritualists such as St. Philip Neri, St. Teresa of Avila, and St. John of the Cross. However, no one can deny the oppressive side of the Counter-Reformation, for instance, the Roman Inquisition. This left a long-lasting negative effect and tarnished its history. The Inquisition continued as late as the nineteenth century, and the First Vatican Council (1868) that approved of the papal solidity and Pope Pius IX's Syllabus of Errors also continued for so long. It was only with the Second Vatican Council (1962-1965) that the openness of the Catholic Church developed for others in the world.

It will not be wrong to state that both Catholic and Protestant Reformations had similar reasons for their onset and as a result their goals were similar as well. Both wanted to bring about changes in the functioning of the Church. The fact that the Church of today is very different from the one that existed during the sixteenth century and people like Martin Luther and John Calvin raised their voice against its atrocities proves the fact that Counter-Reformation had a positive impact in some ways. The two Churches came closer.

Check Your Progress

1. Name the five main components of counter-reformation.
2. Mention the three major instruments of counter-reformation.

5.4 PHILIP II OF SPAIN

Philip II was born in 1527 in Spain. He was the King of Spain (1556–98), King of Portugal (1581–98), King of Naples and Sicily (1554), and King of England and Ireland 'by right of (his) wife' through his marriage to Queen Mary I from 1554 to 1558. He also became the Duke of Milan and in 1555 he also became the lord of the Seventeen Provinces of Netherlands.

He was the son of Holy Roman Emperor and King of Spain Charles V and Isabella of Portugal. Philip was titled 'Felipe el Prudente' ('Philip the Prudent') in Spain. His kingdom comprised of territories on every single continent at that time known to Europeans, as well as his name-sake the Philippines. During his rule, Spain was influential as well as wealthy. His period is referred to as the Golden era of Spain. The phrase 'the empire on which the sun never sets' was created to describe the period of his reign in order to describe the extent of his kingdom.

In the course of his reign, there were economic failures, these occurred in 1557, 1560, 1569, 1575 and 1596. These also subsequently became the cause of the declaration of independence as a result of which the Dutch Republic was created in 1581. Philip signed the Treaty of Joinville in 1584 on December 31 with Henry I, Duke of Guise signing on behalf of the Catholic League. Subsequently, Philip provided a substantial yearly grant to the League for a period of ten years in order to sustain the French civil war. He signed the treaty as he hoped that this would end Calvinism in France. Philip was a devoted Catholic and he felt that it was his moral duty to protect Catholic Europe from the Ottoman Empire and the Protestant Reformation. In 1588, he sent a huge fleet to defeat Protestant in England. His aim was also to overthrow Elizabeth I of England and the establishments of Protestantism in England. He wanted to end not only the interference of the English but also that of the Spanish Netherlands.

The foreign policies of Philip were outlined by a blend of Catholic dedication and dynastic intentions. He regarded himself as the principal defender of Catholic Europe against not only the Ottoman Turks but also against the forces of the Protestant Reformation. He under no circumstances relented from his fighting against heresy, protecting the Catholic faith and controlling freedom of worship inside his territories. These territories comprised the Netherlands. Here Protestantism had been rooted deeply. After the Revolt of the Netherlands in 1568, Philip conducted an operation against Dutch heresy and secession. The English and the French were also dragged into it sometimes and he soon extended up to the German Rhineland after the Cologne War. Conflicts were a prominent part of his reign and as a result due to this there were severe economic issues and many instances of bankruptcies.

The English defeated the Spanish fleet sent by Philip in 1588, upsetting his intended attack of the country in order to re-establish Catholicism. However, war with England lasted for sixteen years. It also involved other countries and ended only when the leaders of the countries involved in the war died. During his reign, he did manage to win against the Turks in 1571 at Lepanto. The victory was also due to the involvement of the Holy league fleet. During his reign, he managed to secure the throne of Portugal as well.

Check Your Progress

3. In which year was Philip II born?
4. Mention the two parties who signed the Treaty of Joinville in 1584.

5.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The five main components of Counter-Reformation are the following:
   (i) Protection of Catholic sacramental practice;
   (ii) Ecclesiastical or structural reconfiguration;
   (iii) Religious orders;
   (iv) Spiritual movements;
   (v) Political magnitudes
2. The three major instruments of Counter-Reformation were: The Council of Trent, the Roman Inquisition and the Society of Jesus.
3. Philip II was born in 1527 in Spain.
4. Philip signed the Treaty of Joinville in 1584 on December 31 with Henry I, Duke of Guise signing on behalf of the Catholic League.

5.6 SUMMARY

- The Counter-Reformation has been referred to as the Catholic Reformation and the Catholic Revival.
- The Counter-Reformation had started not only to safeguard the authority, power and wealth that had been a part of the Catholic Church but also to provide a theological and physical challenge to Reformation.
- Some of the theologians of the Counter-Reformation stressed upon defending doctrinal positions only like the sacraments and religious practices that had been attacked by the reformers of Protestant.
- The Counter-Reformation is commonly assumed to have started from Pope Paul III (1534-1549), who sanctioned the Society of Jesus in1540.
- The three major instruments of the Counter-Reformation were The Council of Trent, the Roman Inquisition and the Society of Jesus.
- The Council, through its actions, renounced the multiplicity of the secular Renaissance Church.
- In 1542, Paul III set up the Roman Inquisition; he was suggested by Cardinal Caraffa as he was very impressed with the effectiveness of the Spanish Inquisition established in 1479 by Ferdinand V and Isabella.
- The use of polyphony in the Lutheran Church music was prohibited by the Council of Trent. This was done in order to maintain simplicity as it made the words more audible.
- It will not be wrong to state that both Catholic and Protestant Reformations had similar reasons for their onset and as a result their goals were similar as well.

NOTES

5.7 KEY WORDS

- **Transubstantiation:** The miraculous change by which according to Roman Catholic and Eastern Orthodox dogma, the Eucharistic elements at their consecration become the body and blood of Christ while keeping only the appearances of bread and wine.
- **Renaissance:** It refers to the revival of European art and literature under the influence of classical models in the 14th–16th centuries.
- **Protestant:** This refers to a member or follower of any of the Western Christian Churches that are separate from the Roman Catholic Church in accordance with the principles of the Reformation, including the Baptist, Presbyterian, and Lutheran Churches.

NOTES

5.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Define the term counter-reformation.
2. Write a short note on the origin of the movement of counter-reformation.
3. Mention the significant events of the reign of Philip II of Spain.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Do you think counter-reformation was successful in weakening Protestantism in Europe? Give reasons for your answer.
2. Critically analyse the success of the counter-reformation movement.

5.9 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.)*. London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

UNIT 6 POLICIES OF PHILIP II

NOTES

Structure

6.0 Introduction
6.1 Objectives
6.2 Internal and Foreign Policies during the Reign of Philip II of Spain
  6.2.1 Method of Internal Administration
  6.2.2 Foreign Policy of Philip II
6.3 Dutch War of Independence (1568-1648)
6.4 Decline of Spain
6.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
6.6 Summary
6.7 Key Words
6.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
6.9 Further Readings

6.0 INTRODUCTION

As discussed in the previous unit, Philip II (1527–1598) was the King of Spain (1556–98), King of Portugal (1581–98), the King of Naples and Sicily (both from 1554), and the King of England and Ireland (due to his marriage to Queen Mary I from 1554–58). During his reign, Spain was at its zenith of influence and power. That is why it is often called the Spanish Golden Age. The expression, 'the empire on which the sun never sets, was in fact, coined during Philip's time. Thus, Philip was often called the 'Felipe el Prudente' or 'Philip the Prudent' in Spain.

To call the time during the reign of Philip II, volatile, would be an understatement. The relationship of Spain with the England, Portugal, France, and Dutch people was nothing short of a game of thrones. His reign saw alliances being made every day and being broken off as quickly. The endless ambitions of Philip were the reason behind the constant upheaval. Although, there were numerous victories, the splendour of Spain, ultimately declined, due to financial constraints. We will discuss Philip II's internal and external policies, the Dutch war of independence as well as Spain's decline in this unit.

6.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Understand the conditions during the reign of Philip II
- Analyze the Dutch war of Independence
- Discuss the decline of Spain

6.2 INTERNAL AND FOREIGN POLICIES DURING THE REIGN OF PHILIP II OF SPAIN

NOTES

In 1540, Philip II acquired the Dukedom of Milan from Charles V and after entering into matrimony with Mary of England in 1554, he also received the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. On October 25, 1555, Charles handed over the Netherlands to Philip II and by January 16, 1556, the empires of Spain and all overseas dominions were also controlled by him. He soon acquired the Franche-Comté as well. He became evasive to wars during the war with France in 1557, in which he won Saint-Quentin. However, this did not make him completely shy away from wars as he kept fighting other wars, in absence of any other option. When he returned to Spain in 1559 from his visit to the Netherlands, he continued to stay at Iberian Peninsula. He began to rule his kingdom from here on, with the help of the officials. Consequently, his population never got a chance to come in contact with him, which soon turned them hostile towards the King as well as his ministers.

6.2.1 Method of Internal Administration

Philip II worked very hard in order to get rid of the defects existing in the administrative system. He became popular amongst his successors for the way he functioned, as it tremendously slowed the system that was already famous for its dilatoriness. All communication was carried out in a written manner, in form of formal memoranda or reports. The ministers were also advised on paper. He worked alone in his small office inside his palace of El Escorial that was situated on the hills of the Sierra de Guadarrama. Philip II was meticulous and careful in his need for the thorough information. This quality helped him in hiding of his inability to take prompt decisions and differentiate between essential and non-essential information.

He did not trust anyone, even his most competent and reliable officials, due to which, his court was known for the animosity among its members. The atmosphere within the courts of Spain poisoned the overall system of the Spanish administration, which subsequently became one of the factors leading to the Eighty Years War that started in 1568 and continued till 1648. The state of internal administration, also in some way led to the rebellions of the Moriscos of Granada in 1568 and Aragonese in 1591, lasting for almost a year. In countries, where Protestantism prevailed, he was considered as a true Catholic, who was willing to go to any length for the service of the God. His reign is often referred to as the golden era of Spain. He was a devoted father and ruled his kingdom with the same devotion.

6.2.2 Foreign Policy of Philip II

His foreign policy affected most parts of Europe. He had many liabilities and lacked adequate financial resources in order to manage his foreign relations well.

His foreign policy gained outstanding victories, like conquering the Turks at Lepanto, but also shameful downfalls, which occurred in 1588 with the let-down of the Spanish Armada.

NOTES

Philip II and relations with Turks

The Turks were Spain's primary enemy in the Mediterranean. Muslims had posed a threat to the security of Spain for many centuries and many rulers had tried to defeat them and attempted to win over the praise of their subjects. Several battles in the sea had taken place between the Tunis and Sicily. During the 1550s, Philip II assumed a cautious policy towards the Muslims in the Mediterranean, after the Knights of St. John were debarred from Tripoli and a Turkish army had managed to enter Minorca. Philip II needed a barricade in the central Mediterranean in order to wedge out the Turks and for this Tripoli had to be acquired back.

In 1560, the island of Spanish base of Drjeba, was attacked by the Turks and the Spanish army suffered heavy losses. While Spain was recouping from the monetary and physical loss of this attack, the Muslim pirates made an attack on Spain and again the Spanish were unable to stop the bout on Granada.

In May 1565, the Turks attacked Malta. 25,000 men led an attack on the Knights of St. John, who were able to hold the front until the help arrived. This provided the Christian community in the western Mediterranean, time to recover. Later, the situation improved in 1566 due to the demise of Suleiman I in September. During this recovery time, Philip II began to focus on the Spanish Netherlands. Troops, who were engaged in the Mediterranean parts were sent to the northern Europe. In 1570, the Turks attacked for the second time, but this time Spanish forces were not so unprepared. Yet, the Turks managed to conquer Tunis and Cyprus. With their increasing power in the region, Spain and Italy keeping their enmity aside, joined forces. This led to the formation of the Holy League of Spain, Venice, and the Papal States. Spain agreed to provide partial finances needed by the force. The command of the League was given to Don John of Spain. The army under his guidance won at Lepanto on October 7, 1571.

The Turkish navy was completely destroyed, which resulted in the end of Turkish dominance in the western Mediterranean, thus providing a great impetus to the popularity of Philip II in the western parts of Europe. The Turks, however, did not give up and soon rebounded with a stronger navy in 1574. After the massive blow of the Battle of Lepanto, their campaign became disengaged. The Turks attempted to formulate a campaign with the Dutch and the Moriscans, which was not easy to organise. The Holy League became ineffective, after the countries involved no longer feared the Muslims. Venice formulated an individual peace treaty with the Turks. The forces of Spain in the region were left with bare minimum presence after Philip II faced bankruptcy in 1575. With the army becoming so weak, military conflicts were taken over by secret diplomacy. In 1578, a truce between the Turks and Spain was declared in 1578 and the formal settlement was

signed in 1580. Philip II was not able to eradicate the Turkish threat in the region, but the Turks by now began to concentrate towards expansion in the east.

Philip II and relations with Portugal

NOTES

Sebastian (King of Portugal), along with several noblemen was killed at the Battle of Alcazar in 1578, during the war between Portugal and Morocco. The king died without an heir and Henry (the de facto ruler) was not strong. Philip II considered this to be an appropriate time to take charge of the country as the army was also struggling to get over the war at Alcazar.

The two-fold policy was adopted by Philip II; firstly, his ministers reached Portugal and began to build support for him to appoint him as the King, Spain would absorb Portugal and as a measure to create support, Philip II paid the ransom to the Moroccans for releasing the noblemen, who had been captured during the war. Secondly, he began to assemble a huge army for the same.

The two-fold policy was diplomatic as well as intimidating. Philip II had full support of the noblemen of power. With the death of Henry in 1580, the path was clear for Philip II and thus, in December after defeating Dom Antonio, he took over Lisbon. The new territory was governed with full astuteness by Philip II. He did not want any opposition of his rule and thus, he let the country govern itself. Portugal thus, became an independent nation ruled by an external ruler. The arrangement suited Spain as it now had a large fleet of Portugal army under its control. Consequently, it attained the overseas colonies situated in countries like Africa, Brazil, India, and the Moluccas. In 1598, Portugal became an integral part of Spain while retaining its independence.

Philip II and relations with France

The lengthy Habsburg-Valois Wars resulted in a strained relation between France and Spain throughout the sixteenth century. With Charles V being incapacitated and lack of experience of Philip II, made Henry II feel that Spain was an easy target. He associated France with Pope Paul IV, in order to attack the Spanish territory located in northern part of Italy. French victory in the war resulted in a hurried peace-settlement for five years at Vaucelles in 1556. The truce did not cost much to Spain as France was not financially strong to sustain long fight. This settlement did not go well with Paul IV as he wanted to end Spanish control in areas surrounding Italy, especially Naples. Paul wanted Henry II to attack Naples with the help of the support of the Pope.

In September 1556, Philip II attacked all the states under the Pope. The Pope was unable to seek help from France. The Duke of Guise tried to invade Milan, however, he had to revert to France in 1557 as he could not take over Civitella. Philip II's treatment of the Papal States was very generous, thus winning them over. He did not make any demands on them in lieu of the peace granted to

them. The conquest of Papal States was not done for any financial or territorial gains; he just wanted to establish his power over Henry II. In 1557, Philip II managed to get into an agreement with England and got to use the Channel, undisturbed. He also managed to get the Duke of Savoy to start major aggression against France. In August 1557, the French army brutally lost the battle. Philip II on his own led his victorious troops to St. Quentin in northern France.

NOTES

French managed to recoup their troops by December 1557; Henry took over Calais in January 1558. This seizure was a severe blow for Philip II as he had recently become the king of Calais, due to a marriage alliance. Soon after this the French attacked the possessions of Spain, situated in the Netherlands. However, financial state of both the countries could not sustain the long campaigns, which resulted in the peace talks at the Cateau-Cambresis to end the Habsburg-Valois Wars. The kings of both the countries were willing to part with territory, but not their self-image. Finally, France announced that it would only retain Calais and let go of all the other parts of Italy. Subsequently, in April 1559, Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis was signed. Philip II was married to Elizabeth, sister of Henry II and it was decided that till the year 1797 France would not fight on behalf of Italy. As a result of the treaty, Philip II remained happy and away from the affairs of France.

During this time many French Wars of Religion had taken place, but these were of no consequence to the security of Spain. Nevertheless, on two instances, Philip II had felt that France was trying to exert its power on Spain and Philip II, thus acted accordingly. The relation got strained when after Elizabeth's death, Philip II marries Austrian Princes, Anne instead of marrying his dead wife's sister Perpignan, who was besieged by the Huguenots in Spanish Navarre, which was extremely near to Spain. Philip II came to know through Coligny that the French were going to attack the Spanish Netherlands and then, split the area amongst England, France, and the Holy Roman Empire. Catherine de Medici put an end to this plan, as a result of which the Massacre of St. Bartholomew took place in August 1572. The news was received with delight by Philip II, particularly, as this led to one more bout of rebel in France. Thus, they got busy with their internal administration and were not particularly interested with external matters.

Philip II continued to remain concerned about the actions of two personalities in France, namely, Henry of Navarre, who subsequently was named, Henry IV. He had supported the French Protestants and had a right to Spanish Navarre. The second person was brother of Henry III, Francis, Duke of Anjou. After his death, the Protestant Henry of Navarre became the legal heir to the throne of France. Philip II was not in favour of him becoming the King. Philip II got associated with the Catholic League of the Guises in 1584. He supplied the troops and 50,000 crowns each month in order to fund their operations. The French were not happy to have the Spanish troops on their soil. Philip II was not permitted by the French from using the port for the Armada while the English were allowed to use the Gravelines.

NOTES

Failure at Armada, provided hope for the French and Henry III commanded for Henry, Duke of Guise, to be assassinated. Philip II remained a devoted member of the fast failing Catholic League. In 1589, Henry III died, which paved way for Henry of Navarre to become the legal heir to the throne of France. Philip II decided to directly intervene and thus, he directed three million ducats to the continuing members of the Catholic League. He also commanded the Duke of Parma help him in defending Philip II from Henry of Navarre. Parma attacked Paris in 1590. The Duke of Savoy took charge of eastern France and Spanish troops reached Italy. There was a strong likelihood that in case of Henry of Navarre's death during the war, Isabella (Philip II's daughter), would have the right to the throne. This possibility was a cause of worry for the French as well as the Pope. Clement VIII already felt that Philip II was trying to construct a Catholic super state at the expense of the Vatican. Parma's death in April 1592, ended all the French dreams of Philip II. In 1593, Henry adopted Catholicism and soon was accepted as the king of France by everyone in France as well as the Papacy.

In spite of all these developments, Henry's right to the throne was challenged by Philip II. Spanish ambassador in France declared to the Estates-General that Isabella will be made the queen of France as she would be marrying the future Holy Roman Emperor or the Duke of Guise as the French liked to address. This announcement angered the French and thus, in 1594 Henry was made the Catholic king. Soon after his crowning, he affirmed war on Spain. Spain was not in a position to fight wars. On the other hand, with support of the United Provinces and England, Henry was in a strong position. Initially, Spain managed quite well; they even managed to take control of Calais in 1596 and Amiens in 1597. Nevertheless, poor state of finance, forced Philip II to resort to peace. He was compelled to sign the Treaty of Vervins in 1598, which resulted in France becoming a much stronger state than Spain.

Philip II and relations with England

It was logically assumed that during the reign of Philip II, two things would affect the relationship between the two countries, firstly, marriage to Catholic Mary Tudor, who would lead to positive and healthy relations between the two and secondly, the reign of Elizabeth, in which the relations were bound to be weak as the English monarch was of Protestant faith. Nevertheless, the relations between the two countries were not as simple as the logic would made it appear.

Marriage between Philip II and Mary was a political alliance and aimed at strengthening the two nations, to control the French power. However, the marriage was a complete failure. They did not have any children from the marriage. Yet, Philip II realised the worth of England in controlling the French. The Habsburg-Valois Wars were on the verge of being finished and the relations with England would further strengthen the position of Spain during peace agreements. In spite of all his efforts, Philip was not able to win over the hearts of the English, which agitated him into calling them cold and unfriendly. The marriage failed to bring the

NOTES

two countries close and the death of Mary in 1558, did not cause any distress for Philip II. On the other hand, the succession to the throne of Elizabeth, who was a devout Protestant, posed a bigger issue for Philip II. With the peace talks of Cateau-Cambresis at an important and fragile level in 1558, Spain needed to retain the support of England in order to reduce influence of French in Scotland. Philip II's advisors even suggested him to get married to Elizabeth.

After the Vatican's rejection of Elizabeth as the illegitimate heir to the throne, Elizabeth needed to maintain good relations with Philip II in order to gain his support. According to Vatican, Mary, Queen of Scots, wife of Francis II of France, was the legal heir to the throne. Philip II was also not in favour of French having an upper hand in England as this would increase the threat on the Netherlands. Philip II continued to hope that England would someday revert back to Catholicism. He considered his duty to defend Catholicism and thought that his alliance with protestant England would help him in establishing his faith.

In 1559, Philip II offered to marry Elizabeth, but she refused. He then, instead got married to Elizabeth of Valois. Till 1567, both the countries maintained cordial relations in an attempt to safeguard their personal interest. They needed each other to control the French. Philip II had managed to persuade the Vatican from excommunicating Elizabeth as he was afraid of sparking rebellion among the Catholics. In case such a rebellion broke out, the French would not stop themselves from taking advantage of the situation. The harmony between the two continued in spite of the increasing Dutch revolt. Philip II, put to use his astuteness and established that the revolt was not connected with religion, rather it was challenging the authority of the monarch. During this time Elizabeth had become close to the Spanish ambassador, Guzman de Silva. However, the relations began to get bad after 1567, due to the clashes over Netherlands.

Check Your Progress

1. Which kingdoms were part of Philip II's empire?
2. Where was Philip II's palace situated?
3. Why did Philip II assume a cautious policy towards the Muslims in the Mediterranean?

6.3 DUTCH WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (1568-1648)

The Dutch War of Independence is also referred to as Eighty Years War. It is the struggle of the small Dutch Republic for getting freedom from the Spanish Kingdom. The Dutch War of independence is closely related to the Protestant Revolution of 1517 that had been started by Martin Luther. The Reformation started to expand to the northern parts of Europe. It was not only a religious movement, but also a

NOTES

political endeavour by the German states in order to attain freedom from the Hapsburg Empire. The War for independence started due to the efforts of Prince William I of Orange, who wanted to get the control of the Dutch provinces in order to safeguard the region from the attempts of King Philip II to eradicate Protestantism. He began to fund missionary attacks, two of which, took place in 1568 and 1572; none of them was a success. In 1573, the Geuzen attacks helped in gaining control of the Spanish areas in the Dutch land.

By this time, Reformation had been established in Holland and Zeeland, with an orderly Calvinist theology. The remaining provinces joined the revolt only in 1576, which led to the formation of a forged political union. However, the Roman Catholic Walloon provinces changed sides, which led to the weakening of the union by 1579. Philip II with his huge financial resources, due to his Spanish inheritance, began to launch massive efforts so that the spread of Protestantism can be stopped. An enormous army was funded by him and despatched to the Low Lands and the Great Armada in order to take over England in 1588. The Armada was going to transport the Spanish army under the command of Alessandro Farnese, the Duke of Parma, so that England could be attacked. The Armada was not a success, but then Parma managed to regain the control in the southern Low Countries (the present day, Flanders in Belgium) for the Spanish empire and equipped the army to attack the new Northern Dutch Republic.

The Dutch managed to face the Spanish army to some extent as during this time, Philip II was at war with England and France as well. During that time, the Dutch had adequate armed capacity along with a well-equipped fleet. They were being aided by the English as well. The Dutch and England had a complex relationship as both nations were constantly competing because of their strength of their merchant fleet. There were times when instead of supporting each other, they were at war with each other. Finally, in 1609 the Twelve Years' Truce was established between the Habsburg rulers of Spain and the Southern Netherlands and the Dutch Republic. Hence, Dutch were able to secure their borders. The war started again in 1621; it was a part of the Thirty Years War. The Spanish were able to again control over vital territories. However, Prince Frederick Henry of Orange also was able to gain few important victories for the Dutch in the years after 1625.

An alliance with France became a turning point in the Dutch conflict. This alliance subsequently, not only helped in attaining freedom from the Spanish control, but was instrumental in separating northern and southern Netherlands. The French were able to take control of the Walloon provinces under the Spanish control and marched into Flanders. By this time, the growing power of the French was becoming a concern for not just Spain, but also the Dutch, who were getting insecure. In order to control the growing power of French, the two countries decided to call a truce in 1648. The truce became official with the Peace of Westphalia. Under the terms, Spain not only acknowledged the United Provinces of the Netherlands as the Dutch Republic, but also recognised their independence.

Treaty of Westphalia (1648)

NOTES

The Treaty of Westphalia is regarded as one of the most essential European peace settlements. Signing of the treaty, brought an end to the horrifying Thirty Years War that had led to massive devastation in Germany. The importance is further escalated, as it also put an end to the Eighty Years' War that had been going on between the Netherlands and Spain. Among the major issues dealt during the negotiations of the treaty were over the United Provinces. As a final point under the Treaty of Westphalia the Spanish were willing to accept their failure to diminish the Dutch and recognised the independence of the Dutch Republic.

Check Your Progress

4. How did the War for Dutch independence started?
5. Describe in brief, the relations between the Dutch and England during the 17th century?
6. What is the Treaty of Westphalia?

6.4 DECLINE OF SPAIN

There are many factors contributing to the decline of the Spanish kingdom. During the seventeenth century, Spain began to have severe financial issues. There was an acute scarcity of funds in spite of the fact that Americas had provided gallons full of gold to the region. Much of it was looted by the pirates or lost to the storms faced during the voyage. The rulers of the country did not realise that winning and establishing empires is not sufficient, the empire needs to be systematically maintained as well. There were many instances where the local population of the conquered territory were not satisfied with their new ruler and they found the prevailing conditions as unsuitable and even harsh on several occasions. This led to a number of rebellions, which required to be controlled by the help of the army. These rebellions were not only posing a threat to the peace of the Spanish empire, but also demanded the regular upkeep of the army, which began to have a direct impact on the finances of the empire.

The best suited illustration can be seen during the Dutch revolt, which continued till the mid of the seventeenth century. The colonies of Spain in the Netherlands began to revolt, since the rulers of the empire did not show interest in their problems, forget about trying to resolve them. Moreover, the numbers of Calvinist increased in the region. Since the Spanish rulers were devout Catholic and were not able to tolerate the spread of Calvinism, they became even harsher in their treatment towards those, who were not willing to accept Catholic faith.

The Dutch were not able to secure their independence through these revolts, but they laid the foundation. The growing attacks led to the truce between the two nations, which lasted for twelve years. However, as soon as the Spanish recouped,

NOTES

they began to attack the Dutch once more, though again without any success. The war once again began to deplete the finances of the Spanish rulers and they were not able to maintain their military strength.

To their misfortune the French began to support the Dutch. Spain and France had been on logger heads for centuries and French were financially more powerful than Spain at that time. The war was no longer between Spain and the Dutch; it was now being fought between old enemies, France and Spain. Spain no longer remained the world power, after their defeat in France. The final straw in their decline, was the Anglo-Spanish war. The internal conditions of the empire were also not helping the depleting external power. A number of revolts were taking place in the home ground, which included the Catalan revolt, the Basque revolt, and many others. The revolts were instigated after the Count Duke of Olivares suggested the ruler to increase the taxes.

The final blow came from Spain's immediate neighbours. All this while, due to the Iberian Union, Spain had managed to maintain good relations with Portugal. The relation began to become sour once the nobles in Portugal were no longer appointed at positions of power and authority and these were now occupied by the high ranking Spanish people. The patience of the Portuguese completely ran out when Count Duke of Olivares, increased the taxes. The Portuguese formed an alliance with England and overthrew the Spanish ruler. Spain had no choice but to acknowledge their independence and accept their end.

Check Your Progress

7. Why did Spain have financial issues despite the Americans providing gallons full of gold?
8. Why did the colonies of Spain in the Netherlands revolted?
9. What revolts took place in Spain in the 17th century?

6.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The Philip II's empire consisted of Spain (1556–98), Portugal (1581-98); Naples and Sicily (both from 1554); England and Ireland (due to his marriage to Queen Mary I from 1554–58). Additionally, he was also the Duke of Milan as well as the lord of the Seventeen Provinces of the Netherlands since 1555.
2. Philip II's palace, El Escorial, was situated on the hills of the Sierra de Guadarrama.

3. Philip II assumed a cautious policy towards the Muslims in the Mediterranean because of the debarment of the Knights of St. John from Tripoli and an entry of Turkish army into Minorca, during the 1550s.
4. The War for Dutch independence started due to the efforts of Prince William I of Orange, who wanted to get the control of the Dutch provinces in order to safeguard the region from the attempts of King Philip II to eradicate Protestantism.
5. The relations between the Dutch and England was pretty complex as both nations were constantly competing because of their strength of their merchant fleet. There were times, when instead of supporting each other, they were at war with each other.
6. The Treaty of Westphalia, signed in 1648, was a truce between Spain and the Dutch. Under the terms, Spain not only acknowledged the United Provinces of the Netherlands as the Dutch Republic, but also recognised their independence.
7. The Spain had financial issues despite the Americans providing gallons full of gold as much of it was looted by the pirates or lost to the storms faced during the voyage.
8. The colonies of Spain in the Netherlands revolted as the rulers of the empire did not show any interest in their problems, forget about trying to resolve them.
9. The revolts, which took place in 17th century, Spain, included the Catalan revolt, the Basque revolt, and many others.

6.6 SUMMARY

- Philip II (1527–1598) was the King of Spain (1556–98), Portugal (1581–98), Naples and Sicily (both from 1554), England and Ireland, and the **Duke** of Milan as well as the lord of the Seventeen Provinces of the Netherlands, since 1555.
- During Philip II's reign, Spain was at its zenith of influence and power.
- Philip II worked very hard in order to get rid of the defects existing in the administrative system, but that tremendously slowed the system, which was already famous for its dilatoriness.
- Philip II had many liabilities and lacked adequate financial resources in order to manage his foreign relations well.
- The Turks were Spain's primary enemy in the Mediterranean, but after the numerous battles, in 1578, a truce was declared between the two.
- Philip II was not able to eradicate the Turkish threat in the region, but the Turks by now began to concentrate towards expansion in the east.

NOTES

- Through many clever manoeuvres, in 1598, Portugal became an integral part of Spain, while retaining its independence.
- When it comes to relation between France and Spain, it remained strained due to the lengthy Habsburg-Valois Wars throughout the sixteenth century.
- Nevertheless, poor state of finance, forced Philip II to resort to peace. He was compelled to sign the Treaty of Vervins in 1598, which resulted in France becoming a much stronger state than Spain.
- During the reign of Philip II, the relationship between Spain and England remained complex.
- The Dutch War of Independence is the struggle of the small Dutch Republic for getting freedom from the Spanish Kingdom.
- The Treaty of Westphalia granted the Dutch their wish as the Spanish were willing to accept their failure to diminish the Dutch and recognised the independence of the Dutch Republic.
- Later on, due to multiple factors such as severe financial issues, rebellions in Spain and other colonies of Spain, and an alliance between the Portuguese and the England, who overthrew the Spanish ruler, Spain had no choice but to accept its end.

6.7 KEY WORDS

- **Iberian Peninsula:** It is mountainous region that's mostly divided between Spain and Portugal, but also includes Andorra, small areas of France, and the British overseas territory of Gibraltar.
- **Spanish Armada:** It refers to Habsburg Spanish fleet of 130 ships that sailed from A Coruña, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, to escort an army from Flanders to invade England.
- **Moriscans:** The Moriscans or Moriscos were converted Moors, who had not been integrated to the Spain and thus, remained closely associated with the Turks, which lead to suspicions over their loyalty.
- **Papal States:** The Papal States or the State of the Church were a series of territories in the Italian Peninsula under the direct sovereign rule of the Pope, from the 8th century to 1870.
- **The Holy League:** It was military alliance of predominantly Christian European countries, established in 1594, by Pope Clement VIII, aimed against the Ottoman Empire during the Long War (1591–1606).
- **Habsburg-Valois Wars:** The Italian Wars or the Habsburg–Valois Wars, were a series of Renaissance conflicts from 1494 to 1559 involving most of the Italian states and France, the Holy Roman Empire, Spain, England, and the Ottoman Empire.

- **The Saint Bartholomew's Day massacre:** it refers targeted group of assassinations and a wave of Catholic mob violence, directed against the French Calvinist Protestants, in 1572,

NOTES

6.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the decline of Spain in the 17th century.
2. Discuss the relationship between Philip II and the Portugal?
3. How did the Dutch gain independence from Spain?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Describe the internal administration of Spain under Philip II.
2. Discuss the different wars which occurred between Spain and France.
3. Analyze the conflict between Turks and the Spanish people.

6.9 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.).* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

BLOCK - III
REFORMS OF HENRY IV AND LOUIS XIII

NOTES

UNIT 7 FRANCE UNDER HENRY IV

Structure

7.0 Introduction
7.1 Objectives
7.2 Henry IV
7.3 Reforms in France under the Reign of Henry IV
7.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
7.5 Summary
7.6 Key Words
7.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
7.8 Further Readings

7.0 INTRODUCTION

Henry IV was one of the most influential king of France. He was known for his liberal attitude, generosity, and progressive mind. His reign saw some of the amazing constructions which provide the splendour to the city of Paris, that we can see even today. In the this unit, his many achievements, reign, and life are discussed.

7.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Understand the conditions in France during the reign of Henry IV
- Analyze the personality of Henry IV
- Discuss the reforms under the reign of Henry IV

7.2 HENRY IV

Henry IV, born on 13 December, 1553, is often referred to as Good King Henry or Henry the Great. In 1572, at the age of nineteen, he was crowned as the King of Navarre (as Henry IV) and became the King of France from 1589 to 1610. King Henry was the first French monarch, belonging to the House of Bourbon, a cadet branch of the Capetian dynasty. He was only fifty-seven years old when he was murdered by François Ravaillac, a fanatic Catholic. After his death his son Louis XIII was crowned as the King. Though by birth, Henry was a Catholic, his mother brought him up as a Protestant. Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre, was

the mother of Henry, soon died leaving the throne of Navarre to him. Henry, being a Huguenot, had got involved in the French Wars of Religion. An attempt was made to murder him at the St. Bartholomew's Day massacre, but he managed to escape it. Subsequently, he became the leader of the Protestant forces fighting a war against the royal army.

Henry IV was a descendant of the Saint-King Louis IX. Henry IV was a descendant of Robert, Count of Clermont and younger son of Saint Louis. Henry was the 'first prince of the blood' as he headed the House of Bourbon. According to the law of Salic, he became the French successor, after the death of his brother-in-law and distant cousin Henry III, in 1589.

He, in the beginning, maintained the Protestant faith; being the only king in French history to do such a thing. Due to his faith, he had to struggle against the Catholic League, as they believed that with Protestant faith, he should not be allowed to become the French King. After four years of standoff, he was able to attain his kingdom. He found it practical to avoid the Calvinist faith. As a practical politician, he exhibited extraordinary tolerance towards religion, which was very rare during that period. Some of the measures taken by him, which exhibited his tolerance include the promulgation of Edict of Nantes in 1598. This safeguarded the liberties of Protestants in religious matters and also helped in bring an end to the Wars of Religion.

Due to his actions, he began to be labelled as a usurper by few of the Catholics, while some of the Protestants started considering him, a traitor. Twelve attempts were made to murder him by both the Catholics as well as the Protestants. Henry was not a popular king among his counterparts; in fact, he became popular only after getting killed in 1610. Henry was appreciated for his frequent triumphs and his adaptation of the Catholic faith. He was referred to as the 'Good King Henry' because of his kindness and his generous nature, which constantly reflected in his deeds towards his subjects. He was actively involved in the matter of his kingdom. During his reign the state finances were regularised, agriculture was promoted, all people were encouraged to be educated, and several steps were taken to end corruption. During his reign, the French colonisation of the Americas started in the real sense and the colony of the Acadia and its capital, Port-Royal, became one of the foundations. His name was illustrious in the popular song, 'Vive le roi Henri', which was adapted as an anthem of the French monarchy in the years after his death. The king's name also features in the poem, '*La Henriade*', written by Voltaire in 1723.

7.3 REFORMS IN FRANCE UNDER THE REIGN OF HENRY IV

Henry IV carried out his duties with the help of his loyal and trusted minister, Maximilien de Béthune, Duke of Sully. The two worked vigorously so that the following areas could be reformed:

NOTES

- The finances of the state could be properly regularised.
- Steps were taken to promote agriculture,
- Measures for the drainage of swamps,
- Several public works were undertaken
- Education was given a boost
- Attempts were made to end corruption

He established, the Collège Royal Henri-le-Grand in La Flèche. Along with his minister, he developed plans to prevent the devastation of the forest, which included the construction of highways with trees outlining the roads. As an attempt to promote agriculture, several canals and bridges were constructed. A 1200 metre canal was built in the park at the Château Fontainebleau by him. The boundary of the canal was to be edged with pines, elms, and fruit trees. He wanted his enemies to be certain about his power, so during the construction of the Pont-Neuf, a bridge in Paris, he got a statue of himself positioned right in the centre of the bridge. The King reinstated the glory of the city, Paris, as even today the bridge stands and connects the two ends of the city.

Henry IV was instrumental in the construction of Place Royale, now called the Place des Vosges. The Grande Galerie was added to the Louvre Palace. This addition was over 400 metres in length and thirty-five metres in width. The enormous addition was constructed along the Seine River banks. During that time, it was regarded as the world's longest edifice and one of its kinds. King Henry IV wanted to promote art amongst all his subjects irrespective of the class they belonged. He called several artists and craftsmen to work on the lower floors of the building. The tradition started during his time continued for over two centuries and came to an end during the rule of Emperor Napoleon I. The art and architecture prevailing during his time, gave rise to a style in the field referred to as the 'Henry IV style'.

King Henry, soon started looking beyond the French boundaries and funded Pierre Dugua, Sieur de Monts, and Samuel de Champlain's many voyages to North America. France also asserted its claim on New France, the present Canada. During his reign the kingdom was united and had internal as well as external peace. His aim was to restore the order and wealth of France. He was very quick in restoring both, which completely shocked his contemporaries. This was due to his personal policy, which was an outcome of his vast experience and vision that he had attained while conquering his empire. He was familiar with the needs and desires of all social classes of his country and with his friendly and kind nature, he was able to win the hearts and loyalty of his subjects.

Henry was well aware that most of his success was possible because of the officials of the crown and the rich traders. Thus, he made sure that they were adequately compensated as well. At the same time, he managed to suppress a few offices of the government that were not important. Some he labelled as the 'annual right' or Paulette (1604), wherein the owner of an office can make it heritable with

the help of annual payments of one-sixtieth of the original payment made by him. The practice was not good in the long-run, but during his reign it created a regular and sufficient income for the government, which was used in the development of the economy of France.

NOTES

Initially, he practiced control over the Parliament by adopting a modest approach of the chancellor, Pomponne de Bellièvre, but then he slowly began to assert his own authority, for which, he completely relied on his minister. The other close associates besides Duke de Sully were Nicolas Brulart de Sillery, Nicolas de Neufville, and Pierre Jeannin. The government under Henry, eradicated the forbidding national debt and recognised a reserve of eighteen million livres. In order to resuscitate the economy, Henry, began to undertake projects that helped in developing the agricultural sector; the colonies of the Dutch were used for planting and the Flemish settlers were deployed to drain the marshes in Saintonge. The silk industry was started in France by him along with cloth. He also encouraged the manufacturing of glassware, tapestries, and luxury items that were in past, traded from Holland or Italy. Sully supervised construction of many new highways and canals so that commercial activity could be given an impetus. As an attempt to increase commercial activities several fresh treaties were signed including the treaties with the Ottoman sultan Ahmed I in 1604, along with commercial treaties with England in 1606, Spain, and Holland. Exploration of Samuel de Champlain was given full support in Canada.

The army in France was modernised, the soldiers were assured of a pay hike, facilities for the training of cadets were established, the artillery service was reconstructed, and security on the borders was increased. Even though he converted to catholic faith, he fully assured the Protestants of their security and granted them their civil rights. He continued to promote the Roman Catholic Counter-Reformation, shielding the austere orders, and refining the enrolment of the Roman Catholic clergy in France. Henry's marriage to Margaret of Valois was annulled by Pope Clement VIII, which helped in his marriage with the princess of Tuscany, Marie de Médicis in October 1600. On September 27, 1601, the queen gave birth to the future king of France, Louis XIII, the king had four more children with the queen.

Henry IV did not adopt an aggressive foreign policy towards Spain, but he ensured that Spanish influence continued to lessen in Europe. He compelled Savoy to sign the Treaty of Lyons in 1601, due to which, he was able to acquire Bresse, Bugey, and other parts of territory towards the eastern borders of France. He also signed agreements with the Protestant princes of Germany, Lorraine as well as with the Swiss. A pronounced French success, as a result of the intercession between Spain and the United Provinces of the Netherlands, brought an end to the Twelve Years' Truce between the two nations in 1609. In the concluding year, problems began to appear with the Holy Roman emperor due to the succession of the Cleves-Jülich. After initial reluctance, Henry took the decision of undertaking an armed expedition in order to oust the regal troops from Jülich. The outcome remained a

mystery as he was murdered in Paris on May 14, 1610, by a fanatic Roman Catholic named, François Ravaillac.

NOTES

Check Your Progress

1. At what age did Henry IV become the King of Navarre?
2. Who was the successor of Henry IV?
3. How many attempts were made to kill Henry IV?
4. Where is the statue of Henry IV located?

7.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Henry become the King of Navarre in 1572, at the age of nineteen.
2. After the death of Henry IV, his son, Louis XIII was crowned as the King.
3. Twelve attempts were made to murder Henry IV by both the Catholics as well as the Protestants.
4. The statue of Henry IV located right in the centre of the bridge, Pont-Neuf, in Paris.

7.5 SUMMARY

- Henry IV, born on 13 December, 1553, is often referred to as Good King Henry or Henry the Great.
- In 1572, at the age of nineteen, he was crowned as the King of Navarre (as Henry IV) and became the King of France from 1589 to 1610.
- Though by birth, Henry was a Catholic, his mother brought him up as a Protestant.
- He was referred to as the 'Good King Henry' because of his kindness and his generous nature.
- Henry IV carried out his duties with the help of his loyal and trusted minister, Maximilien de Béthune, Duke of Sully.
- Henry IV was instrumental in the construction of Place Royale, now called the Place des Vosges and the bridge, Pont-Neuf, in Paris.
- He was murdered in Paris on May 14, 1610, by a fanatic Roman Catholic named, François Ravaillac.

7.6 KEY WORDS

- **House of Bourbon:** It was European royal house of French origin, a branch of the Capetian dynasty, first ruled France and Navarre in the 16th century.
- **Capetian Dynasty:** Also, called the House of France, it a dynasty of Frankish origin, founded by Hugh Capet.
- **Huguenot:** It refers to an ethno-religious group of French Protestants.

NOTES

7.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What were the various buildings built by Henry IV?
2. Why did the Catholics and Protestants consider Henry IV a traitor?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Describe the reforms during the time of Henry IV.
2. How would you describe the stance of Henry IV towards religion? Discuss.
3. Analyze the economic measures taken by Henry IV.

7.8 FURTHER READING

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.).* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

UNIT 8 THIRTY YEARS' WAR

NOTES

Structure

8.0 Introduction
8.1 Objectives
8.2 Prelude to the Thirty Years' War
8.3 Phases of the Thirty Years' War
  8.3.1 The Bohemian Period (1618-23)
  8.3.2 The Danish Period (1624-29)
  8.3.3 The Swedish Period (1629-35)
  8.3.4 The French Period (1635-48)
8.4 Treatise of Westphalia
8.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
8.6 Summary
8.7 Key Words
8.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
8.9 Further Readings

8.0 INTRODUCTION

The Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) was basically a series of wars predominantly fought in central Europe involving most of the European states. It was one of the longest continuous wars fought in the history of the world. The Thirty Years' War is considered to be the most destructive conflicts in the modern European history.

The origins of the conflict and goals of the participating states in the Thirty Years' War was composite, and no solitary cause can accurately be claimed as the major cause that led to the eruption of the wars. In the beginning, it took shape of a religious war between the Catholics and Protestants in the Holy Roman Empire. There were also disputes over internal politics of the European states and the balance of power within the Empire. Such disputes were quiet significant in instigating the wars. In the later half, culminating as the general conflict, the Thirty Years' War involved almost all the great powers of the era.

8.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the causes that led to the Thirty Years' War
- Describe the different phases of the Thirty Years' War
- Discuss the significance of the Thirty Years' War

8.2 PRELUDE TO THE THIRTY YEARS WAR

NOTES

In German history, the Peace of Augsburg (1555) could bring about only a temporary settlement of the conflict between Catholics and Lutherans in the Holy Roman Empire. The outcome of this settlement was extremely unsatisfactory. Not only were its terms vague and ambiguous; the settlement also provided no machinery by means of which its terms could be enforced. Its lack of clarity and the absence of provisions for its enforcement proved to be a constant source of friction, until it culminated in the armed conflict of 1618.

Moreover, the settlement was intensely obnoxious to Charles V. He could not bear to contemplate permanent concessions to heresy and schism. Emperor Charles had refused to attend the Diet of Augsburg when he discovered that such concessions had to be made. He had made up his mind on this and was determined never to visit Germany again. Therefore, he deputed the presidency of the Diet to his more complacent brother Ferdinand; and in 1558 he formally resigned the imperial crown, recommending the same brother to the electors as his successor.

The election duly took place at Frankfurt in March 1558—it was a mere formality; for Ferdinand had administered the Hapsburg lands since 1521, and had been elected 'King of the Romans', that is, prospective emperor, in 1531.

Ferdinand I (1558–64) was a worthy man, pious, honourable and trustworthy. Although he possessed no shining abilities, Ferdinand was a good and steady administrator, with the interests of Germany at heart. He understood the concerns of the Germans, unlike his brother Charles V. Ferdinand's marriage to Anne, daughter of King Vladislaus II of Hungary and Bohemia, led to important results.

For when Anne's brother, Louis II, died childless on the field of Mohacs in battle with the Turks (1526), Anne became heiress to the two kingdoms and conveyed the titles to her Hapsburg husband. But, the conveyance was for the time not much more than that of titles; for the Turks had taken possession of two-third of both Hungarian and Bohemian territory. Moreover, the Turks were constantly threatening to complete the conquest and to invade Austria.

To Ferdinand, the two crowns were a burden rather than an acquisition; they greatly complicated his government of Germany. For Germany, as such, had little interest in them, except as buffer states keeping them from direct contact with the Turks. Hence, Ferdinand had much difficulty in getting the Diet to vote men and money for his wars with Soliman II.

These wars, however, made Ferdinand very anxious to restore peace within Germany, so that external defence should not be weakened by internal strife. He also was by nature tolerant and easy-going. Ferdinand did not think much of the differences that divided Lutherans from Catholics. Ferdinand realized the need of reform in the papacy, and was willing to advocate concessions to the reformers in such matters as clerical marriages and administration of the sacraments.

NOTES

Hence, when Ferdinand met his Diet for the first time as the emperor (1559), he urged the princes, both Catholic and Lutheran, to pledge themselves to accept and obey a General Council in respect of all matters in dispute. Ferdinand also brought great pressure on the reluctant pope, Pius IV, to call the necessary Council. But, Pius IV did not do what Ferdinand wanted, that is, call a new Council on definitely German soil. He rather compromised by re-calling the old Council to Trent (1562–63).

As a consequence of the Peace of Augsburg, Protestantism was on the advance again. On the one hand, in spite of the regulations respecting 'ecclesiastical reservations', bishops and their chapter were going over bodily to the Lutheran side, carrying all the episcopal property and patronage with them. On the other hand, Calvinism was making its way into western Germany with alarming rapidity, its most distinguished convert being Frederick IV, elector-palatine of the Rhine (1559–76).

From Ferdinand's point of view, the revived and completed Council was a positive disaster, for instead of providing a basis for Christian reunion, it issued a declaration of 'truceless war'. Also, instead of leaving doubtful doctrines undefined, this council enunciated them in clear and authoritative terms that permitted no heretical interpretations. Ferdinand was profoundly disgusted, and his disgust was more than equalled by that of his son and successor Maximilian II (1564–76).

Under Maximilian II, the entire defection of Germany to Protestantism seemed probable. Much new secularization took place in defiance of the Augsburg prohibition, and bishoprics galore were appropriated by perverted prelates and their conniving chapters. Two things only seemed to check complete apostasy.

First, Maximilian himself was prevented from professing Lutheranism by the prospect, at that time probable, of succeeding to the monarchy of his cousin, Philip II of Spain. Second, an embittered quarrel developed in Germany between Lutherans (led by Augustus of Saxony) and Calvinists (led by Frederick of the Palatinate). Thus the forces of the Reformation were divided, and that at a most critical moment. For under Maximilian's son and successor, Rudolf II (1576–1612), the Counter- Reformation set in strongly. But, Rudolf himself had little part in the movement. His interests lay in astronomy, and not theology. He was a weak man, under whom central authority in Germany almost vanished away.

The active counter-reformers were the Jesuits, vigorously supported by Ernest of Wittelsbach. The supporters included Archbishop of Cologne (1583–1612), his nephew Maximilian of Bavaria (1598–1651), and Ferdinand of Styria, who later became emperor in 1619. Under the influence of these powerful men, the minor Catholic rulers still left in the Empire began to expel Protestants from their dominions, as the Treaty of Augsburg entitled them to do. The bishops of Bamberg and Paderborn began the process in 1595; it was continued by the three electoral archbishops. Then Ferdinand of Styria carried on the process in the three duchies (Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola) that he administered. Emperor

Rudolf allowed the Jesuits to harry the Protestants from Austria, Bohemia and Moravia. Max of Bavaria, of course, thoroughly purified his duchy. Never was such a furniture-removing. The resurgent Catholics, moreover, in the flush of success, began to take measures to recover the secularized properties of the church, and the bishoprics improperly taken over by renegade chapters.

NOTES

Early in the 17th century, the menaced Protestants began to organize themselves for resistance. In particular, the Calvinists of the Upper Rhineland formed a defensive Union in 1608 under the Elector-Palatine, Frederick IV. The Catholics replied by forming a League in 1609 under the leadership of Maximilian of Bavaria. All things indicated the renewal of the war of religion.

In the midst of the agitations and alarms that convulsed south Germany as the Calvinistic Union and the Catholic League braced themselves to fight, the astronomical emperor Rudolf II passed away (20 January 1612). The political incompetence and gross neglect of his duties had caused Rudolf II to be superseded in most of his dominions long before his death. So far back as 1596, the government of Styria, Cannthia and Carniola had been placed in the hands of his cousin Ferdinand. In 1608, Austria and Hungary were assigned to his brother Matthias; and in 1611, Bohemia repudiated the hopeless incapable, and placed itself also under the rule of Matthias, who in 1612 succeeded Rudolf as the emperor.

The Protestant position in Bohemia had been considerably strengthened by a grant of a 'Royal Charter', made under threat of revolt in 1609, by the feeble and injudicious Rudolf. This charter conceded freedom of conscience to all in Bohemia; freedom of worship on all the royal estates in the kingdom; and the right to determine the form of worship to be reorganized—on the principle of '*cuius regio, eius religio*', that is, the religion of the ruler dictated the religion of the ruled, for the nobles and townships. The immense majority of these decided for Protestantism.

Now the Bohemians claimed that their crown was an 'elective' and not a 'hereditary' one. Matthias of Austria (1557–1619) had apparently acknowledged the claim, for in 1611 he had himself submitted to election. He was fully aware, however, that if on his death a free election were to be held, a Protestant king would certainly be chosen, and so Bohemia would be lost both to the Hopsburgs and to the Catholic Church.

And the consequences of such a loss would be immeasurably serious. For the King of Bohemia was one of the seven electors to the imperial office, and, of the other six electors three were Catholic (the archbishops of Mainz, Cologne and Treves) and three were Protestant (Saxony and Brandenburg, Lutheran; the Palatinate, Calvinist). The King of Bohemia, therefore, had the determining vote, and if he should give it to a Protestant, the 'Holy Roman Empire' itself would be won for the reformers. In the circumstances, Matthias realized that prompt and decisive action was necessary. On the one hand, he ignored the Charter, and began to enforce conformity to Catholicism upon the estates under his control. On

NOTES

the other hand, having done this without rousing opposition, he ventured on the crucial step in a specially-summoned Bohemian Diet (1617). Taking the representatives by surprise, and overawing them by a great display of force; Matthias compelled them to:

1. Acknowledge that the Bohemian crown was hereditary and not elective, and
2. Recognize Ferdinand of Styria as the rightful heir.

The Diet with inexplicable and almost incredible weak as Matthias commanded them, and went back home to, consider how they could obviate the consequences of the act of suicidal folly. Nothing but rebellion remained. Having secured this diplomatic triumph in 1617, Matthias at once handed over the administration of Bohemia to the heir-presumptive. Ferdinand, being fully occupied in his own duchies and in Hungary, placed the government in the hands of regents who proceeded to repress Protestantism and foster Catholicism to the best of their power.

The Protestant stalwarts, headed by Count Henry of Thurn, furious at the Diet's abject surrender in 1617, determined to repudiate the settlement, dethrone Ferdinand, expel the Hapsburgs altogether, and proceed to elect a king of their own. Accordingly on 22 May 1618, accompanied by a band of fully-armed men, the Protestant stalwarts made their way to the Castle of Prague, presented themselves before the two chief regents, Martinitz and Slavata. Treating them with scant courtesy, they charged them with violation of the Charter, with illegal persecution and unconstitutional tyranny. Having completed their argument, they seized the two regents and, by way of conclusion, hurled them out of the window, which was situated at a height of about 70 feet. By chance, the Catholic admirals had a miracle escape as from that giddy height they fell into a large and soft bed of manure, whence they were able to crawl with shaken nerves and ruined clothes, but otherwise, save in their dignity and unhurt.

This 'defenestration' at Prague was—as it had been intended to be—virtual declaration of war, and the two sides at once began to gather their forces together. The Bohemian rebels appointed a body of thirty 'directors' to manage their affairs, and assigned the command of their army to Count Henry of Thurn. Neither the 'directors' nor their general, however, showed the slightest capacity for either government (or war).

In spite of the fact that Matthias and Ferdinand had very scanty forces available —some 14,000 men under a Spanish commander named Bucquoi—they would have been speedily crushed, had it not been that they were joined by more competent allies who, for either religious or political reasons, were eager to assist in the abasement of the Hapsburgs.

These included Charles Emmanuel of Savoy, who sent a couple of thousand men under Count Mansfeld to the aid of the Bohemians; Bethlem Gabor, the bandit-prince of Transylvania, who hoped to make himself master of such part of

Hungary as Ferdinand still possessed with Turkish aid; and Frederick V, the young elector-palatine who had recently married Elizabeth (daughter of James I of England). On the other hand, the imperialists were seriously hampered by risings sympathetic with the Bohemian revolt in Silesia, Moravia, Lusatia and even Austria itself. If the rebels and their co-adjutors had acted in unison, and had managed their affairs with normal prudence, the ruin of the Hapsburgs would have been achieved.

NOTES

Louis XIII

King Louis XIII was the King of France from the years 1610 to 1643. His reign thus more or less coincided with the period of the thirty year war. We will discuss Louis XIII's role in the thirty year war later on in the unit. King Louis XIII relied heavily on his chief ministers, first Charles d'Albert, duc de Luynes and then Cardinal Richelieu, to govern his kingdom. King Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu are also remembered today for establishing the Académie française, and ending the revolt of the French nobility. The King and cardinal systematically destroyed castles of defiant lords and denounced the use of private violence by the nobility such as duelling, carrying weapons, and maintaining private armies. By the end of 1620s, Richelieu established 'the royal monopoly of force' as the ruling doctrine. The reign of Louis XIII was also marked by the struggles against the Huguenots and Habsburg Spain.

Check Your Progress

1. What was the significance of the Peace of Augsburg?
2. Who succeeded Ferdinand?

8.3 PHASES OF THE THIRTY YEAR'S WAR

The Thirty Years' War began with the Bohemian revolt in 1618 and ended with the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, as told in detail by German historians like Schiller and Gindely, or even as summarized by English writers like A.W. Ward and S.R. Gardiner, is one of infinite complexity and indescribable dreariness. The war passed through four main phases which may be distinguished as:

1. The Bohemian Period (1618–23)
2. The Danish Period (1624–29)
3. The Swedish Period (1629–35)
4. The French Period (1635–48)

We will observe that as the war proceeded, it wholly changed its character. Beginning as a purely local conflict between Catholics and Calvinists in one section of the Hapsburg dominions, it spread until it involved the whole of Germany and

most of Germany's neighbours. The war finally degenerated into a mere struggle between Bourbons and Hapsburgs for frontier provinces and for ascendancy on the Continent.

NOTES

8.3.1 The Bohemian Period (1618–23)

The support given to the Bohemian rebels by Gharles Emmanuel, Bathlen Gabor, and the elector Frederick, not only saved the rebels from extinction but actually brought the imperialists into peril. They were all but cleared out of Bohemia, and Austria itself was invaded.

When the fortunes of the Hapsburgs were at their lowest ebb, the emperor Matthias died (20 March 1619) and Ferdinand was elected to succeed him (28th August). To this imperial election, the Bohemian rebels instantly replied by proclaiming Ferdinand's deposition from the Bohemian throne and by offering the vacant seat to the elector palatine, Frederick V. With infinite folly, and against the advice of all his sane friends, the ambitious young man accepted the fatal offer. That one elector should hold two of the seven electorates was inconceivable; that either Catholics or Lutherans would tolerate so great an accession of power to the Calvinists was also unthinkable.

As a matter of fact, Frederick's acceptance of the Bohemian crown was followed by the withdrawal from his side of both Charles Emmanuel and Bethlen Gabor. On the other hand, it brought to the cause of the emperor the powerful aid of:

(i) Catholic League under Maximilian of Bavaria and Count Tilly;

(ii) Spain (from the Netherlands and Franche Comte); and

(iii) John George, the Lutheran elector of Saxony, who played during all these proceedings a part at once disgraceful and disastrous.

The basic consequences of these formidable developments were as follows:

(i) The Palatinate was overrun by the Spaniards

(ii) Bohemia was invaded by the army of the Catholic League, which on 8 November 1620 completely crushed the forces of Frederick in the battle of the White Mountain outside Prague

(iii) The winter king fled to Holland, and he remained a wandering exile for the rest of his life. His electorate was transferred to the victorious Maximilian of Bavaria

(iv) The Calvinistic Union was dissolved (1621)

(v) Desultory fighting continued for two more years

(vi) Mansfeld was still rampant in the Palatinate; he was joined by Christian of Brunswick and other minor German Protestants. But by 1623, they were all defeated and Catholicism was triumphant

8.3.2 The Danish Period (1624–29)

NOTES

The decisive triumph of the Catholic League and the rehabilitation of Ferdinand seriously alarmed the Lutherans of Northern Germany; as they realized that their possession of the secularized ecclesiastical lands was threatened. James I of England, moreover, was moved to demand the restoration of his son-in-law, Frederick to the Palatinate.

Richelieu had just taken over in Paris, and was determined to abase the Hapsburgs, and at this stage Christian IV of Denmark was marked out as his agent. Christian of Denmark, a Lutheran, was, as Duke of Holstein, also a German prince, a member of the Lower Saxon Circle. He possessed the two important secularized bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which he was anxious not to lose.

Richelieu easily preyed upon his fears; he also encouraged his hopes of securing ascendancy in the Baltic. Further, he persuaded James I of England to promise to pay him £30,000 a month so long as he continued to wage war in Germany. Hence, in 1625 the war broke out again, this time as an attempt of the North German Lutheran powers, aided by Denmark, to overrun the South, and defeat both the Catholic League and the emperor. Their attempt was a spectacular failure. The advance of Christian of Denmark up the valley of the Weser was decisively stopped by Tilly and the forces of the Catholic League, the main battle being that of Lutter (27 August 1627).

Meantime, a march by Mansfield up the Elbe valley was checked at Dessau (25 April 1626) by a new imperial army under a new commander of a most remarkable character, namely, Albrecht von Wallenstein. This man, born in 1583, was a Bohemian noble; though the son of Lutheran parents, he was educated as a Catholic. By means of two prudential marriages, Albrecht von Wallenstein had become immensely rich. He used his wealth in 1620 to buy huge tracks of the landed property of proscribed Bohemian rebels. Thus, Wallenstein became owner of a large part of his native country, and the lord of multitudes of men.

Wallenstein had no enthusiasm for any form of religion; but he was zealous for the idea of the unification of Germany and the centralization of its government under the emperor. In the interests of this unity and autocracy, he advocated religious toleration, and included in his army men of all creeds and no character, provided they were prepared to fight efficiently on behalf of the empire.

In 1626, Wallenstein raised at his own expense a force of 50,000 men, and placed them under his own leadership at the emperor's disposal. Having defeated Mansfeld at Dassau, he succeeded in taking control of Silesia, Mecklenburg and Pomeraata. The emperor made him Duke of Mecklenburg with almost independent power; and Wallenstein contemplated the establishment of complete Germanic control of the Baltic.

Simultaneously, Tilly and the forces of the Catholic League, after their victory at Lutter, overran Holstein and actually invaded Denmark, until finally they were

NOTES

brought to a halt at Gluckstadt, which they failed to take. By 1629, Christian IV of Denmark had more than enough of the war. He had been beaten in battle; his lands had been ravaged by relentless foes; the English subsidies had remained largely unpaid. He had come off badly. Hence, taking advantage of the successful resistance of Stralsund and Gluckstadt, Christian IV sued for peace, and secured the not unfavourable Treaty of Lubeck (May 1629). He was to withdraw from the war, and not to meddle in it again; he was to surrender all his secularized ecclesiastical lands; but he was to recover his hereditary dominions. Thus the Danish period of the war came to an end. Once more there was an interval of apparent tranquility, and once more the joint cause of the League and the Emperor seemed to be decisively victorious. So secure, indeed, did Ferdinand feet in 1629 that he ventured to promulgate the Edict of Restitution which has been described as 'the most radical and dangerous document that has ever been issued in all the long course of German religious history'.

The later phases of the war

The fateful Edict of Restitution (March 1629) at one stroke of the imperial pen ordered the restoration of all ecclesiastical properties secularized since the Augsburg settlement of 1555. The properties concerned included the vast estates and revenues of two archbishoprics (Magdeburg and Bremen), twelve bishoprics, and about 120 other religious foundations.

It came as a staggering blow to the North German Lutherans, many of whom—and in particular the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg—had enjoyed and developed these properties for periods extending to three-quarters of a century. Hitherto they had done their best to keep out of the war, although their territories had suffered much from the transit of the unsympathetic armies of Tilly and Wallenstein. Now, however, they realized that they would be called upon by the dominant Catholics to disgorge and make reparation. Where the Counter-Reformation would end, no one could say.

Beside John George, the ambiguous elector of Saxony, and George William the hesitant elector of Brandenburg, three other persons of greater importance viewed the Edict of Restitution with profound misgiving.

Firstly, Wallenstein denounced it as fatal to the unification of Germany which, he contended, must be affected on the basis of religious toleration and mutual concord. He, therefore, found himself thrown into active antagonism to both the Catholic League (which had always regarded him with loathing and horror) and to the Emperor himself (hitherto the very centre of bishops).

Secondly, Richelieu in France saw that if the Edict were carried into effect the power, of the Austrian Hapsburg would be enormously increased. He, therefore, determined that at all costs the edict should be rendered inoperative or, in other words, that the war should be renewed.

NOTES

Thirdly, Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden (1611–32), for reasons of his own, decided that the time had come for him to intervene in German affairs. On the one hand, as a strong Lutheran, he was unwilling to see his faith extinguished in its original home. On the other hand, as a Baltic ruler, Adolphus vehemently opposed the designs of Wellenstein in Macklenburg and Pomerania—he had, indeed sent 2,000 men to hold Stralsund against him.

In 1630, the active mover Richelieu, the consummate master of statecraft, with uncanny skill carried on simultaneously two sets of negotiations, both crowned with complete success. On the one hand, through the agency of a clever Capuchin, Father Joseph, he worked up Maximilian of Bavaria; and the other leaders of the Catholic League, who were assembled in the Diet of Regensburg (1630), to demand and insist upon the dismissal of the impious and ambitious Wallenstein.

On the other hand, through the agency of his confidential friend the Baron de Charnace, Richelieu stirred up Gustavus Adolphus to invade Germany, and helped to smooth his path by mediating a peace between Sweden and Poland who had been at war for a dozen weary years. He persuaded England, too, to promise subsidies to Gustavus. Finally, Richelieu himself concluded a formal Franco-Swedish alliance by the Treaty of Barwalde (1631).

8.3.3 The Swedish Period (1629–35)

On 24 June 1630, Gustavus landed at Usedom on the Baltic coast at the head of 13,000 men. They were veterans; for the Swedish king—a military genius of the first order—who had already waged successful wars against Denmark (1611–13), Russia (1614–17) and Poland (1617–29). A fortnight after the unopposed disembarkation of the invader, the Diet of Regensburg met and compelled Ferdinand to dismiss the only man capable of contending against the new champion of Protestantism.

Wallenstein's army was disbanded, the more doubtful part of it being dismissed, the select remainder being incorporated with the forces of the Catholic League under Tilly.

In 1613, Tilly, now at the head of the powerful force, took the aggressive and laid siege to Magdeburg, which city had refused to admit the archbishop (a son of the emperor) to whom it had been assigned under the Edict of Restitution.

Gustavus implored John George of Saxony and George William of Brandenburg to join him in saving Magdeburg, or at any rate to give free passage for his troops. They hesitated and procrastinated, and in the meantime Magdeburg was stormed and sacked with most appalling ferocity. Schiller estimates that out of a population of 36,000; some 30,000 were massacred. The triumphant Tilly soon compelled the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg to make up their minds, and so he began to harry their lands. Gustavus, too, made it clear that if they did not openly join him he would treat them as enemies. Hence, under pressure of necessity, north Germany and Sweden united their forces to face the host of Tilly.

NOTES

The crucial battle was fought at Breitenfeld on 17 September 1631. It resulted in the total defeat of the South German army, which was driven in a rout that never ceased until the Danube was reached. North Germany was finally recovered for Protestantism.

In 1632, Gustavus and his allies undertook the conquest of South Germany. For a time they carried all before them. Tilly was later killed in trying to hold the Line of the Lech. Bavaria was overrun, Munich being occupied on 7th May. Bohemia was recovered, the fugitive elector-palatine being again proclaimed in Prague. The emperor was in despair. The Catholic League was impotent. He could do nothing but recall Wallenstein, who came back on his own terms, which included the revocation of the Edict of Restitution.

During the summer of 1632, the two masters of war played the great game against one another. Gustavus, deep in hostile country, strove to bring his opponent to early battle. Wallenstein, with time on his side, did all in his power to delay the inevitable clash until he had an overwhelming superiority of force. Finally, Gustavus ran Wallenstein down at Lutzen in Saxony (16 November). There the crucial conflict took place—it was a battle of giants, for long the issue was undecided. In the end, Wallenstein had to admit defeat; but Gustavus had been killed. Bernard of Saxe-Weimar took over the command of the victorious host.

Wallenstein, freed from the fear of someone superior in strategy and tactics, now, on his own account, opened up negotiations both with the Swedes and the Saxons. He offered to them the revocation of the Edict; the cession of Baltic lands to the Swedes; compensations to the Saxons; the restoration of the Palatinate to the son of the 'Winter King', Frederick V. This intrusion into the sphere of high politics on the part of the defeated condottiere was not unnaturally regarded as an outrage by the emperor, Max of Bavaria, by the Spaniards, and by the Jesuits. So no longer needing him and not knowing how to check him, they had him assassinated on 25 February 1634.

After Wallenstein's extinction, the imperial army was reorganized and placed under the command of the emperor's son, titular King of Hungary, afterwards the emperor Ferdinand III. On 6 September 1634, he brought Bernard and his Swedish allies to battle at Nordlingen and utterly defeated them. This battle was as decisive for south Germany as the Battle of Breitenfeld had been for north Germany: it confirmed south Germany for Catholicism as its predecessor had confirmed north Germany for Protestantism. After the Battle of Nordlingen (1634), the inevitable lines of a general pacification began to display themselves—Lutheranism must remain dominant in north Germany, Catholicism in the South.

The beginning of a settlement along these lines was made by the Treaty of Prague, concluded on 30 May 1635, between the chastened emperor and the oscillating elector of Saxony—Lutheranism was recognized; the Edict of Restitution dropped; and ecclesiastical lands left as in 1627. Most of the Protestant princes and many towns accepted pacification on similar terms.

But, unhappily, the peace thus partially achieved did not end the war. It left too many unsatisfied people as:

(i) The Calvinists still remained unrecognized

(ii) The numerous Protestants who had been deprived of their secularized ecclesiastical lands between 1618 and 1627 were disappointed of recovery

(iii) The Palatinate and its electoral hat still continued in the possession of Max of Bavaria

(iv) The Swedes had not received the Baltic provinces that they coveted

(v) The French had not achieved that rectification of the frontiers that they felt necessary for their security against Hapsburg attack

It was the French, indeed, under Richelieu's masterly but immoral direction, who were the prime movers in the war from 1635 to 1648. They took Bernard of Saxe-Weimar and his army into their pay; they entered into an alliance with the Swedes for the realization of their claims on the Baltic littoral; they formally declared war on Spain in May 1635. It was, indeed, the Spanish Hapsburgs, with Philip IV (1621–65) at their head, whom Richelieu now regarded as the most formidable foes of France.

The Austrian Hapsburgs were fairly well insulated by the now-independent Protestant princes of north Germany. But Spain still threatened France from Rousillon and Cerdagne, from Franche Comte and the Belgian Low Countries. The two particular objects of Richelieu's desires were the two Pyrennean provinces (Rousillon and Cerdagne) and the two Khineland provinces (Alsace and Lorraine), for though the latter were not in Spanish possession, they were the main means of communication between Franche Comte and the Netherlands. The Austrian Hapsburgs connived at the Spanish use of Alsace; the Duke of Lorraine was too weak to offer any effective resistance to Spanish transit. The closing phase of the Thirty Years' War was, therefore, little more than a revival of the century-old struggle between France and Spain for frontier provinces and European hegemony.

8.3.4 The French Period (1635–48)

Under Cardinal Richelieu's supreme direction, until his death in 1642, French armies contended against Hapsburg forces in the Netherlands, in Alsace; in Italy, along the Pyrenees; the Weimerian Army held the Rhinland and harassed Spanish land communications; the Swedish Army made good its hold over Western Pomerama; the Dutch fleet was brought in to isolate the Netherlands from Spain by sea. After Richelieu's death, Mazarin took up the work and carried it to a triumphant conclusion.

The opening years of this period, it is true, saw a number of French reverses at the hands of the redoubtable Spanish .infantry. Later on, however, France produced two generals of genius—Louis de Bourbon, Prince of Conde, and Henry

NOTES

d'Auvergne, Viscount Turenne. These men, before the end of the war, had made French arms supreme in Europe.

Outstanding events in this ragged and ubiquitous struggle—events that did most to determine the final issue were:

(i) the Swedish victory at Wittstock 1636;

(ii) the victory of Bernand of Saxe-Weimar at Rheinfelden in 1638;

(iii) Conde's crushing defeat of the Spaniards in the Netherlands at Rocroi in 1643—a victory invaluable as confirming Mazarin in power; and

(iv) the joint invasion of Bavaria in 1648 by the French under Turenne and the Swedes under Wraugel, culminating in the battle of Zusmarshausen. The savage devastation of Southern Germany subsequent to this victory of Turenne compelled the reluctant Catholics to accept a dictated peace.

Discussions with a view to a settlement had been going on for several years. The Catholic Powers—the emperor, the kings of France and Spain, the ecclesiastical electors, the Catholic princes—had had representatives at Munster in Westphalia. The Protestant Powers—the king of Sweden, the Lutheran and Calvinistic electors, princes, and cities together also with their ally the king of France, had representatives at the contiguous Osnabruck. The decisive events of 1648 brought discussions to an end and enabled the Protestant Powers to have a determining voice in the settlement usually known as the Peace of Westphalia (October 1648).

Check Your Progress

3. What are the phases of the Thirty Years' war?
4. In 1630, what happened at the Diet of Regensburg?

8.4 TREATISE OF WESTPHALIA

The peace treaties signed in October 1648, known as Peace of Westphalia, established the principle of non-interference as a pillar of international relationships. The conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia marked the end of the Wars of Religion; henceforth, commerce, colonization, and command of the sea were the main subjects of contest. It also marked the establishment of the modern state system based on the principles of territorial sovereignty, theoretical equality, and internal autonomy. It signalized, too, the extinction of the mediaeval idea of a *Respublica Christiana* administered by a Holy Roman Emperor and a Holy Roman Pope.

NOTES

Peace of Westphalia also displayed the utter disruption of Germany; the central authority had vanished away; the Hapsburgs had sunk into impotence, save as local rulers; the way had been opened for the sinister rise of Prussia to ascendancy in north Germany, and for the anti-national machinations of Bavaria in south Germany.



Fig. 8.1 *Peace of Westphalia, October 1648*

Source: *http://www.daftblogger.com/differing-concepts-of-international-relationships-in-china-and-europe-at-the-dawn-of-modern-period/peace-of-westphalia/*

The Peace of Westphalia did not end the Franco-Spanish war which had begun in 1635. That dreary struggle dragged on for another eleven years, occupying the major part of Mazarin's attention during the closing period of his life. It was, of course, much impeded and protracted by the internal disturbances due to the Fronde (1648–53). In 1657, Mazarin, at last free and supreme, made an alliance with England, and the combined forces of the two countries, operating in the Spanish Netherlands, soon compelled Spain to accept defeat. One of Mazarin's last important acts was to conclude the Treaty of the Pyrenees (7 November 1659) with Spain.

The terms of this extremely important settlement are as follows:

1. France was to acquire Roussillon and Cerdagne, Artois and portions of Hainault and Luxemburg.
2. The young Louis XIV was to marry Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip IV—a fateful marriage.
3. The principle '*cuius regio, eius religio*' was to be maintained.
4. Calvinists were to enjoy the same rights as Lutherans.
5. Ecclesiastical lands were to remain as on 1 January 1624.

NOTES

6. Catholics and Protestants to have equal representation in the *Reichskammergericht* (the sovereign court of the old German empire), as per the Second Territorial Settlement of Germany.
7. The Elector-Palatinate to recover the Lower Palatinate and to receive a new electoral hat.
8. Max of Bavaria to keep the Upper Palatinate with the old electorate.
9. The Elector of Saxony to receive Lusatia and part of Magdeburg.
10. The Elector of Brandenburg to receive the reminder of Magdeburg, together with various other bishoprics and duchies as per the Third Settlement of External Claims.
11. The Swedes to acquire western Pomerania, Bremen and Verden, with representation in the Imperial Diet.
12. The French to secure Austrian Alsace with Breisach, but excluding Strasbourg, the fortresses of Phillipsburg and Pinerolo, together with confirmation of their possession of Metz, Toul and Verdun.
13. The independence of the city of Bremen was clarified.

Check Your Progress

5. What were the implications of Peace of Westaphalia?
6. Mention, at least, two points of Treaty of Pyrenees.

8.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The outcome of Peace of Augsburg (1555) was extremely unsatisfactory. It could bring about only a temporary settlement of the conflict between Catholics and Lutherans in the Holy Roman Empire. Its terms were vague and ambiguous, and the settlement also provided no machinery by means of which its terms could be enforced. Its enforcement proved to be a constant source of friction, which led to the armed conflict of 1618.
2. Maximilian II, son of Ferdinand, succeeded him to the throne of Germany.
3. The Wars passed through four main phases which may be distinguished as:
   (i) The Bohemian Period (1618–23)
   (ii) The Danish Period (1624–29)
   (iii) The Swedish Period (1629–35)
   (iv) The French Period (1635–48)
4. In 1630, the active mover Richelieu, the consummate master of statecraft, with uncanny skill carried on simultaneously two sets of negotiations, both

crowned with complete success. On the one hand, through the agency of a clever Capuchin, Father Joseph, he worked up Maximilian of Bavaria; and the other leaders of the Catholic League, who were assembled in the Diet of Regensburg (1630), to demand and insist upon the dismissal of the impious and ambitious Wallenstein.

NOTES

5. Peace of Westphalia (1648) marked the end of the Wars of Religion; henceforth, commerce, colonization, and command of the sea were the main subjects of contest. It also marked the establishment of the modern state system based on the principles of territorial sovereignty, theoretical equality, and internal autonomy. It signalized, too, the extinction of the mediaeval idea of a Respublica Christiana administered by a Holy Roman Emperor and a Holy Roman Pope.
6. Under the Treaty of the Pyrenees (7 November 1659) with Spain (i) Calvinists were to enjoy the same rights as Lutherans and (ii) Ecclesiastical lands were to remain as on 1 January 1624.

8.6 SUMMARY

- The Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) was basically a series of wars predominantly fought in Central Europe involving most of the European states.
- In the German history, Peace of Augsburg (1555) could bring about only a temporary settlement of the conflict between Catholics and Lutherans in the Holy Roman Empire. The outcome of this settlement was extremely unsatisfactory.
- The election duly took place at Frankfurt in March 1558—it was a mere formality; for Ferdinand had administered the Hapsburg lands since 1521, and had been elected "King of the Romans", that is, prospective emperor, in 1531.
- As a consequence of the Peace of Augsburg, Protestantism was on the advance again. On the one hand, in spite of the regulations respecting "ecclesiastical reservations", bishops and their chapter were going over bodily to the Lutheran side, carrying all the episcopal property and patronage with them.
- Early in the seventeenth century, the menaced Protestants began to organize themselves for resistance. In particular, the Calvinists of the Upper Rhineland formed a defensive Union in 1608 under the Elector-Palatine, Frederick IV. The Catholics replied by forming a League in 1609 under the leadership of Maximilian of Bavaria. All things indicated the renewal of the war of religion.

NOTES

- The Protestant stalwarts, headed by Count Henry of Thurn, furious at the Diet's abject surrender in 1617, determined to repudiate the settlement, dethrone Ferdinand, expel the Hapsburgs altogether, and proceed to elect a king of their own. Accordingly on 22 May 1618, accompanied by a band of fully-armed men, the Protestant stalwarts made their way to the Castle of Prague, presented themselves before the two chief regents, Martinitz and Slavata.
- The Thirty Years' War began with the Bohemian revolt in 1618 and ended with the Peace of Westphalia in 1648.
- The Wars passed through four main phases which may be distinguished as: (i) the Bohemian Period (1618–23), (ii) the Danish Period (1624–29), (iii) the Swedish Period (1629–35), and (iv) the French Period (1635–48).
- The peace treaties signed in October 1648, known as Peace of Westphalia, established the principle of non-interference as a pillar of international relationships..

8.7 KEY WORDS

- **Apostasy:** It means formal disaffiliation from or abandonment or renunciation of a religion by a person.
- **Calvinism:** It is a theological system associated with the Reformer John Calvin that emphasizes the rule of God over all things as reflected in its understanding of Scripture, God, humanity, salvation and the Church.
- **Lutheranism:** It is a major branch of Western Christianity that identifies with the theology of the German reformer Martin Luther.
- **Peace of Augsburg:** It is a treaty between Charles V and the forces of the Schmalkaldic League, an alliance of Lutheran princes, on 25 September 1555.
- **Treaty of Barwalde (1631):** It is a treaty concluding an alliance between France and Sweden during the Thirty Years' War.
- **Treaty of Lubeck:** It refers to the treaty of June 1629, where Denmark was allowed to keep her possessions including the valuable state of Holstein.

8.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What do you understand by the Thirty Years' War?
2. What led to the outbreak of Thirty Years' War? Enumerate.

3. What was the role of religion in the Thirty Years' War? Elaborate your answer with historical incidences.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the origin of Thirty Years' of War.
2. Discuss the significance of the Thirty Years' War.
3. In how many phases can the Thirty Years' of War be divided? Discuss.

NOTES

8.9 FURTHER READINGS

Elton, G.R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559,* 2nd (ed.). London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V.G. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D.H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century*, 2nd (ed.). London: Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. New Delhi: Macmillan Publishers India Limited, India.

UNIT 9 THE RISE OF RUSSIA

NOTES

Structure

9.0 Introduction
9.1 Objectives
9.2 The Rise of Russia: An Overview
9.3 Peter the Great (1672-1725)
9.4 Catherine the Great (1762-1796)
9.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
9.6 Summary
9.7 Key Words
9.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
9.9 Further Readings

9.0 INTRODUCTION

Russian history starts with the people of East Slavs and the Finno-Ugric. The traditional beginning of history of Russia was in 882 with the establishment of Kievan Rus', the first united Eastern Slavic state. Christianity was adopted in the state during the Byzantine Empire in 988, commencing the amalgamation of Byzantine and Slavic cultures and these demarcated Orthodox Slavic culture for the following era. Kievan Rus' eventually collapsed as a state owing to the attacks by the Mongol in 1237–1240 together with the subsequent deaths of approximately half the population of Rus'. Perforations

In this unit, you will study about the early history and rise of Russia, the Mongol invasion in Russia and its impact. The unit also throws light on rise of Moscow and about the life of Peter the Great, the Russian Empire and Catherine the Great, the Russian Empress.

9.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss the beginning of Russian history and the rise of Moscow
- Explain the Mongol invasion to Russia
- Describe the life of Peter the Great and Catherine the Great.

9.2 THE RISE OF RUSSIA: AN OVERVIEW

Moscow became a cultural center after the 13th century and by the 18th century, the Tsardom of Russia had grown to become the Russian Empire which stretched

from eastern Poland to the Pacific Ocean. The revolts of peasants were common during the time and all were fiercely suppressed. A few modern Russian ancestors were the Salvic tribes. East Slavs established the bulk of population in Western Russia from the 7th century onwards.

NOTES

Rise of Moscow

The youngest son of Alexander Nevsky was Daniil Aleksandrovich and he was the one who had instituted the territory of Moscow earlier called Muscovy in English. Tatars were initially in cooperation with Russia but later they were expelled. Moscow was situated well in the central river system of Russia and it was also enclosed by protective forests and marshes. Initially, it was merely a vassal of Vladimir, after some time it had been incorporated within the parent state.

A key factor in the power of Moscow was the collaboration of its monarchs with the overlords of the Mongol; they allowed monarchs the title of Grand Prince of Moscow and used them as representatives responsible for the collection of the Tatar tribute from the territories of Russia. The prestige of the territory was increased even more once it was made a centre of the Russian Orthodox Church. In 1299, the leader of the Metropolitan escaped from Kiev to Vladimir and after some years permanent headquarters of the Church were set up in Moscow with the actual title of Kiev Metropolitan.

The power of Mongols began to decline by the mid of fourteenth century, this provided the Grand Princes the chance to freely raise voice against the oppression of the Mongol. The Mongols were defeated in 1380 at Kulikovo situated on the River Don. Even though this labourer triumph did not put an end to the rule of Tatar in Russia yet it managed to provide enormous popularity for Grand Prince Dmitry Donskoy. The headship of Moscow within Russia had been strongly established by the mid of fourteenth century. By this time there was territorial expansion as well as due to conquest, matrimony and acquisition.

Throughout the fifteenth century, the grand princes of Moscow unrelentingly consolidated the territory of Russia. The expansion led to increasing of wealth as well as its population. The most prosperous in the expansion process was Ivan III; he was the one who laid the grounds for a Russian national state. Ivan contested with his influential north-western rival, the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, for gaining control on few of the partially sovereign Upper Principalities in the upper Dnieper and Oka River basins.

Ivan III managed to annex Novgorod and Tver after a prolonged war and other factors for his victory were the defection of some of the princes and fighting at the borders. This resulted in expanding the Grand Duchy of Moscow three times its original size during his reign.

In the period after the thirteenth century, Moscow had become a centre for culture and the Tsardom of Russia had expanded a turned into the Russian

NOTES

Empire by the eighteenth century. During this period it boundaries stretched Pacific Ocean till the eastern parts of Poland. Revolts by the peasant were a regular occurrence and they were always suppressed fiercely. In 1861 serfdom was abolished in Russia. However the state of peasants remained in a poor state and they often revolted. Many efforts were made in the coming years to reform the situation, reforms like Stolypin reforms, the constitution of 1906, and the State Duma tried to establish free and liberal systems in the economic and the political field but the tsars were not willing to renounce their authority or tolerate the division of authority.

In 1917, Russian Revolution broke out. The revolution was prompted due to multiple factors such as breakdown of the economy, increased disillusionment towards frequent wars and moreover severe discontentment with prevailing governmental autocracy in the country. In the beginning the power came in the hands of allied liberals and moderate socialists, but then failure of their weak failed policies landed the power in the hands of the communist Bolsheviks on 25 October. Between 1922 and 1991, the history of Russia is same as the history of the Soviet Union, effectually an ideologically created state that was partly sharing its boundaries with the Russian Empire prior to the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was signed. The method of constructing socialism was different in every phase of history of Russia; it was wide-ranging from mixed economy and varied society and culture during the 1920s to the authoritative economy and suppressions that prevailed during the time of Joseph Stalin up to the lack of progress in the 1980s. From the time of its initiation the Soviet government was founded on the single party rule of the Communists, as defined by the Bolsheviks during the start of March 1918.

By the middle of 1980s, the economic and the political systems of Russia were acutely weak and Mikhail Gorbachev got on board to start the reforming process. This resulted in disintegration of USSR and overthrowing of the communist party. Russia was once again left on its own and began a period of outlining the history of the Russia after disintegrating from the Soviet. The Russian Federation was launched in January 1992 it is regarded as the legitimate successor to the USSR. Russia still had its nuclear resource but now it was no longer regarded as a super-power. Scuffling the socialist central planning and state rights of property prevailing during the socialist period, new leaders, headed by President Vladimir Putin, took hold of the political and economic power in the years after 2000 and the new government began to engage in an active foreign policy. The recent annexation of the Crimean peninsula by Russia had led to harsh economic sanctions levied by the United States and the European Union.

9.3 PETER THE GREAT (1672–1725)

NOTES

Peter the Great got authoritarianism into Russia and reigned over Russia for around 43 years from 1682 till his death in 1725. He played an important role in transporting his country into the European state system. Russia during his period was considered as the world's biggest country, its boundaries stretched from the Pacific Ocean till the Baltic Sea. Most of the land was not inhibited and travelling through these parts took a long time. Most of the expansion, carried out by Peter, had completed by the middle of the seventeenth century, it ended with the first Russian settlement of the Pacific, the reconquering of Kiev, and the reunion of the Siberian tribes. Nonetheless, a population of merely fourteen million was spread over this huge part of land. The growing season of grain was very short and lagged behind in the West and till now potato farming was not done in most areas. Due to this most of the labour class in Russia were busy in agriculture. Russia continued to remain inaccessible from the sea trade and all of its internal trade, communication and manufacturing were dependent on the seasons.

The initial military efforts made by Peter were focused against the Ottoman Turks. He wanted to create a foothold for Russia on the Black Sea by capturing the town of Azov. After this he turned his attention towards the north. Peter had only managed to secure the seaport at Archangel on the White Sea; he had nothing in the north. And even Archangel was not of much use as it remained in a frozen state for about nine months each year. Entree to the Baltic was obstructed by Sweden; its territory surrounded the region from three sides. In his desire to create a path in the sea he got into a secret agreement with Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth and Denmark in to attack Sweden. This alliance resulted in the Great Northern War.

In 1721 the war finally concluded and a shattered Sweden indicted for peace with Russia. Peter attained four provinces located in the south and east of the Gulf of Finland, consequently obtaining his longed for entree to the sea. Here, in 1703, he had by now created the city that was to be the new capital of Russia, Saint Petersburg; this new city was to replace Moscow, the cultural centre of Russia. He regarded this as the window opening into Europe. Russian involvement in the Commonwealth manifested, with the Silent Sejm, the commencement of a two hundred year dominance of the expanse by the Russian Empire. As a mark of his takeovers, Peter took upon the title of emperor, and the Russian Tsardom formally came to be the Russian Empire in 1721.

Peter modernized his government centred on the up-to-date Western models, moulding Russia into an absolutist state. The old boyar Duma (council of nobles) was replaced by him and in its place he appointed a senate consisting of nine-members, under a supreme council of state. The countryside was separated into different provinces and districts as well. Peter instructed the senate that their task was collection of tax revenues. In fact tax revenues increased up to three times during his rule.

NOTES

Administrative Collegia or the ministries were set up in St. Petersburg; they replaced the earlier departments of the government. In 1722, Peter publicized the most talked about Table of ranks. The Orthodox Church was partly merged into the administrative structure of the country this was mainly done in order to reform the government. This merging gave the opportunity to the state to use the Church as a tool in its favour. The patriarchate was done away by Peter and instead a combined body headed by the government officials was put in place, it was called the Holy Synod. Peter carried on intensifying the requirements of the state services for all nobles that had been prevailing since the time of his ancestors.

During this period, formerly dominant Safavid Empire of Persia in the south began to severely decline, Peter did not waste time and began the Russo-Persian War (1722-1723), called as 'The Persian Expedition of Peter the Great' by the historians of Russia. He became the pioneer Emperor who managed to spread the influence of Russia in the regions of Caucasus and Caspian Sea. He managed to capture several provinces and towns in the Caucasus and northern mainland Persia, the Safavids did not stand a chance and were compelled to part with their territories to Peter. Nevertheless, all the territories were returned to Persia during the rule of Nader Shah twelve years later. The territories were returned as a deal of the Treaty of Resht and Treaty of Ganja and the Russo-Persian agreement against the Ottoman Empire, the mutual rival enemy of both the nations.

In 1725, Peter the Great died and Russia was left with a disconcerted succession, the situation did not affect Russia as by the end of Peter's reign Russia was a great power. Inventive tsars such as Peter the Great and Catherine the Great invited Western professionals, scientists, thinkers, and engineers to Russia, this was not liked by the influential Russians and they felt bitter when important positions were given to them and also they were not agreeable over their foreign ideas. The hostile response was particularly strong after the Napoleonic wars. It created a potent anti-western movement leading to an all-round campaign against them and Russian s favouring them not only in governmental establishment but also in educational institutes.

Financial crisis prevailed in Russia throughout; the tax revenues had reached up to forty million rubbles in 1794 from the nine million in 1724. The military was allotted forty-six percent funds in the budget while twenty percent was given to economic activities of the government another twelve percent to administration and only nine percent to the Imperial Court in St. Petersburg. Russia had to borrow funds in order to make up for their deficits, the funds were mostly borrowed from Amsterdam; in order to pay back the debts five percent of the budget had to be allocated towards it. Inflation increased as regular currency was used for funding wars and they costed lot of money. Since large chunk of the money in the budget was spent on army, Russia managed to acquire an enormous and celebrated army, it also had an intricate and extensive system of bureaucracy, and a grand court that matched the court in Paris and London. But, these glories did not help the common

man in Russia and even by eighteenth century they remained poor, recessive, mostly agrarian, and uneducated.

Catherine I was the second wife of Peter I, he was succeeded by her and she merely acted as a rubberstamp and the actual power was in the hands of high ranked officials. She was succeeded by Peter I's minor grandchild, Peter II and then his niece Anna; she was the daughter of Tsar Ivan V.

NOTES

9.4 CATHERINE THE GREAT (1762-1796)

The Russian throne was deprived of an ambitious ruler like Peter the Great for over forty years. Catherine II took over the throne in 1762 and continued to rein till 1796; she was a German princess who got into matrimony with the German heir to the Russian crown. She soon realised that he was not capable of ruling the vast empire and quietly assented to his assassination and as a result she was crowned in 1762. Catherine actively braced the principles of The Enlightenment, consequently receiving the standing of an enlightened despot, in this context "despot" was not meant to convey any derogatory implication. She supported the arts, science and learning. She backed the revival of the Russian nobility that had started years following the demise of Peter the Great. Catherine publicized the Charter to the Gentry confirming the rights and liberty of the nobles in Russia; she banned the forceful state service. Control of church land was taken over by her and the queen began to keep a check on the size of the monasteries, and all the remaining clergy men were made to function with limited funds.

The foreign policy was aimed towards expansion and for this purpose Catherine allocated adequate funds. During her time Russian political control was extended on the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth, she supported the Targowica Confederation. In 1773, a massive peasant revolt broke out as a reaction towards the oppression faced by the serfs in the hands of their landlords and also the expenses of all her campaigns was very high and the burden had to be bared by the commoners. The rebellions planned to take over Moscow but they were crushed soon before that stage by Catherine. Like all other European enlightened despots she asserted her powers and created an agreement with the nobles of Russia.

Catherine effectively conducted war over the declining Ottoman Empire and stretched the Russian boundaries in the south up to the Black Sea. She managed to incorporate the territories of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth after forming alliances with rulers of Austria and Prussia, now the Russian boundaries stretched up to Central parts of Western Europe. Keeping with the terms of the treaty Russia had made with the Georgians to defend them against any fresh attack on their Persian colonial power and additional political aspirations, Catherine conducted a another war againsburersia in 1796 once they attacked Georgia for a second time and had established their rule in 1795 after expelling the Russian garrisons appointed in the Caucasus.

NOTES

Catherine managed enormous personal successes throughout her life and rule, however in the end she was faced with disappointments. In September 1796 she was paid a visit by her Swedish cousin, King Gustav IV Adolph, she wished that her granddaughter should be married to the king and become the Queen of Sweden. A ball was to be held at the imperial court for the engagement to be announced. Gustav Adolph felt distressed to agree the fact that Alexandra was not going to convert to Lutheranism, and although he was found of the lady but at the last minute he returned back to Stockholm without attending the ball. This caused lot of stress for Catherine and her health began to suffer. She left the incident aside and in November 1796 began the planning of a ceremony where she was going to appoint her much-loved grandson to take over the throne superseding her problematic son. However prior to the announcement she died of a stroke.

Check Your Progress

1. When did the power of Mongols begin to decline?
2. With whom did Ivan III contest for influence?
3. When and why the Russian Revolution broke out?
4. When was the Russian Federation launched?
5. Why did Peter the Great build St Petersburg?

9.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The power of Mongols began to decline by the mid of fourteenth century, this provided the Grand Princes the chance to freely raise voice against the oppression of the Mongol.
2. Ivan, the Prince of Moscow, contested with his influential north-western rival, the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, for gaining control on few of the partially sovereign Upper Principalities in the upper Dnieper and Oka River basins.
3. The Russian Revolution broke out in 1917 and was provoked due to multiple factors such as breakdown of the economy, increased disillusionment towards frequent wars and moreover severe discontentment with prevailing governmental autocracy in the country.
4. The Russian Federation was launched in January 1992 it is regarded as the legitimate successor to the USSR.
5. In 1703, Peter the Great created the new capital of Russia, Saint Petersburg, the new city to replace Moscow, the cultural centre of Russia. He considered this as the window opening into Europe.

9.6 SUMMARY

NOTES

- The Russian history starts with the people of East Slavs and the Finno-Ugric. The traditional beginning of history of Russia was in 882 with the establishment of Kievan Rus', the first united Eastern Slavic state.
- Moscow became a cultural center after the 13th century and by the 18th century, the Tsardom of Russia had grown to become the Russian Empire which stretched from eastern Poland to the Pacific Ocean.
- The youngest son of Alexander Nevsky was Daniil Aleksandrovich and he was the one who had instituted the territory of Moscow earlier called Muscovy in English.
- A key factor in the power of Moscow was the collaboration of its monarchs with the overlords of the Mongol; they allowed monarchs the title of Grand Prince of Moscow and used them as representatives responsible for the collection of the Tatar tribute from the territories of Russia.
- The Mongols were defeated in 1380 at Kulikovo situated on the River Don. Even though this labourer triumph did not put an end to the rule of Tatar in Russia yet it managed to provide enormous popularity for Grand Prince Dmitry Donskoy.
- Between 1922 and 1991, the history of Russia is same as the history of the Soviet Union, effectually an ideologically created state that was partly sharing its boundaries with the Russian Empire prior to the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was signed.
- From the time of its initiation the Soviet government was founded on the single party rule of the Communists, as defined by the Bolsheviks during the start of March 1918.
- The Russian Federation was launched in January 1992 it is regarded as the legitimate successor to the USSR.
- Peter the Great got authoritarianism into Russia and reigned over Russia for around 43 years from 1682 till his death in 1725. . Russia during his period was considered as the world's biggest country, its boundaries stretched from the Pacific Ocean till the Baltic Sea.
- The initial military efforts made by Peter were focused against the Ottoman Turks. He wanted to create a foothold for Russia on the Black Sea by capturing the town of Azov.
- In 1703, he had by now created the city that was to be the new capital of Russia, Saint Petersburg; this new city was to replace Moscow, the cultural centre of Russia. Peter took upon the title of emperor, and the Russian Tsardom formally came to be the Russian Empire in 1721.

NOTES

- During this period, formerly dominant Safavid Empire of Persia in the south began to severely decline, Peter did not waste time and began the Russo-Persian War (1722-1723), called as 'The Persian Expedition of Peter the Great' by the historians of Russia
- Financial crisis prevailed in Russia throughout; the tax revenues had reached up to forty million rubbles in 1794 from the nine million in 1724.
- The Russian throne was deprived of an ambitious ruler like Peter the Great for over forty years. Catherine II took over the throne in 1762 and continued to rein till 1796; she was a German princess who got into matrimony with the German heir to the Russian crown.
- During her time Russian political control was extended on the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth, she supported the Targowica Confederation. In 1773, a massive peasant revolt broke out as a reaction towards the oppression faced by the serfs in the hands of their landlords and also the expenses of all her campaigns was very high and the burden had to be bared by the commoners.
- Catherine managed enormous personal successes throughout her life and rule, however in the end she was faced with disappointments.
- In September 1796 she was paid a visit by her Swedish cousin, King Gustav IV Adolph, she wished that her granddaughter should be married to the king and become the Queen of Sweden.

9.7 KEY WORDS

- **Authoritarianism:** It refers to the enforcement or advocacy of strict obedience to authority at the expense of personal freedom.
- **Patriarchate:** It refers to an ecclesiological term in Christianity, designating the office and jurisdiction of an ecclesiastical patriarch.
- **Holy Synod:** It refers to the governing body of any of the Orthodox Churches.
- **Despot:** It refers to a ruler or other person who holds absolute power, typically one who exercises it in a cruel or oppressive way.

9.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What did Peter the Great accomplish for Russia?
2. Which alliance resulted in the Great Northern War?

3. When did the territories of Caucasus and Caspian Sea return to Persia?
4. When did Catherine II take over the Russian throne?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Examine the influence of Peter the Great on Russia?
2. Why was the Orthodox Church partly merged into the administrative structure of Russia? Discuss.
3. What is Catherine the Great known for? Discuss.

NOTES

9.9 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.).* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

UNIT 10 PARTITION OF POLAND

NOTES

Structure

10.0 Introduction
10.1 Objectives
10.2 Partition of Poland
10.3 Russia's War
10.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
10.5 Summary
10.6 Key Words
10.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
10.8 Further Readings

10.0 INTRODUCTION

The history of Poland is extremely turbulent. The constant attacks and the occupation of Poland by other nations, left it weak. Nevertheless, it was able to fight many battles; in few of them, it even emerged victorious. However, the lack of political and military astuteness led to it being divided for three times. This unit discusses the conditions, events, and outcomes of the partitions and the Polish-Russian War.

10.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Understand the conditions during the partition of Poland
- Analyse the events leading up to the Russian War
- Discuss the ramifications of the Russian War

10.2 PARTITION OF POLAND

The First Partition of Poland took place when Russia began to participate in a war against the Ottoman Turks in 1768 and managed to be victorious, gaining the territories of Danube. Their victory posed a threat to Austria and it prepared itself to attack Russia. Frederick II (the Great) of Prussia, on the other hand, did not want an extension of the Russo-Turkish War, began to work towards improving the relations between Austria and Russia. He diverted them from Turk territory to have their attention on weak Poland. Since 1768, Poland had been struggling due to a weak governmental structure, devastation caused during the Civil war, and the impact of intervention by Russia. The country was not prepared to resist any sort of attack.

NOTES

In the beginning of August, in 1772, troops of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, together attacked Poland and divided territories amongst themselves, as previously agreed upon. On August 5, 1772, the occupation manifesto was delivered. Due to the Confederation of Bar**,** the Polish were not able to offer a strong resistance, though a number of clashes and cordons did take place in Tyniec, Czêstochowa, and Kraków as the troops of Poland were not ready to give up.

The treaty of the partition was approved by its participants on September 22, 1772. Prussian King, Frederick II, was thrilled with this achievement; Prussia got the control of the entire Royal Prussia excluding Danzig, but gaining the northern areas of Great Poland together with Noteæ River and parts of Kuyavia. The Austrian Empress, Maria Theresa, and her ministers made a nominal disapproval over the partition, but in their heart, they were thrilled to gain a major share that included the rich salt mines of Bochnia and Wieliczka. They also got Zator and Auschwitz, part of Lesser Poland taking up parts of the counties of Kraków and Sandomir, the entire Galicia, and some parts of the city of Kraków. Catherine of Russia was equally contented with the partition as Russia gained control of parts of remaining Livonia, and of Belarus including the counties of Vitebsk, Polotsk, and Mstislavl.

After the partition more than thirty percent of the territory of the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth was lost, along with the nearly half of the population. Getting hold of north-western Poland, helped Prussia to immediately gain control over the eighty percent of the country's foreign trade. Prussia began to levy huge customs duties, which speed up the downfall of the Commonwealth. The three powers took control of their territories and compelled the King and the Sejm to consent with their endeavours. With no other option left, the King agreed to sign the treaty of cession on September 18, 1773, surrendering all rights of the Commonwealth over the territories taken over by the three countries.

After, nearly twenty years of the first partition, Poland began to make efforts towards regaining its strength, with the adoption of several reforms internally. The outcome of these attempts was seen in form of the conservative Confederation of Targowica in May 14, 1792. Russia was asked to intervene to reinstate the earlier Polish constitution. Russia was prompt in accepting the invite, which also made Prussia to send their troops into Poland. On 23 January, 1793, the two countries decided to divide Poland for the second time. The partition was official by the end of August and beginning of September 1793. The Polish Sejm after being pressurised by the Russia, had no choice but to agree to the second partition. The second Partition earned Russia major parts of what was left of Lithuanian Belorussia and the western Ukraine, plus Podolia and part of Volhynia, while Prussia was able to incorporate the towns of Gdañsk and Toruñ along with Great Poland and portion of Mazovia. The Second Partition made Poland lose an area of more than three thousand square kilometres to the two countries.

As a reaction towards the Second Partition, the Polish officer, Tadeusz Koœciuszko, led a nation-wide revolt in March 1794, which continued until

NOTES

November of the same year. On 24 October 1795, the Russian and Prussians interfered in order to control the insurgence and their participants. During the same time, they entered into a treaty with Austria and thus, the remaining territories of Poland were once again divided amongst the three. Poland was left with the territory of about 215,000 square km. The third partition was formal by January 1797, after which, Russia merged Courland, the entirety of Lithuanian territory in the east of the Neman (Nieman) River, and the remaining parts of Volhynian Ukraine. Prussia attained the leftovers parts of Mazovia, with Warsaw, and a segment of Lithuania in the west of the Neman, while Austria took hold of the portions left of Little Poland, which stretched from Kraków northeastward to the arc of the Northern Bug River.

When the emperor, Napoleon of France, shaped the Duchy of Warsaw from the central provinces of Prussian Poland in 1807, there was an alteration in the divisions of territories made during the third partition. The division underwent a change again in 1815, when the Congress of Vienna formed the Congress Kingdom of Poland. Nonetheless, the actual outcome of the partitions was the complete wipe out of the independent state of Poland. This remained in effect until the end of the World War I. After the war, the Polish republic was eventually re-established in November 1918.

Check Your Progress

1. When were the three partitions of Poland carried out?
2. Why was Poland divided for the third time?
3. Why did Frederick II of Prussia, want to avoid war between Austria and Russia?

10.3 RUSSIA'S WAR

The Polish–Russian War of 1792, is referred to as the War of the Second Partition. In Polish history, it has also been mentioned as War in Defence of the Constitution. The war happened during the reign of Catherine the Great and the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth and the nobles of the Commonwealth who were not in favour of the Constitution constituted in May 1791, Targowica Confederation. The war happened in two parts, one in the northern part in Lithuania and another in the southern part of Ukraine. The Polish forces were no match to the gloriously large Russian army in both the parts, however due to the strong and capable leadership of two Polish commanders, Prince Józef Poniatowski and Tadeusz Koœciuszko, they managed to hold front in the south. The struggle lasted for three lengthy months, during which, many battles were fought but none of the parties could be declared victorious. The biggest success of the Polish forces was when they

NOTES

defeated the Russian establishments during the Battle of Zieleñce on 18 June. After this victory, the highest military award, Virtuti Militari, was created in Poland, for future honours. The Polish King, Stanis³aw August Poniatowski, asked for a diplomatic resolution so that the war could end. He asked for a truce with the Russians and united with the pro-Russian noble section, on the command of the Russian Empire.

Southern part in Ukraine

The initial Russian armies crossed the Ukrainian border on the night of 19 May 1792. The Russians were aware of the strong resistance that they would face in this part, because of the presence of top commanders of the Commonwealth, Prince Poniatowski and Koœciuszko. They both combined forces on May 29 close to Janów. The Crown Army was not strong enough to face the four posts of enemy armies progressing into West Ukraine and started to fight them at the western side of the Southern Bug River, near Lubar and Po³onne, with Koœiuszko at the command at the rear side. Poniatowski with his small forces faced the army from the front. He was assured support by King Poniatowski, who took the decision to leave Ukraine and shift to Volhynia. Po³onne was to be established as a major point of defence, where Lubomirski was assigned with the task of accumulating supplies.

On 14 June, the unit of Wielhorski lost the Battle of Boruszkowce. On 17 June, finally Poniatowski's much awaited reinforcements finally arrived, with around 2,000 troops under the command of Micha³ Lubomirski. The following day, forces under the command of Prince Poniatowski, conquered a Russian establishment of General Irakly Morkov in the Battle of Zieleñce on 18 June. King Poniatowski was thrilled and the Virtuti Militari medals were sent for the campaign leaders and soldiers, as 'the first since John III Sobieski'.

However, the defeat did not stop the Russians from progressing. The Polish army, with Józef Poniatowski in command, was still withdrawing in order, resilient to the strength of the strong enemy in order to evade total destruction. In beginning of July, close to Dubno, Micha³ Lubomirski betrayed the two commanders. He was given the task of bringing in the supplies, but instead he combined forces with the Russians. Thus, the polish army was left without any supplies. Lubomirski, on the other hand, was an influential mogul, and it was not easy for the King to dismiss him. Russian invasion had continued for barely a month and the forces of Poland began to retreat from Ukraine. On 7 July, Koœciuszko's forces held the Russians in battle of W³odzimierz, which allowed time for the army led by Poniatowski to retreat into the area of Bug River, where on 18 July, units of Koœciuszko fought the Battle of Dubienka, resulting in a draw. Koœciuszko faced the attack of 25,000 Russians with General Michail Kachovski in command, with his small force of 5300 troops. Koœicuszko later had to withdraw from Dubienka, as the Russians started bordering his locations by an overpass through the Austrian border, which was close by. Even after the retreat from the Bug River line, the Polish army was

yet to be defeated. There were many battles to be fought near Warsaw to decide the fate of the Polish forces.

Northern part in Lithuania

NOTES

In the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, the Russians were able to cross the Commonwealth border on 22 May, four days after they crossed the border in the south. The Kingdom of Prussia was to act as the ally of Poland, but they were quick to break the alliance. The Lithuanian army commander, Duke Württemberg, deceived the Polish-Lithuanian alliance, when he refused to fight in Poland's favour. He pretended to be unwell and did not reach the battle zone and neither did his troops as they were given vague orders. The Russian were able to advance easily as the army of Lithuania was not capable of stopping them alone. The army began to withdraw even before the Russians advanced. The army abandoned Minsk with just a few encounters, on 31 May. The Lithuanian army put up some sort of fight after there was a change in command on 4 June. General Józef Judycki tries to fight the Russians, but he was soon defeated by the Russians at the Battle of Mir on 11 June and they were able to progress through the Grand Duchy.

The Commonwealth army withdrew in the direction of Grodno. Wilno was taken by the Russians on 14 June; he was taken easily after a tiny battle with the local garrison. While Kaunas was taken at Nieœwie¿, on 19 June and 20 June without any opposition from the army. A discredited Judycki was substituted with Micha³ Zabie³³o on 23 June. Nevertheless, from the time of Mir, no conclusive actions took place in the northern part, since the Polish army pulled out towards the direction of Warsaw, after facing a tiny defeat at Zelwa, ultimately resorting to cautious stand near Brest around the Bug River. Grodno was taken by Russians on 5 July and by 17 July they were in control of Bia³ystok. Brest was under the control of Russians on 23 July, after the crushing defeat of the local garrison. However, on 24 July, the Russians got a taste of defeat near Krzemieñ-Wieœ; this concluding battle was the only noteworthy victory of the Commonwealth in the northern front.

End of the war with Russia

Despite the fact that both Prince Poniatowski and Koœciuszko, judged the result of the war as inconclusive, they continued to plan on defeating the Russian forces with the help of joint forces of Polish-Lithuania. King Poniatowski, after taking permission of the Guardians of the Laws or cabinet of ministers took the decision to ask for a truce. Tsarina Catherine commanded that the King Poniatowski will have to become a part of the pro-Russian noble section and the Targowica Confederation would cease to exist. The king agreed to her demands on 22 or 23 July, which made the Prince Poniatowsky reluctantly end the military opposition. The final military conflict of the war was fought at Markuszow of Lubin province on 26 July, where the attack by the enemy was deterred by the Polish cavalry under the command of Poniatowski.

NOTES

After this attack, King Poniatowski took the decision to persue peace. Although, the army in Poland had not suffered heavily during the war and was in fit conditions to fight more wars, King Poniatowski knew that, despite that they did not stand a chance in front of the numerical strength of the Russian army. Thus, he felt that peace talks will be more useful for Poland in the long run. The king wanted to enter into a fresh alliance with the Russians. The King was soon proved wrong, with the reoccurrence of the violation of the ceasefire. The Polish military was widely dissatisfied with the ceasefire; Koœciuszko, Prince Poniatowski and many others criticised the King's decision and many, including Koœciuszko, resigned from their commission in the coming weeks. Prince Poniatowski even considered rebelling against his uncle's orders, and issued orders to bring the King to the army's camp by force, if necessary, as was proposed by the more radical faction. Ultimately, he decided against it.

Outcome of the war

Many historians of Poland believed that Polish surrender was not a good move. It was a miscalculation from the military as well as political point of view. They had adequate military strength that could have helped them in defending the Vistula river line and exhausting the attacking forces of Russia. From the political perspective too, if Poland had continued to fight then, the dividing powers would have eventually relented, due to the financial cost of the prolonged war. The King was in for a disappointment as he had opted for the ceasefire wanting to find a more diplomatic solution, but with appointment of fresh deputies or by bribing the existing ones the Russians helped in establishing a new parliamentary session called the Grodno Sejm. Thus, the actions of the King became the cause of the second partition of Poland. This occurrence condensed population of Poland to only one-third of what it was prior to the First Partition. The remnant state was controlled by Russian troops and its freedom was intensely reduced.

This aftermath was a surprise for several members of the Targowica Confederates as their aim was to merely reinstate the status quo antebellum and had hoped that overthrowing the 3rd May Constitution would help in achieving the same. The final attempt to reinstate the restructured Commonwealth, happened through the Koœciuszko Uprising in 1794. The uprising was a failure and became the cause of the Third Partition in 1795. This was the final blow, after which, the Commonwealth of Polish-Lithuania ceased to exist.

Check Your Progress

4. What is the name given the Polish–Russian War of 1792, in Polish history?
5. What is the contribution of Józef Poniatowski and Tadeusz Koœciuszko in the Polish–Russian War?
6. What was the biggest success of the Polish forces during the Polish–Russian War?

10.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

NOTES

1. The three partitions of Poland were carried out in 1772, 1793, and 1795 respectively.
2. Poland was divided for the third time as a response to the Polish Koœciuszko Uprising that had taken place in 1794.
3. Frederick II of Prussia wanted to avoid war between Austria and Russia as he did not want an extension of the Russo-Turkish War.
4. The Polish–Russian War of 1792, is also called War in Defence of the Constitution, in Polish history.
5. Józef Poniatowski and Tadeusz Koœciuszko were the two Polish commanders, under whose leadership, the polish forces managed to hold front in the southern part of Ukraine during the Polish–Russian War.
6. The biggest success of the Polish forces during the Polish–Russian War, was their victory over the Russian establishments during the Battle of Zieleñce on 18 June.

10.5 SUMMARY

- Partitions of Poland was carried out in 1772, 1793, and 1795 by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
- After twenty years of the first partition in 1772, the Russian and Prussian troops arrived at the Commonwealth once again, resulting in Poland being divided for the second time on January 23, 1793.
- On October 24, 1795, Poland was divided for the third time due to the Polish Koœciuszko Uprising that had taken place in 1794.
- The Polish–Russian War of 1792, happened during the reign of Catherine the Great and the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth and Targowica Confederation consisting of the nobles of the Commonwealth, who were not in favour of the Constitution constituted in May 1791.
- The Polish–Russian war happened in two parts, one in the northern part of Lithuania and another in the southern part of Ukraine. The Polish forces were no match to the gloriously large Russian army in both the parts, however due to the capable leadership, they managed to hold front in the south.
- The struggle lasted for three lengthy months, during which, many battles were fought but none of the parties could be declared victorious.

- The Polish King, Stanis³aw August Poniatowski, asked for a diplomatic resolution so that the war could end.
- The Polish King demanded a truce with the Russians and united with the pro-Russian noble section, as commanded by the Russian Empire.

10.6 KEY WORDS

- **Manifesto:** It is a public declaration of policy and aims.
- **The Confederation of Bar:** It is an association of Polish nobles formed at the fortress of Bar in Podolia in 1768 to defend the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth against the Russians as well as against the Polish King Stanis³aw II Augustus with Polish reformers, who were attempting to limit the power of the Commonwealth's wealthy magnates
- **Targowica Confederation:** Established by Polish and Lithuanian magnates on 27 April 1792, in Saint Petersburg, the confederation opposed the Constitution of 3 May 1791, especially the part limiting the privileges of the nobility.
- **Sejm:** It refers to the lower house of the Polish parliament.
- **Antebellum:** It means before the war.

10.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What events led to the first partition of Poland?
2. How did Poland manage to hold the Southern front in Ukraine during the Polish-Russian War?
3. How were the territories divided after the three partitions of Poland?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Describe the events during the Polish-Russian War at the northern part of Lithuania.
2. Discuss the second and third partition of Poland in detail.

10.8 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.)*. London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

NOTES

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

BLOCK - IV
STATUS OF PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA IN THE PERIOD OF FRENCH REVOLUTION

NOTES

UNIT 11 ABSOLUTISM OF LOUIS XIV

Structure

11.0 Introduction
11.1 Objectives
11.2 Domestic and Foreign Policies of Louis XIV
11.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
11.4 Summary
11.5 Key Words
11.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
11.7 Further Readings

11.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the Polish-Russia war. In this unit, the discussion will turn towards the reign of the French monarch Louis XIV.

Louis XIV, also known as Louis the Great, was the French monarch from 1643 until his death in 1715. His reign of 72 years is the longest reign of any monarch in European history. Louis XIV was a strong believer in the divine rights of kings, and continued his predecessor's policy of centralization and absolutism by suppressing the power of the feudal lords and clamping down on rebellions. His system of absolute control of the French Monarchy continued to be in place long after his death, only to be destroyed during the French revolution. On the foreign policy front, Louis XIV was a cunning ruler who used war as an instrument of foreign policy to expand French influence.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss the absolutism of Louis XIV's reign
- Describe the foreign policy of Louis XIV

11.2 DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN POLICIES OF LOUIS XIV

NOTES

Louis XIV as a modern ruler understood the importance of theatre as a means of establishing his authority. Well into the 18th century, superstitious commoner continued to believe in the power of the king's magic 'touch' to cure disease. Louis and his successors used this belief to enhance their position as divine-right rulers endowed with God-like powers and far removed from common humanity. The advantages of strategic theatre were expressed most clearly in Louis's palace at Versailles, the town outside of Paris to which he moved his court. The building itself was a stage, upon which Louis mesmerized the aristocracy into obedience by his performance of the Versailles daily rituals of absolutism. The main facade of the palace was a third of a mile in length. Inside, tapestries and paintings celebrated French military victories and royal triumphs. Outside, in gardens containing 1400 fountains, statues of Apollo, god of the sun, recalled Louis's claim to be the 'Sun King' of the French. Noblemen vied to attend him when he arose from bed, ate his meals (usually stone-cold, having travelled the distance of several city blocks from royal kitchen to royal table), strolled in his gardens, or rode to the hunt. As Louis called himself the Sun King, so his court was the epicentre of his royal effulgence- Its glitter, in which France's leading aristocrats were required by their monarch to share, was deliberately manufactured so as to blind them to the possibility of disobedience to the royal will. Instead of plotting some sort of minor treason on his estate, a marquis enjoyed the pleasure of knowing that on the morrow he was to be privileged to engage the king in two or three minutes of vapid conversation as the royal party made its stately progress through the vast palace halls (whose smells were evidence of the absence of sanitation facilities and of the seamy side of absolutist grandeur).

Louis understood this theatre as part of his duty as sovereign, a duty which he took with utmost seriousness. Though far from brilliant, he, Louis XIV, on his duties was hard working and conscientious. Whether or not he actually remarked *'L'etat, c'estrnoi'* ('I am the state'), he believed himself personally responsible for the well-being of his subjects. 'The deference and the respect that we receive from our subjects,' he wrote in a memoir he prepared for his son on the art of ruling, 'are not a free gift from them but payment for the justice and the protection that they expect from us. Just as they must honour us, we must protect and defend them.' Louis defined this responsibility in absolutist terms; as a need to concentrate royal power so as to produce general domestic tranquillity. While taming the aristocracy, he conciliated the upper bourgeoisie by enlisting its members to assist him in the task of administration. He appointed them as intendants, responsible for the administration and French absolutism: taxation of the thirty-six generalites into which France was divided. Intendants and revenue Intendants never served in the regions where they were born, and were thus unconnected with the local elites

over which they exercised authority. They held office at the king's pleasure, and were clearly 'his' men. Other administrators, often from families newly ennobled as a result of administrative service, assisted in directing affairs of state from Versailles. These men were not actors in the theatre of Louis the Sun King; they were the hard-working assistants of Louis the royal custodian of his country's welfare. Much of the time and energy of Louis's bureaucrats was expended on the collection of taxes, necessary above all in order to finance the large standing army on which France's ambitious foreign policy depended. In addition to the faille, or land tax, which increased throughout the seventeenth century and upon which a surtax was levied as well, the government introduced a capitation tax, payable by all, and pressed hard for the collection of indirect taxes such as that on salt (the gabelle) and on wine and tobacco. Since the nobility was exempt from the faille, its burden fell most heavily on the peasantry, whose periodic local revolts Louis easily crushed.

NOTES

During Louis XIV' reign, France was the leading European power. Warfare defined Louis XIV's foreign policy, and his personality shaped his approach. Impelled 'by a mix of commerce, revenge, and pique', the French monarch sensed that warfare was the best way to enhance his glory. In peacetime he concentrated on preparing for the next war. He taught his diplomats that their job was to create tactical and strategic advantages for the French military. Under his reign, France was involved in three major wars, that is, the Franco-Dutch War, the War of the League of Augsburg, and the War of the Spanish Succession. Along with this, there were also two lesser conflicts: the War of Devolution and the War of the Reunions.

Domestically, regional opposition—and indeed regionalism generally—was curtailed during Louis's reign. Although intendants and lesser administrators came from afar, did not speak the local dialect, ignored local Curbing regional custom, and were therefore despised, they were generally obeyed. The opposition semi-autonomous outer provinces of Brittany, Languedoc, and Franche Comte (a part of that territory known collectively as the pays d'etat) came to heel as central administration crippled their provincial Estates. To put an end to the power of regional parlements (the courts responsible for registering laws), Louis decreed that members of those bodies which vetoed legislation would be summarily exiled. The Estates-General, the national French representative assembly last summoned in 1614 during the troubled regency following the death of Henry IV, did not meet again until 1789.

Louis was equally determined, for reasons of state and of personal conscience, to impose religious unity upon the French. That task proved to be difficult and time-consuming. The Huguenots were the only source of theological heterodoxy. Jesuits, Quietists, and Jan-policies senists—all three claiming to represent the 'true' Roman faith—battled among themselves for adherents to their particular brand of Catholicism. Jesuits served Louis's interests best, since they

NOTES

advocated obedience to the secular power of the French state, Quietists preached was a French version of Calvinism which stressed the doctrine of original sin and rejected the belief in free will that was central to Jesuit teaching. Louis, adhering to the absolutist doctrine of UN *roi, une hi, unefoi* (one king, one law, one faith) which had served as a rallying cry for both Catholics and Protestants in France during the preceding century, took drastic steps to achieve religious conformity as part of his program of national unification. He persecuted Quietists and Jansenists, offering them the choice of recanting or of prison and exile. Against the Huguenots he waged an even sterner war. Protestant churches and schools were destroyed; Protestant families were forced to convert. In 1685, Louis revoked the Edict of Nantes, the legal foundation of the toleration Huguenots had enjoyed since 1598. French Protestants were, thereafter, denied civil rights, and their clergy was exiled. Thousands of religious refugees fled France for England, Holland, the Protestant states of Germany, and America, where their particular professional and artisanal skills made a significant contribution to economic prosperity. (The silk industry of Berlin and of Spital-fields, an urban quarter of London, was established by Huguenots.)

Louis's drive for unification and centralization was assisted by his ability to rely upon increased revenues to fuel the domestic and military machinery of his absolutist monarchy. Those revenues were largely the result of policies and programs initiated by Jean Baptiste Colbert (1619-1683), the country's finance minister from 1664 until his death. Colbert was an energetic and committed mercantilist who believed that until France could put its fiscal house in order it could not achieve economic greatness. Colbert assumed office at a time when France, because of costly wars, was deeply in debt. Although he could not rid the country of that burden, he did for a time establish an interest rate of no higher than 5 per cent, significantly lower than those the government had been accustomed to paying, and began negotiating directly with major creditors, rather than relying, as in the past, on fee-charging middlemen. Meanwhile, he tightened the process of tax collection, hounding corrupt officials who skimmed off a share of the taxes for themselves. He eliminated, wherever possible, the practice of tax farming, the system whereby collection agents were permitted to withhold a certain percentage of what they gathered for themselves. When Colbert assumed office, only about 25 per cent of the taxes collected throughout the kingdom were reaching the treasury. By the time he died, that figure had risen to 80 per cent. As a mercantilist, Colbert did all he could to increase the nation's income by means of protection and regimentation.

Tariffs imposed by Colbert as mercantilist in 1668 were designed to discourage the importation of foreign goods into France. He invested in the improvement of France's roads and waterways. And he used state money to promote the growth of national industry, and in particular the manufacture of goods such as silk, lace, tapestries, and glass, which had long been imported. Yet Colbert's efforts to achieve national economic stability and self- sufficiency could not withstand

the insatiable demands of Louis XIV's increasingly expensive wars. Nor did his overseas trading companies ever achieve the stature of those of England and Holland. Unquestionably, however, France's economy was generally healthier as a result of his policies. Also, his championing of industrial enterprise did much to enhance the image of businessmen and entrepreneurs in the eyes of a nation which in the past had tended to disdain commerce and manufacturing.

Turkey

A notable aspect of Louis XIV's reign was the revival of his alliance with the Ottoman Empire. The alliance had been established in 1536 between the king of France Francis I and the Turkish sultan of the Ottoman Empire Suleiman the Magnificent. It was the first ever alliance between a Christian and a Muslim Kingdom and thus had become the subject of scandal. It eventually became one of the most important alliances for France.

When Louis XIV began his reign, his opinion on the Ottomans was quite negative. He even allowed the French military to assist the Austrians against their conflict with the Turks. However, he soon realized that the alliance with the Ottomans would help fuel his expansionist policies. The French monarch communicated to the Turks that he would never fight on the side of the Austrian Emperor Leopold I. From 1683 and for a period of sixteen years, the Holy Roman Empire would be occupied in fighting the Ottoman Empire in the Great Turkish War. Louis XIV refused to be part of the alliance of Christian powers against the Turks, officially adopting a policy of neutrality, but secretly encouraging the Turks to persevere against the Habsburgs.

Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe, 1660-1720

The degree of success enjoyed by Louis XIV as an absolutist monarch was in part the result of his own abilities, and of those of his advisors. Yet it was also due to the fact that he could claim to stand as supreme Absolutism and national embodiment of the will of all his people. Despite its internal division into territories and orders that continued to claim some right to independence, France was already unified before the accession of Louis XIV, possessed of a sense of itself as a nation. In this, it differed from the empires, kingdoms, and principalities to the east, where rulers faced an even more formidable task than did Louis as they attempted to weld their disparately constructed monarchies into a united, centralized whole. The Thirty Years' War had delivered a final blow to the pretensions of the Holy Roman Empire, which the French philosopher Voltaire dubbed as neither holy, Roman, nor an empire. Power, in varying degrees, passed to the over three hundred princes, bishops, and magistrates who governed the assorted states of Germany throughout the remainder of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Despite the minute size of their domains, many of these petty monarchs attempted to establish themselves as absolutists in miniature, building lesser versions of Louis XIV's Versailles, maintaining similar standards. Although these rulers often

NOTES

prided themselves on their independence from imperial control, in many instances, they were client states of France. A sizable portion of the money Louis devoted to the conduct of foreign affairs went to these German princelings. States like Saxony, Brandenburg-Prussia, and Bavaria, which were of a size, to establish themselves as truly independent, were not averse to forming alliances against their own emperor. Most notable among these middle-sized German states was Brandenburg-Prussia, whose emergence as a power of consequence during this period was the result of the single-minded determination of its rulers, principally Frederick William, elector of Brandenburg from Brandenburg-Prussia from initial insignificance, poverty, and devastation in the wake of the Thirty Years' War resulted from three basic achievements that can be credited to the Great Elector.

First, he pursued an adroit foreign policy which enabled him to establish effective sovereignty over the widely dispersed territories under his rule: Brandenburg, a large but not particularly productive territory in north-central Germany; Prussia, a duchy to the east that was dangerously exposed on three sides to Poland; and a sprinkling of tiny states—Cleves, Mark, and Ravensberg—to the west. By siding with Poland in a war against Sweden, in the late 1650s, the Great Elector obtained the Polish king's surrender of nominal overlordship in East Prussia. Then, by some crafty diplomatic shuffling in the 1670s, he secured his western provinces from French interference by returning Pomerania, captured in a recent war, to France's Swedish allies.

Frederick William's second achievement was the establishment of a large standing army, the primary instrument of his diplomatic success. By 1688, Brandenburg-Prussia had 30,000 troops permanently large standing army under arms. That he was able to sustain an army of this size in a state with comparatively limited resources, was a measure of the degree to which the army more than repaid its costs. It ensured the elector and Prussians swearing allegiance to the Great Elector at Konigsberg, 1663. The occasion upon which the Prussian estates first acknowledged the over lordship of their ruler, this ceremony marked the beginning of the centralization of the Prussian state. His successors absolute political control by fostering obedience among the populace, an obedience they were prepared to observe if their lands might be spared the devastation of another Thirty Years' War.

The third factor contributing to the emergence of the Great Elector's state as an international power was his imposition of an effective system of taxation and his creation of a government bureaucracy to administer it. Here, he struck an important bargain with the powerful bureaucracy: bargaining with privileged landlords (junkers) without whose cooperation they would have had no chance of success. In return for an agreement which allowed them to reduce their peasant underlings to the status of serfs, the junkers gave away their right to oppose a permanent tax system, provided, of course, that they were made immune from the payment of taxes themselves. (As in other European countries, taxes in Prussia fell most heavily on the peasantry.)

NOTES

Henceforth, the political privileges of the landlord class diminished; secure in their right to manage their own estates as they wished, the junkers were content to surrender management of the Hohenzollern the junkers and the army possessions into the hands of a centralized bureaucracy. The most important department was a military commissariat, whose functions included not only the dispensing of army pay and materiel, but the development of industries to manufacture military equipment. Frederick William's success was due primarily to his ability to gain the active cooperation of the Junker class, something he needed even more than Louis XIV needed the support of the French nobility. Without it, Frederick William could never have hammered together his absolutist state from the disparate territorial pieces that were his political raw material. To obtain it, he used the army not only to maintain order, but as a way of co-opting Junker participation. The highest honour that could befall a Brandenburg squire was commission and promotion as a military servant of the state.

Like Brandenburg-Prussia, the Habsburg monarch was confronted with the task of transforming three different regions into a cohesive state. In the case of Austria, this effort was complicated by the fact absolutism in the that these areas were ethnically and linguistically diverse: the south Habsburg Empire of Germanic lands that roughly comprised the present-day state of Austria; the northern Czech (Slavic) speaking provinces of Bohernia and Moravia; the German-speaking Silesia, inherited in 1527; and Hungary, where the Magyar population spoke a non-Slavic, Finno-Ugric language, also acquired in 1527 but largely lost to Turkish invasion just a few years afterward. For the next 150 years the Habsburgs and the Turks vied for control of Hungary. Until 1683, Turkish pashas ruled three-fourths of the Magyar kingdom, extending to within eighty miles of the Habsburg capital of Vienna. In 1683, the Turks besieged Vienna itself, but were repulsed by the Austrians, assisted by a mixed German and Polish army under the command of King John Sobieski of Poland. This victory was a prelude to the Habsburg reconquest of virtually all of Hungary by the end of the century. The task of constructing an absolutist state from these extraordinarily varied territories was tackled with limited success by the 17th century Habsburg emperors Ferdinand 111 (1637-1657) and Leopold I (1658-1705). Most of their efforts were devoted to the establishment of productive agricultural estates in Bohemia and Moravia, and to taming the independent nobility there and in Hun and Moravia Landlords were encouraged to farm for export, and were supported in this effort by a government decree which compelled peasants to provide three days of unpaid robot service per week to their masters. For this support, Bohemian and Moravian landed elites exchanged the political independence that had in the past expressed itself in the activities of their territorial legislative estates.

Habsburg rulers tried to effect this same sort of bargain in Hungary as well. But there the tradition of independence was stronger here. Hungarian (or Magyar) nobles in the west claimed the right Hungarian nobility to elect their king, a right they eventually surrendered to Leopold in 1687. But the central government's

NOTES

attempts to further reduce the country by administering it through the army, by granting large tracts of land to German aristocrats and settlers, and by persecuting non-Catholics were an almost total failure. The result was a powerful nobility which, while it insisted upon its right to exploit its serfs as it saw fit, nevertheless remained fiercely determined to retain its traditional constitutional and religious 'liberties.' The Habsburg emperors could boast that they too, like absolutists elsewhere, possessed a large standing army and an educated (in this case German-speaking) bureaucracy. But the exigencies imposed by geography and ethnicity kept them at some distance from the absolutist goal of a unified, centrally controlled and administered state.

Undoubtedly the most dramatic episode in the history of early-modern absolutist rule was the dynamic reign of Tsar Peter I of Russia (1682-1725). Peter's accomplishments alone would clearly have earned him his history-book title, Peter the Great. But his gigantic height—he was nearly seven feet tall—as well as his mercurial persona - Peter the Great. Previously the country's rulers had set their faces firmly against the West, disdaining a civilization at odds with the Eastern Orthodox, semi-Oriental culture that was their heritage, while labouring to keep the various ethnic groups—Russians, Ukrainians, and a wide variety of nomadic tribes—within their ever-growing empire from destroying not only each other but the tsarist state itself. Since 1613 Russia had been ruled by members of the Romanov dynasty, who had attempted with some success to restore political stability following the chaotic 'time of troubles' that had occurred after the death of the bloodthirsty, half-mad Tsar Ivan the Terrible in 1584. The early Romanovs' severest test had come between 1667 and 1671, when the English usage of the term robot was derived from the Czech designation of a serf.

Check Your Progress

1. What word best describes Louis XIV's foreign policy?
2. When was the alliance between the French and the Turks first established?
3. What factor helped Louis XIV's drive for unification and centralization?

11.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Warfare defined Louis XIV's foreign policy, and his personality shaped his approach.
2. The alliance between the French and the Turks had been established in 1536 between the king of France Francis I and the Turkish sultan of the Ottoman Empire Suleiman the Magnificent.

3. Louis's XIV's drive for unification and centralization was assisted by his ability to rely upon increased revenues to fuel the domestic and military machinery of his absolutist monarchy.

NOTES

11.4 SUMMARY

- Louis XIV as a modern ruler understood the importance of theatre as a means of establishing his authority.
- The advantages of strategic theatre were expressed most clearly in Louis's palace at Versailles, the town outside of Paris to which he moved his court.
- The building itself was a stage, upon which Louis mesmerized the aristocracy into obedience by his performance of the Versailles daily rituals of absolutism.
- While taming the aristocracy, he conciliated the upper bourgeoisie by enlisting its members to assist him in the task of administration.
- In addition to the faille, or land tax, which increased throughout the seventeenth century and upon which a surtax was levied as well, the government introduced a capitation tax, payable by all, and pressed hard for the collection of indirect taxes such as that on salt (the gabelle) and on wine and tobacco.
- The French monarch sensed that warfare was the best way to enhance his glory. In peacetime he concentrated on preparing for the next war.
- A notable aspect of Louis XIV's reign was the revival of his alliance with the Ottoman Empire.
- The degree of success enjoyed by Louis XIV as an absolutist monarch was in part the result of his own abilities, and of those of his advisors.
- Despite the minute size of their domains, many petty monarchs attempted to establish themselves as absolutists in miniature, building lesser versions of Louis XIV's Versailles, maintaining similar standards.

11.5 KEY TERMS

- **Absolutism:** It is a political system in which a single ruler, group, or political party has complete power over a country.
- **Aristocracy:** It refers to the highest class in certain societies, typically comprising people of noble birth holding hereditary titles and offices.
- **Quietists:** It refers to the followers of a set of Christian beliefs that rose in popularity in France, Italy, and Spain during the late 1670s and 1680s, particularly associated with the writings of Miguel de Molinos, and which were condemned as heresy by Pope Innocent XI in the papal bull Coelestis Pastor of 1687.

- **Jansenists:** It refers to a theological movement, primarily in France, that emphasized original sin, human depravity, the necessity of divine grace and predestination.

NOTES

11.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the foreign policy of Louis XIV.
2. Write a short-note on France's relations with the Turks during Louis XIV's reign.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Describe the absolutism of the French monarch Louis XIV.
2. Explain how monarchs in eastern and central Europe attempted to copy Louis XIV's absolutism.

11.7 FURTHER READINGS

Elton, G.R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559,* 2nd (ed.). London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V.G. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D.H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century*, 2nd (ed.). London: Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. New Delhi: Macmillan Publishers India Limited, India.

UNIT 12 RISE OF PRUSSIA: AN OVERVIEW

NOTES

Structure

12.0 Introduction
12.1 Objectives
12.2 Rise of Prussia
12.3 Frederick the Great and His Wars
12.4 Maria Theresa
12.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
12.6 Summary
12.7 Key Words
12.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
12.9 Further Readings

12.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the policies of French monarch Louis XIV. In this unit, the discussion will turn towards Prussia.

Prussia was a German state ruled by the House of Hohenzollern. With its capital in Königsberg and from 1701 in Berlin, the state shaped the history of Germany well into the twentieth century. In fact, the unification of German states that took place in the 19th Century was under Prussian leadership. The Kingdom of Prussia originated from the Teutonic Knights of the middle ages. In the 18th Century, it became extremely powerful under the leadership of Frederick the Great. We will discuss Prussia's rise under Frederick the Great in this unit.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss the rise of Prussia under Frederick the Great
- Examine the reforms undertaken by the Austrian Queen Maria Theresa

12.2 RISE OF PRUSSIA

Brandenburg and Prussia remained two insignificant German lands even by the end of sixteenth century; however, the ruler of Brandenburg, John Sigismund was shrewd and visionary. He was the head of the Hohenzollern family. In 1594, John Sigismund got married to the daughter of the Duke of Prussia who was known for

NOTES

his foolishness. In 1618, after the death of the Duke, John Sigismund took over the reins of Prussia while still being the ruler of Brandenburg.

Brandenburg on its own had nothing worthwhile and when Sigismund acquired Prussia that was even lesser in value. As a result, people considered him to be a fool bigger than his brother-in law. In both the regions power was in the hands of the nobles and they were even more powerful than the king. They were corrupt and mostly refused to pay taxes. The state of the peasants was deplorable as they were treated as slaves by the nobles. The people of Brandenburg were uneducated and poor. The land was infertile as the soil was sandy. The country lacked ports and big ships, it had very few industries, therefore trade was marginal. Its capital Berlin was also a small insignificant town. Prussia was in an even more deplorable condition. The country was situated in the wet lands towards northern Warsaw and remained in a frozen state. The distance between Prussia and Brandenburg was about 200 miles. The area was constantly fought over by the Swedes and Poles, making it very hostile territory. The Poles considered John Sigismund as their subordinate.

The Thirty Years War started in 1618; the war left Sigismund's weak territory with no protection. John Sigismund died in 1620, and was succeeded by another weak duke, George William. The war continued and a helpless and weak William was not able to make safe the territories of Brandenburg and Prussia. In the twenty years of his rule the territories continued to be torn by war, religious conflicts and atrocities of the nobles, they never made the effort to protect their country. However, the son of George William was no weakling, Frederick William had amazing ability and a resilient will. In German history, he is called the Great Elector because of his military and political achievements.

Prussia under Frederick William

In 1640, at the age of twenty, Frederick William took over the reign from his father. He was dynamic and enjoyed riding, shooting and fencing. He was well cultured; he was able to speak many languages such as Latin, Dutch, French and Polish. At fourteen, the prince had been sent to the University of Leyden in Holland at the age of fourteen in order to gain his college education. There he was exposed to wealth of art and culture that he had never imagined were possible in the backward world he was from. He saw glorious paintings of Rembrandt and Hals, the great ships and canals, the well-cultivated plantations, the lavish households of the Dutch traders.

After his father's death, he returned and he was able to compare the miserable state of Brandenburg with the glory he had witnessed in the Dutch land. His territory was in a state of complete ruin due to the war, his people were homeless; Frederick realised that he would be able to save his people only when the war ended. He began to first end the internal hostility between the common people and the nobles. He himself became friends with the nobles and on their demand dissolved the war

council active during his father's rule, he even prevented the Jews from residing in Brandenburg.

Building the Army

NOTES

Soon after getting things in order internally, a peace treaty was signed with Sweden. Within a few years of his coming to power, the long Thirty Years War concluded and in 1648, Frederick William got the control over Eastern Pomerania; this brought his far away territories closer. He wanted to safeguard his land from future wars thus he appealed to the nobles to agree on keeping a small army, the nobles did not agree because of their personal insecurities about losing their powers and Frederick becoming more powerful than them.

Frederick got the chance to establish his army when the Swedish King Charles X attacked Poland. Even after raising his army Frederick continued to be neutral as he was well aware about the horrors of a war and did not want to expose Prussia to another war. Poland was completely ravaged by the Swedish ruler and he began to threaten Frederick that unless he forms an alliance with him Sweden would attack Prussia as well. Frederick had no choice but to comply with his demands.

Austria came to help Poland and war became intense. The intensity of the war began to worry Charles and in order to get full support from Frederick he promised to hand over all his previous possessions in Sweden to Prussia. At that point the Danes also began to fight from the Polish side, this increased their strength further. Poland also agreed to let go their assertions to Prussia in case Frederick agreed to fight from their camp. Frederick agreed to change sides thus making him the definite ruler of Prussia.

The war compelled Frederick to raise the taxes, the nobles were angry as he did not consult them, but he managed to convince them that dire situations like war made it unavoidable. He only taxed the common people and excluded the nobles in order to pacify them. Frederick established a stable war council and allotted them the authority to increase the taxes. This time he ignored the displeasure of the nobles and his subjects who were also complaining over the burden of taxes. After establishing his army and becoming the definite ruler of Prussia, he was in a way free from the pressure of the nobles.

Building a Strong Prussia

Frederick did not dissatisfy the nobles completely as he wanted to continue having their support in order to further strengthen his position; he allowed them to retain most of their existing privileges. Having quietened the nobles, Frederick concentrated fully towards building Prussia. He allowed the mistreated Huguenots of France to live in Prussia and they helped in improving the agriculture and trade of the country as they were highly skilled. He even permitted Catholics to settle down in Prussia and Jews were allowed in Berlin. His tolerance was unique for

NOTES

that time but even as a devoted Protestant, he held that all individuals should have the freedom to worship God as they wished. He believed that diversity is a way towards prosperity. At the time of his death, Prussia was still weak and poor but he had already laid the foundation of a strong nation.

In 1688, the Great Elector was succeeded by weak and frail Frederick I. He was only interested in a lavish lifestyle. He was not strong physically or mentally to continue the path started by Frederick for strengthening Prussia. However, during his reign cultural prosperity was attained. He traded in exclusive paintings, fine china and embroideries and liked to spend his time in the company of musicians and artistes. He established the University of Halle and collaborated with German philosopher Leibniz in formation of the Berlin Academy of Science.

12.3 FREDERICK THE GREAT AND HIS WARS

In 1712, Frederick William I of Prussia, the grandson of the Great Elector, was blessed with son and he decided to call him Frederick as he wanted his son to be like him. Experienced soldiers of the Prussian army were selected in order to educate the young prince. He was made to do all activities like riding, hunting and participate in the military drills at a tender age of five years. As a child he showed no signs of becoming 'Frederick the Great' as he was completely different from his father and did not enjoy any of the strengthening activities forced on him by his father, in fact, he was found of light French novels, paintings and enjoyed playing the flute more than riding a horse. He was attracted towards philosophy of Voltaire and wrote several letters of appreciation to the French thinker. He began to hate the life his father forced him to lead and often became the target of his father's mockery and whip.

Frederick wished to marry an English princess and live in England; however, his father would not allow him to do so. Due to his father's refusal, he decided to escape with his friends, Lieutenant von Katte and Lieutenant von Keith. They managed to reach as far as the village border when they were arrested by the spies of the king. They all were sent to the fortress of Küstrin.

On his father's instruction one morning he was informed by the jailor that his friend Katte would be beheaded, this made Frederick feel responsible for getting him into this mess and he begged for forgiveness and he was released from the prison and had no choice but to comply with his father's wishes. On May 31, 1740, his father died and he became the King of Prussia.

Even at such a young age Frederick obtained the title of Frederick the Great. Frederick the Great was a follower of enlightened absolutism. He eliminated torture, unlocked state granaries to the poor and reduced sentences for several crimes. Most people thought that he would not fight wars and rule peacefully but he soon began to recruit more soldiers into the army and more than ten thousand

men were added to the existing force. Frederick was not cautious like his father; he loved adventure and thus involved himself in several reckless activities.

Once Frederick began to think about enhancing the glory and wealth of Prussia, he began to focus on the wealthy Austrian province of Silesia. The Austrian capital, Vienna had a new Hapsburg queen trying to assert her effectiveness. The Queen was Maria Theresa, an attractive, affectionate and righteous woman who proclaimed to have a king's heart. According to the ancient law of Austria, a woman could not rule the country, however, before her father died he had demanded that kings of Europe, along with Frederick William make a promise that will allow his daughter to be the Queen. Frederick did not feel compelled to keep his father's promise to the King and after informing his ministers, he landed his troops in Silesia.

NOTES

The two forces came face to face near the village of Mollowitz, the land was enveloped in two feet deep snow in the month of April. The Austrians charged and made the Prussian army fall; this led to a stampede and in panic forces began to fire blindly and the situation became uncontrollable. Frederick was persuaded by his generals to leave the battle field. The Austrian were also exhausted and fled, the Prussian managed to project themselves as victorious.

Another loss for Austria

The Queen in Vienna encouraged the army and their efforts. She appealed to them to safeguard the honour of Austria. She also made speeches for the pride of the nobles in Hungary. Austrians and Hungarians united and the following spring an attempt was made by the army to get back Silesia. The Austrian army made a furious attack close to the village of Chotusitz, breaking the Prussian line they landed into the camp of the enemy and started to crush it. Frederick very cleverly sent his reserved cavalry to battle to tire soldiers of the Austrian army. The exhaustion left them powerless and they ran from the field. The queen sued for peace as a result.

Return of Austrian Army

The Austrian army returned after two years, during this time they had strengthened their forces and already fended off attacks from France, Spain and few other countries and had also taken control of Bavaria. Moreover, after two defeats from Frederick the Austrians were fully aware of his military strength and tactics. At the Battle of Hohenfriedberg, Frederick displayed both once again. Under his brilliant planning, his military faked setting up a camp to trap the enemy to a mountain gorge. The crushed Austrians once again sued for peace. Frederick was able to win Silesia and strengthened the power of Prussia.

Break from Wars

After his win in Austria, Frederick wanted to send time to enjoy his kingdom and his gloriously built palace of Sans Souci. It consisted of a Chinese pavilion, a

NOTES

Greek temple, orange plantations, cherry orchards and an enormous library. He called the philosopher Voltaire whom he had admired during his young days, though his stay in his palace was not as enjoyable as expected and soon they both had had enough of each other and Voltaire was relieved to leave.

To supplement their nation's glory, the Prussians began to build Silesia. Professionals were invited to begin industries, construct factories, excavation of mines and setting up of banks. Silesia generated coal, iron and textiles. Frederick enhanced the quality of life of his people; he improved the state of peasants in his homeland though continued with the practice of serfdom. The experts felt that the forced labour of the serfs could be used for construction of the nation. These were experts who themselves owned several serfs.

Prussia was now powerful and glorious; the other European rulers were envious and suspicious of Frederick and his intentions. In Vienna, Maria Theresa was restless and had taken the loss of Silesia as a personal loss of honour. With the help of her shrewd minister, Kaunitz, the Queen started to knit an enormous alliance against her enemy.

Attack on Prussia

Kaunitz engaged in treaties with Sweden, Russia and France. The plan was to attack Prussia, end its military power and partition its territory. This plan was discovered by the spies of Prussia. In 1756, he attacked Saxony and destroyed their army at Lobosotz, then took control of Prague. The scheming Marshal Daun, commander of the Austrian army attacked Frederick by using his own war. This trend began a troublesome time for Frederick.

The eastern parts of Prussia were attacked by the Russians, Pomerania was attacked by Swedes, and the French took hold of Friesland. Frederick felt that he was being attacked from all sides, however he continued to be strong and courageous. Frederick was able to intelligently manoeuvre his forces and deal with these attacks individually and managed to win few of the battles. In 1759, at Kunnersdorf, the forces of Prussia were severely beaten by the Russians and Austrians. Two of his horses had been shot at and Frederick expected that soon he would be the target of the bullet. However, Frederick did not lose his spirit and continued to fight his enemies, by now he has the support of his entire population, including the nobles and peasants. They all had begun to join the army in all the territories.

Frederick relentlessly fought stressful wars and even during the strained environment he found time to pursue his passion for poetry and music. Many of his advisors counselled him to surrender but he denied and refused to bow down to disgraceful peace.

NOTES

His determination paid off and even his conquerors began to get tired. The French army was constantly losing at the hands English, an ally of Frederick. Funds of all the nations were straining under the burden of the expensive war.

In January 1762, the Russian Empress died. The new Russian ruler was still very young; he had German blood and was fond of Prussia. Russian no longer wanted to fight and decided to withdraw from the war and Sweden was soon to follow. Prussia no longer needed to fight a war and in 1763 a peace treaty was signed between Austria and Prussia, Frederick continued to keep all Prussian territories as per the terms of the treaty.

Conflict with Hapsburgs-Seven Years' War

Frederick had lost many of his old friends from Berlin; even most of his able generals were dead after the wars. The seven year war had completely wrecked his country. Frederick swore 'never to enjoy happiness while everybody suffers,' and he began to channelize all his efforts towards rebuilding Prussia. He focussed individually on every single governmental department. Peasants were given handsome amounts in order to rebuild their farm lands; the nobles were also given cattle, horses, seeds and timber to reconstruct ruined properties. Labourers searched rivers, cleaned forests and drained swamps. For the first time, potatoes and turnips farming was done on an extensive scale. Government experts were trained the western methods of systematic farming. The State began to encourage all types of industries, warehouses were built and raw material was supplied to the manufacturers on reasonable prices.

Prussian territories continued to expand under Frederick. In 1772, West Prussia was taken back from Poland. During this time, Russia and Austria also took a chunk of Poland. West Prussia became the link and at last Brandenburg and Prussia was linked with each other. Frederick easily supressed meagre attacks from Joseph II, the son of Maria Theresa. Austria continued to make attempts to regain Silesia.

Prussia: Great European Power

By now Prussia had become one of the great European powers. The state authority continued to be paramount and individuals were still did not have complete freedom. Frederick still controlled all the power of decision making. The noble officials did not like their new position of glorified clerks and occasionally tried to incapacitate the plans of their ruler, however, Frederick kept a close eye on them. His astuteness and his kindness towards his subjects made philosophers like Voltaire to pronounce him as a model ruler.

Later in life, Frederick the Great truly began to become like his father and the population became wary of his despotic rule. He died in 1774 at the age of 74.

NOTES

12.4 MARIA THERESA

Maria Theresa was born on 13 May and became the first and last female monarch of the Habsburg territories, in 1740. She was the head of Austria, Hungary, Croatia, Bohemia, Transylvania, Mantua, Milan, Lodomeria and Galicia, the Austrian Netherlands and Parma. By matrimony, she became the Duchess of Lorraine, Grand Duchess of Tuscany and Holy Roman Empress.

Theresa's forty years long reign started after the death of her father, Emperor Charles VI, in October 1740. Charles VI smoothened the path of her succession with the Pragmatic Agreement of 1713 and safeguarded it throughout his life. He spent all his energies and resources in maintaining the agreement and completely ignored the advice of his councillors that building a powerful army and enormous wealth was equally essential and had more weightage in maintaining peace than an agreement. Ultimately, he left a weak and poor state for his daughter. The state was in a bad condition because of the War of the Polish Succession and the Russo-Turkish War (1735–1739). Furthermore, after his demise all the participants of the agreement did not adhere to the terms. Frederick II of Prussia, who remained one of the queen's strongest enemies, wasted no time after the king's death and he attacked the wealthiest province of Habsburg, Silesia during the seven-year conflict also called the War of the Austrian Succession. The queen succeeded in securing the significant alliance of the Hungarians. During the war although Silesia was lost and a few small territories in Italy, Maria Theresa managed to effectively defend her rule over most of the parts of the Habsburg Empire. Maria Theresa tried to regain the control over Silesia a couple of times but failed in all her attempts during the Seven Years' War.

Maria Theresa and her husband, Francis I, Holy Roman Emperor, were blessed with eleven daughters, they came to be the Queen of France, the Queen of Naples and Sicily, the Duchess of Parma, and they also had five sons, two of them were Holy Roman Emperors, Joseph II and Leopold II. Of the total sixteen children, only ten lived up to adulthood. Although it was expected that the Queen would cede power to Francis and Joseph, both were legitimately her co-rulers in Austria and Bohemia, Maria Theresa was a supreme ruler who reigned with the advice of her counsellors.

Maria Theresa disseminated many reforms such as institutional, financial and educational with the support and help of Wenzel Anton of Kaunitz-Rietberg, Count Friedrich Wilhelm von Haugwitz and Gerard van Swieten. She gave an impetus to commerce and agriculture as well; steps were taken to restructure and increase the shattered military forces of Austria. Strengthening the military would help in improving the international position of Austria. But, she loathed the Jews and the Protestants, and there were a few instances when she gave orders for them to be expelled to remote areas of the world. She supported for church of the state church did not permit pluralism of religion. As a result, her rule was patented as bigoted.

Reforms under Maria Theresa

Let us discuss the reforms carried out by Maria Theresa in detail.

(a) Institutional reforms

NOTES

Even though the queen was not liberal in the matters of state and religion, yet a number of reforms were implemented during her time in order to increase the strength and efficiency of Austrian army and the bureaucracy. Count Friedrich Wilhelm von Haugwitz was appointed by the Queen to remodel the empire by building a standing army of 108,000 men, paid with a handsome sum of 14 million gulden taken from every crown-land. The responsibility of the army was given to the central government. There was also a scheme to tax the upper classes. Furthermore, after Haugwitz's appointment as the head of the new central administrative agency styled the Directory (Directorium in publicis et cameralibus) in 1749, he started a thorough centralism of state institutions up till the level of the District Office (Kreisamt). However, other parts of the kingdom like Lombardy, the Austrian Netherlands and Hungary were nearly unaware by these reforms. In Hungary's case, the Queen was conscious of the promise that she would respect the rights of the territory, plus the protection of nobles from taxes.

Due to the failure of the army in reclaiming Silesia in the course of the Seven Years War, the governing system was reformed further so that the state would remain powerful. In 1761, the Directory was altered into the United Austrian and Bohemian Chancellery, this was furnished with an isolated, self-governing judiciary and discrete financial bodies. In 1762, the Hofkamer was reformed as well, this was the financial ministry taking care of all revenues of the monarchy. Besides this, there was the Hofrechenskammer, responsible for taking care of financial accounts. In the meantime, in 1760, the Queen established the Council of State (Staatsrat), consisting of the state chancellor, three participants from the upper-class and three were knights. The council was made up of experienced people as they acted as advisors of the queen. The council of state was not equipped with executive or legislative authority, but still seemed different from the absolute rule of Prussian ruler, Frederick II of Prussia.

During her time the revenue of the state doubled, it was twenty million gulden and in a period of ten years it raised up to forty million gulden. The scheme to tax the upper-class, however, was not completely effective. The financial reforms gave a tremendous boost to the economy. For the first time, in 1775, the Habsburg Monarchy was able to achieve a balanced budget, and by 1780, the Habsburg state revenue escalated up to fifty million gulden.

(b) Reforms in the field of medicine

Maria Theresa hired experts in medicine such as Gerard van Swieten and Anton de Haen, who became the forbearers of the Viennese Medicine School. Maria Theresa put a ban on the making of fresh burial grounds, a permission from the

NOTES

government had to be taken prior to its creation. She put the ban so that wasteful and unhygienic customs of burying the dead could be curtailed. In order to change the mind-set of the physicians in Austria about the ill-effects of inoculation, she decided to inoculate her own children after the 1767 outbreak of smallpox epidemic. In fact she hosted a dinner for the sixty five children who had been inoculated in her palace and thus making the practice official. In 1770, severe laws were put in place in order to restrict the sale of poison. The Queen also made it mandatory for the apothecaries to maintain a record of each and every sale and the amount that had been sold during that purchase. People had to produce at least two witnesses in order to buy poison. In 1773, the Queen banned the usage of lead in utensils which were meant to carry edible substances, tin was to be used instead.

(c) Reforms in the field of law

The Queen was exceedingly ambitious and hoped to develop the House of Austria to be more glorious than ever before for this ambition to be fulfilled a number of reforms in the system were put in place.

The centralism in the Habsburg government demanded that an integrated legal system should be developed. Earlier each region had their individual laws. During the time of the Queen compilation of the laws was done and the *Codex Theresianus* was created, this was a step towards integration. In 1769, *the Constitutio Criminalis Theresiana* was printed, and it carried the codified traditional criminal justice system in practice from the time of Middle Ages. As per this criminal code, torture could be used in case facts have to be established, the code also banned witchcraft and several other such religious misdemeanours. This law, however, was not applicable in Hungary and it prevailed only in Austria and Bohemia.

In 1752, the Queen established a Chastity Commission as she was extremely particular about her population's sexual morality, the commission helped in curbing prostitution, homosexuality, infidelity and also denounced sex between people of varied religions. The commission worked along with the police, and several secret agents were appointed in order to keep an eye on people with a nefarious nature. They had the authority to conduct random checks on banquets, clubs, and private parties and take into custody those not behaving as per the social decorum. People who were found guilty had to face severe penalties including death.

In 1776, Austria banned torture, mainly at the directive of Joseph II. Maria was not in favour of this ban and she was supported by several religious establishments. In 1749, the Queen also established the Supreme Judiciary and this was to be the court of final appeal for all inherited lands.

(d) Reforms in the field of education

Although the Queen could not adjust to the ideas of the Enlightenment because of her upbringing but as observed by the Austrian historian Karl Vocelka, her

educational reforms were surely based on their ideas. Earlier, the prevailing primary schools were managed by different orders of the Catholic Church. As an effect of the reforms, compulsory and secular primary schools were set up. Even though personally she wanted that the schools need to inculcate the Catholic orthodoxy to the students, nonetheless, the curriculum gave focus on teaching the importance of social accountability, self-restraint in society, work ethics and rationality. It was compulsory for children between the ages six to twelve years to attend school irrespective of their gender. The reforms in the field of education were not received well by the peasant class as they wanted the children to help them in fields rather than attend school. Maria Theresa defeated the opposition by ordering that all those against the reforms would be put behind bars. Even with such extreme measures the reforms were not completely successful and the fact that in some parts of Austria people remained uneducated even during the nineteenth century proves it.

Maria Theresa allowed non-Catholics to attend the university and permitted the institution of secular subjects like law, which had an influence on the weakening of theology as the chief foundation of university education. Also, in her time, many institutions were developed to educate and prepare people to function in the bureaucratic system of the state. In 1746, Theresianum was established in Vienna, it was meant to educate the sons of nobility; in 1751, the Theresian Military Academy was started in Wiener Neustadt and in 1754 an Oriental Academy was established for training future diplomats.

(e) Reforms to promote censorship

The Queen's rule was famous for institutionalising censorship of books and learning. Several English authors felt that she was practicing injudicious bigotry by censoring the production of a large variety of books. Censorship mostly targeted reading material that carried anti-Catholic sentiments, it is very ironical that in her efforts of censorship she was supported by 'enlightened' Gerard van Swieten.

(f) Reforms for developing the economy

Maria Theresa strived to improve the standard of life of her people; she wanted the peasants also enjoy a decent standard as she realised that there was a direct link between productivity and revenue of the state. The government intervened in the industrial sector so that the sector could be strengthened. After losing Silesia, the government applied subsidies and trade obstructions so that the Silesian textile industry could be moved to northern Bohemia. Further, the privileges of the guild were curtailed and duties on internal trade were removed or reformed. Maria had to strike a balance between the privileges enjoyed by the nobles and the hardships faced by the peasants. The former had to be reduced so that the latter could lead a marginally better life. She was not very keen to intervene in such matters, for this the bureaucrats were appointed. The need to intervene became necessary with the increasing unrest among the peasants due to the famine in 1770s and the impact

NOTES

of continuous wars. The nobility's abuse of the rights of the labourers was another cause which compelled the queen to intervene. Between 1771to 1778, a succession of 'Robot Patents' were given out by Maria Theresa, and under them the labourers were restricted to the German and Bohemian parts of the kingdom. The aim was to guarantee that peasants were able to earn enough to be able to support their dependents and plus they were able to insurance the national expenditure during times of peace. The reforms were not welcomed by the nobles of Hungary. In the meantime Joseph was hopeful for further far-reaching changes, and for this in 1789 he eliminated forced peasant labour in his rule; however, Emperor Leopold II subsequently restarted the trend during his reign.

Check Your Progress

1. Why is Frederick William called the Great Elector?
2. When was West Prussia taken back from Poland?
3. When was the use of torture banned in Austria?

12.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. In German history, Frederick William is called the Great Elector because of his military and political achievements.
2. In 1772, West Prussia was taken back from Poland.
3. In 1776, Austria banned torture, mainly at the directive of Joseph II.

12.6 SUMMARY

- Brandenburg and Prussia remained two insignificant German lands even by the end of sixteenth century.
- In 1640, at the age of twenty, Frederick William took over the reign from his father.
- Frederick got the chance to establish his army when the Swedish King Charles X attacked Poland.
- In 1688, the Great Elector was succeeded by weak and frail Frederick I.
- In 1712, Frederick William I of Prussia, the grandson of the Great Elector, was blessed with son and he decided to call him Frederick as he wanted his son to be like him.

- Frederick obtained the title of Frederick the Great. He was a follower of enlightened absolutism. He eliminated torture, unlocked state granaries to the poor and reduced sentences for several crimes.
- Once Frederick began to think about enhancing the glory and wealth of Prussia, he began to focus on the wealthy Austrian province of Silesia.
- After his win in Austria, Frederick wanted to send time to enjoy his kingdom and his gloriously built palace of Sans Souci.
- Theresa's forty years long reign started after the death of her father, Emperor Charles VI, in October 1740.
- Maria Theresa disseminated many reforms such as institutional, financial and educational with the support and help of Wenzel Anton of Kaunitz-Rietberg, Count Friedrich Wilhelm von Haugwitz and Gerard van Swieten.
- Maria Theresa strived to improve the standard of life of her people; she wanted the peasants also enjoy a decent standard as she realised that there was a direct link between productivity and revenue of the state.

12.7 KEY TERMS

- **Enlightenment:** It was a European intellectual movement of the late 17th and 18th centuries emphasizing reason and individualism rather than tradition.
- **Centralism:** It means the control of different activities and organizations under a single authority.
- **Peasants:** It refers to a poor smallholder or agricultural labourer of low social status (chiefly in historical use or with reference to subsistence farming in poorer countries).
- **Enlightened Absolutism:** It refers to the conduct and policies of European absolute monarchs during the 18th and 19th centuries who were influenced by the ideas of the Enlightenment, espousing them to enhance their power.

12.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Describe Frederick the Great's palace at of Sans Souci.
2. Write a short note on the reforms undertaken by Queen Maria Theresa.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Examine the reasons why the Frederick William is called the Great Elector.
2. Frederick the Great was a follower of enlightened absolutism. Discuss.

NOTES

12.9 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.)*. London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

NOTES

UNIT 13 WAR OF AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION: AN OVERVIEW

Structure

13.0 Introduction
13.1 Objectives
13.2 War of Austrian Succession
13.3 Diplomatic Revolution
13.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
13.5 Summary
13.6 Key Words
13.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
13.8 Further Readings

13.0 INTRODUCTION

The War of the Austrian Succession is the period from 1740 to 1748, a collection of connected wars, which developed directly after the death of Charles VI, the Holy Roman emperor and commander of the Austrian branch of the House of Habsburg, on 20 October 1740. This unit will discuss in detail Austrian Succession and the Diplomatic Revolution.

13.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- State the factors which led to the outbreak of the War of Austrian Succession
- Discuss the significance of the Diplomatic Revolution
- Identify the terms and conditions of the Westminster Convention

13.2 WAR OF AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION

During the war for the Austrian succession, the French supported the fraud claims of Bavaria, Saxony and parts of Spain of the Habsburg domain. They also backed the claims of Charles Albert, member of the electorate of Bavaria, to the imperial crown. France supported all of them as they wanted their all-time enemy to be destroyed completely.

The first war took place immediately after the death of Charles VI known as the First Silesian War in 1740–42 and then in 1744-45 the Second Silesian

NOTES

War was fought. In this Frederick II the Great of Prussia and France allied and managed to take the province of Silesia from Austria and detained it.

The official date of beginning the War of the Austrian Succession is 16 December 1740. The War began immediately after Frederick II of Prussia attacked the wealthiest province of Habsburg, Silesia. His army conquered the Austrians at Mollwitz in April 1741 and assailed Silesia. His victory made the kingdom of Habsburg prone to many more attacks as others also realized that the kingdom was not capable of defending itself. As a result, war became a regular feature. Immediately after Fredrick's attack, the French got into an agreement against Austria with Bavaria and Spain and, subsequently with Saxony and Prussia as well. The Austrian ruler Maria Theresa's only supporter during this time were the English and they were also constantly at war with France in order to maintain their colonial supremacy. The British did not want the French to acquire domination in Europe, therefore, a third series of wars of the Austrian war of succession are the constant conflicts between Britain and France. These started in 1689 and continued till the 1815, many years after the Austrian struggle as well.

The French and Bavarian attack of Austria and Bohemia was not successful due to lack of unity between the two nations and also due their military inability. Austria momentarily offset Prussia by permitting it to keep Silesia in July 1742, subsequently, pushed the French and Bavarians away from Bohemia in 1742 and they assaulted Bavaria. The French were taken care of by the British, Hanoverians, and Hessians, allies of Austria. The French lost in the Battle of Dettingen on 27 June 1743 in Bavaria. In September 1743, Savoy united with the Austrians, and the French returned to their territories. In January 1745, Emperor Charles VII (Charles Albert of Bavaria) died and he was also in line to make a claim on the throne of Austria. The claim was renounced by his son Maximilian III Joseph and instead he promised to back Francis Stephen during the imperial election in lieu of restoring Austria's conquests back to Bavaria. Frederick was getting insecure due to the increasing power of Austria and for this reason he decided to attack Austria once again, this resulted in the Second Silesian War in 1744 and it ended a year later after signing the Treaty of Dresden in December. It established Prussian ownership of Silesia.

The French had managed a major victory under Marshal Maurice de Saxe when he has conquered the Austrian Netherlands (1745–46), along with his conquest at the Battle of Fontenoy on 11 May 1745. The war continued indecisively in the next two years. The British army returned to England to take action against the young pretender, Charles Edward, he was being supported by French to lay claims over the thrones of Scotland and England for the Stuarts. The war was costing heavily and unable to bear the burden the contesting nations agreed to sign the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in October 1748. The treaty allowed the queen of Austria, Maria Theresa, to retain a big chunk of her inheritance. Silesia remained with Prussia. The treaty ended the War of Austrian Succession but the conflicts between France and Britain continued.

Check Your Progress

1. When was the First Silesian War fought?
2. Name the treaty which ended the War of Austrian Succession.

NOTES

13.3 DIPLOMATIC REVOLUTION

The reversal of all time honoured agreements in Europe that take took place during the years between the Austrian War of Succession and the Seven Years War is referred to as Diplomatic Revolution of 1756. Austria was no longer an ally of Britain as it was now allied with France, whereas Prussia had now become a confederate of Britain. Austrian statesman and diplomat, Wenzel Anton von Kaunitz, was the chief instigator of this revolution.

The change took place due to the imperial quadrille, a continuously fluctuating pattern of coalitions all through the eighteenth century. The fluctuation was an attempt to sometimes preserve and sometimes to disrupt the balance of power in Europe.

The diplomatic change was prompted by a difference of interests between three powers of the time namely, Austria, Britain and France. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle signed in 1748 after the War of the Austrian Succession made Austria realize the price it has to pay for having the support of Britain. Maria Theresa of Austria had secured her claim to the throne of Habsburg and had made her husband, Francis Stephen the Emperor in 1745. However, for this she had to lose some of her richest territories of the kingdom. She had been diplomatically forced by the British to give up large chunk of Lombardy and Bavaria. She was compelled by the British to let go Parma to Spain and the most painful was when Austria had to cede all its claims on Silesia to Prussia.

The Prussian possession of Silesia, one of the Bohemian crown lands had made Prussia powerful in Europe. With its possession, Prussia had become a bigger threat to German lands of Austria and on the whole to Central Europe. The progression of Prussia and its increasing danger to Austria was very favourable to the British as they used it as a way to balance the power of France and thereby decreasing their authority in Germany.

Westminster Convention

The outcomes of the War of Austrian Succession made it evident that Britain did not view Austria as a powerful tool to control the power of France; however, they were happy to encourage Prussia due to its small size. For that reason during the Westminster Convention on 16 January 1756, it was agreed between Britain and Prussia that Britain will no longer help Austria in a new conflict for Silesia and in

NOTES

lieu Prussia conceded to safeguard Hanover from France. Britain had to keep Hanover protected as it was an ownership of their King, George II. Britain realized that Prussia's increasing power will keep it safe. In the meantime, Austria was firm about recapturing Silesia and this created tension among the two of them. At the same time, Maria Theresa also realized that there was no point in renewing an agreement with Britain and, therefore, she decided to ally with France who seemed to be in a stronger position. She hoped to gain Silesia back with the help of the French as she was fully aware that Austria will not be able to do this alone.

First Treaty of Versailles

Count Wenzel Anton von Kaunitz, the foreign policy minister of the queen was sent to France to develop an alliance that enabled Austria to regain Silesia. Kaunitz went to Madame de Pompadour, who was the mistress of Louis XV. He wanted her to get involved in the talks. On the other hand, Louis XV was not comfortable in agreeing to the terms of a treaty that had been presented by the foreign minister. It was only after the aggression between France and Britain restarted that Louis agreed to ally with Austria.

Moreover, Austria was no longer trying to surround France; rather, Frederick II had ended any chance of that and this made Austria seem harmless to France. The two countries entered into an alliance. In reply to the Westminster Convention, ministers of Louis XV and Kaunitz decided on the terms of the First Treaty of Versailles and it was signed on 1 May 1756 as per its terms both the countries agreed to neutrality and make available 24,000 troops whenever there was a need by either of them.

Second Treaty of Versailles

After procuring the neutrality of France, the diplomats of Maria Theresa were commanded by the queen to actively develop more coalitions against Prussia. This made Frederick II to be on his guard. He took the decision to react before Austria could plan an attack. He invaded Saxony, beginning the Seven Years' War (1756–1763). His actions were supposed to scare Russia and stop them from giving support to Austria. Conversely, his invasion on Saxony angered his opponents; the Russian Empress Elizabeth commanded that extra 80,000 troops to be sent Austria. In 1757 a year after the First Treaty of Versailles, France and Austria agreed upon a fresh alliance and, thus, the Second Treaty of Versailles was signed on 1 May. Under the terms of the treaty, France was given Austrian Netherlands and France promised to give Parma to Austria along with 1,29,000 French troops and the undertaking of 12 million livres each year till the time Silesia was reverted to Austria.

Consequences of Diplomatic Revolution

The outcome of the Diplomatic Revolution was that Britain and Prussia encountered Austria, France and Russia. In spite of the reversal of alliances, the initial resentments

continued that of Prussia against Austria and Britain against France. Consequently, this led to the Seven Years' War. Also, the Diplomatic Revolution came to be regarded as a prelude to the war.

At the end of the war Britain and Prussia emerged victorious. The British with their naval strength and Prussia with its unbeatable army proved to be heavy for both France and Austria. Even after making many attempts to conserve the balance of power the two could not defeat Britain and Prussia.

In 1762, the Anglo-Prussian alliance came to an end after the British stopped to provide military and financial support to Prussia. Prussia did not waste time and was quick to ally with Russia. The ending of the alliance and the outstanding rise of Britain left Prussia without an ally and soon the American Revolutionary War took place in 1775 and ended in 1783.

Check Your Progress

3. What agreement took place between Britain and Prussia during the Westminster Convention?
4. What were the terms and conditions of the Second Treaty of Versailles?

13.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The first Silesian War was fought in 1740–42.
2. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle ended the War of Austrian Succession.
3. During the Westminster Convention on 16 January 1756, it was agreed between Britain and Prussia that Britain will no longer help Austria in a new conflict for Silesia and in lieu Prussia conceded to safeguard Hanover from France.
4. Under the terms of the Second Treaty of Versailles, France was given Austrian Netherlands and France promised to give Parma to Austria along with 1,29,000 French troops and the undertaking of 12 million livres each year till the time Silesia was reverted to Austria.

13.5 SUMMARY

- During the war for the Austrian succession, the French supported the fraud claims of Bavaria, Saxony and parts of Spain of the Habsburg domain.
- The first war took place immediately after the death of Charles VI known as the First Silesian War in 1740–42 and then in 1744-45 the Second Silesian War was fought.

NOTES

- The official date of beginning the War of the Austrian Succession is 16 December 1740. The War began immediately after Frederick II of Prussia attacked the wealthiest province of Habsburg, Silesia.
- The French and Bavarian attack of Austria and Bohemia was not successful due to lack of unity between the two nations and also due their military inability.
- The French had managed a major victory under Marshal Maurice de Saxe when he has conquered the Austrian Netherlands (1745–46), along with his conquest at the Battle of Fontenoy on 11 May 1745.
- The diplomatic change was prompted by a difference of interests between three powers of the time namely, Austria, Britain and France. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle signed in 1748 after the War of the Austrian Succession made Austria realize the price it has to pay for having the support of Britain.
- The Prussian possession of Silesia, one of the Bohemian crown lands had made Prussia powerful in Europe. With its possession, Prussia had become a bigger threat to German lands of Austria and on the whole to Central Europe.
- After procuring the neutrality of France, the diplomats of Maria Theresa were commanded by the queen to actively develop more coalitions against Prussia. This made Frederick II to be on his guard.
- The outcome of the Diplomatic Revolution was that Britain and Prussia encountered Austria, France and Russia. In spite of the reversal of alliances, the initial resentments continued that of Prussia against Austria and Britain against France.

13.6 KEY WORDS

- **American Revolutionary War:** This war took place from 1775 to 1783. During this war, 13 of Great Britain's North American colonies won political independence and went on to form the United States of America (USA).
- **First Silesian War:** This war took place in 1740-42 between Prussia and Austria. This war resulted in Prussia occupying Silesia from Austria.

13.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. State the reasons responsible for the outbreak of the War of Austrian Succession.

2. Who was the chief instigator of the Diplomatic Revolution?
3. Write a short note on the Second Treaty of Versailles.

Long-Answer Questions

1. What was the significance of the Westminster Convention?
2. Discuss the terms and conditions of the First Treaty of Versailles.
3. Analyse the consequences of the Diplomatic Revolution.

NOTES

13.8 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.).* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

NOTES

UNIT 14 THE SEVEN YEARS WAR AND THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Structure

14.0 Introduction
14.1 Objectives
14.2 The Seven Years War
14.2.1 Joseph II of Austria
14.3 Louis XV and Lousi XVI: Causes of the French Revolution
14.3.1 Causes of the French Revolution
14.3.2 Course of the Revolution
14.4 Results of the French Revolution
14.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
14.6 Summary
14.7 Key Words
14.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
14.9 Further Readings

14.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we will discuss the Seven Years War and the French Revolution. The Seven Years' War was a global conflict fought between 1756 and 1763. It involved every European great power of the time and spanned five continents, affecting Europe, the Americas, West Africa, India, and the Philippines. The conflict was fought between two European power blocs led by the Kingdom of Great Britain and the Kingdom of France. The war resulted in French failure and led to Great Britain becoming the supreme European power.

A mere sixteen years after the Seven Years War ended, France underwent a revolution that altered the relations societal relations between the different classes and fundamentally changed the way one imagined society to be. These ideas not only altered the fabric of European society, but many decades later, the idea of 'Liberty, Equality, Fraternity' became the inspiration on which revolutions in other nations were fought. Today, the ideas of the French Revolution have also become the cornerstone of democratic societies in most of the world.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss the reasons for the Seven Years War
- Examine Joseph II's policies
- Describe the causes and results of the French Revolution

14.2 THE SEVEN YEARS WAR

NOTES

The global conflict that took place between 1756-1763 has been referred to as the Seven Years' War. The conflict had enveloped all major powers of that era and it stretched up to five continents, the effects of the wars were felt in not only Europe but also the Americas, West Africa, India, and the Philippines. The conflict had divided Europe into two groups, one group was headed by Britain and it also consisted of Prussia, Portugal, Hanover, and some of the smaller German states and the other group was led by France and included the Austrian Holy Roman Empire, Russia, Bourbon Spain, and Sweden. The conflict even had effects in a few parts of India where a divided Mughal empire had tried to use French support to curtail the British from taking control of Bengal. The fact that the war extended to most parts of the world has led to a few historians calling the conflict 'World War Zero'.

The war rose from the attempts of Austrian Habsburgs to recapture their wealthy province of Silesia. Fredrick had captured the province while the Austrians were struggling with their war of succession. The war started due to this issue but soon it engulfed the colonial conflicts of France and Britain. The chief issues between the two powers were their struggle in gaining control over their colonies in North America and India. The two were already involved in the French and Indian War (1754–63). With other conflicts taken into calculation, the Seven Years' War may be regarded as the phase of Europe when the globe became a battle-ground between the two major European powers. Britain took Prussia as an ally as it wanted to protect Hanover from the French possession.

Important events of the Seven Years' War

- French and Indian War, 1754 - 1763
- Silesian Wars, 1756 - 1762
- Battle of Minorca, May 20, 1756
- Battle of Plassey, June 23, 1757
- Battle of Wandiwash, January 22, 1760
- Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1763

The Diplomatic Revolution and the Preface to the French and Indian War

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), which resolved the War of Austrian Succession, had spread a lot of discontent among the countries involved and also it did not relieve the tension of the colonial conflicts between Great Britain and France. In fact, it only cultivated the grounds for free invasions and conflicts. Austria was still not able to get Silesia and Russia was not feeling comfortable due to the increasing power of Prussia. The power of Prussia was as a challenge for Russia and it was felt that Prussia soon would begin to also have designs over Poland and

NOTES

the Baltic. Russians were not in a position to voice their opinion. As per the Treaty of St. Petersburg on December 9, 1747, Russia had provided mercenary troops to the British for use against the French during the concluding stages of the war, and this had angered the French and they had prohibited their presence in the peace talks.

Austria: Seven Years' War, 1756–63

The War of Austrian Succession had witnessed the antagonists united in long-standing associations. Britain, the long lasting enemy of France, had allied with Austria. In the same way, Prussia a German state against Austria had allied with France. They were all allies but had no love lost over each other. Austria due to its alliance with Britain had only suffered territorial losses and it had in the end lost Silesia to Prussia with no future hope of getting it back. Prussia after getting Silesia had no need for the support of France and the French had considered it important to formulate a defensive agreement with Prussia in 1747, while the upkeep of the Anglo-Austrian arrangement after 1748 was considered vital by the Duke of Newcastle. The failure of the system at that time and France's support of Austria and Great Britain's alliance with Prussia instituted the 'diplomatic revolution' or the 'reversal of alliances.'

The Keenness of the European powers

Britain's Hanoverian King George II was single-mindedly dedicated to the continental holdings of his family; however, his obligations in Germany were compensated by the requirements of the overseas colonies of Britain. In case the war to counter France in colonial expansion had to be started again, then Hanover would need to be protected against attacks from France and Prussian. It was obvious that the French were overly keen for expanding their colonies and they would not think twice to use the defencelessness of Hanover in war to put Great Britain in a spot. And it was also keen to turn its forces towards central Europe just because of Prussia. The policy of France had become complicated due to the presence of the le Secret du roi, this was a scheme of diplomacy privately undertaken by King Louis XV. Even his foreign ministers were not aware of his secret policy, the king had set up his agents in all parts of Europe and through this network he was able to get information that helped him in formulating policies that helped him to achieve personal political gains. His policies sometime even went against widely specified policies of France. Under his secret policy, Louis XV wished to get the Polish throne for his relative Louis François de Bourbon, prince de Conti. He not only wanted to be in control of Poland but also have Sweden, and Turkey as its allies against Russia and Austria.

On June 2, 1746, Austria and Russia established a self-protective alliance that protected their individual domains along with Poland and thus safeguarding them against an invasion by Prussia or Turkey. Both agreed up on a secretive section as per which restoration of Silesia and the countship of Glatz will be handed

over to Austria in case of any conflict with Prussia. The actual agreement was to plan the complete destruction Frederick the Great's power, limiting his influence only over his electoral land; Brandenburg and eastern parts of Prussia were to be handed over to Poland, in this exchange the Polish duchy of Courland would be ceded to Russia. Aleksey Petrovich, Graf (count) Bestuzhev-Ryumin, grand chancellor of Russia during the rule of the empress Elizabeth, had hatred for not only Prussia but towards France as well. However, he was not able to convince Wenzel Anton von Kaunitz to attack Prussia till the time Prussians had the support of the French.

Saxony and Polish West Prussia seemed as areas of potential expansion to Frederick but he was sure that the French will not support him in case he carried out an attack on these areas. He also knew that he could not join the French in their war against the British in order to annex Hanover, as this would make him prone to an attack by the Austrians and the Russians. Frederick was also the elective king of Poland, however, in between his two territories lay Brandenburg and Silesia. None of the states could be regarded as a big power. Saxony was simply a shield between Prussia and Austrian Bohemia, while Poland, in spite of its union with Lithuania, was the target of the French and the Russian support-groups. As a part of its strategy to get Saxony, Prussia offered Bohemia to Frederick Augustus as this would lead to additional set-backs for Austria.

Initial Negotiations and Hostilities in the Colonies

To please Austria, the British government suggested the full support of the Hanoverians to elect the son of Maria Theresa to be the successor of the Holy Roman Emperor. This proposal antagonised Frederick extremely as he was the elector of Brandenburg and also the King of Prussia and none of the German electors could afford to upset him at any cost. In 1750, Great Britain agreed to form a defensive agreement with the Russians which the Russians had been pursuing since 1746. The agreement was signed without any secret section on Silesia and it also it did not include a guarantee by the two nations over the status quo in Hanover.

Kaunitz was sent to France by Queen Theresa in 1750, the purpose of his visit was to make France participate in the plans of Prussia's destruction along with Austria and Russia. The French were not very convinced over the plans to defeat Prussia, and were still sour with Russia over the events of 1748 and therefore did not wish to get into any diplomatic alliances with Russia. Moreover, France fully realised that once Austrian power was restored they would become powerful in all of Germany. Even by 1753, Kaunitz was not able achieve success and thus Maria Theresa called him and appointed him as the chancellor. Kaunitz, even in his new post, did not have much success in strengthening the relations between the two nations.

In the meantime, the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was also unsuccessful in releasing the tension between France and Britain's colonial conflicts. During 1752, the relations further worsened. The French in 1754 began to aggressively pursue

NOTES

the British colonies situated in the Northern America. Their policy of making Americans fight with each other, helped France win a couple of military battles. The British were completely at their last end of patience with the French. French ships in the Strait of Belle Isle were attacked by the British Admiral Edward Boscawen in June 1755, and this act of British started an unsaid war between the navies of both the countries. Prior to any public declarations of war, the British had to make arrangements for protecting Hanover.

Defensive Treaties

Austria was not really interested in the French-Anglo colonial conflicts as its primary concern was Silesia and for this reason it was not keen on joining their fight. Kaunitz supposed that Great Britain needed to engage the mercenaries of Germany and Russia for defending their territory in southern Netherlands and most importantly Hanover. They had provided the starting point for earlier Austro-British and Dutch actions to counter France. The failure of the Dutch military force had made the Austrian parts in Netherlands sensitive areas for Austria, and for this reason Kaunitz was thinking that it would make a good barter with the French, and in exchange, they would get Silesia. Anyway British wanted Austria to give them large number of troops for them to be able to protect Hanover and other territories. After Britain was refused by Austria in 1755 they formulated a fresh treaty with Russia. An initial agreement was signed up in St. Petersburg between Bestuzhev and Sir Charles Hanbury Williams (British ambassador). It specified that Russia will retain an army of 55,000 men on the Livonian-Lithuanian border and they would be at the disposal of British to use whenever their territories are threatened in the area. In lieu of this, the Russians would be given an annual grant of £100,000, and this would become £500,000 in case the armies are used. Bestuzhev very well knew that the terms were made keeping Prussia in mind and anyhow he was thrilled to have English funds to use for expanding Russia. The British were quick to react and without the knowledge of the Russians they contacted Frederick the Great, he was anyways feeling insecure due to the negotiations between Austria and Russia, was happy to support Britain though fully aware that this alliance would not be liked by the French since Prussia was an ally of the French as well. On January 16, 1756, the Convention of Westminster was formulated and under this agreement, Great Britain (Hanover) and Prussia were going to respect each other's territories and would protect one and another from foreign invasions on Germany. In this agreement, Austria and Netherlands was not included.

The Convention of Westminster angered the Russians on one side and French on the other. The French were hoping to improve their relations with the Russians and gather input about the talks between Russia and Britain. In 1755, they had even sent a Scottish Jacobite migrant, Alexander Mackenzie, on an undercover mission to St. Petersburg. He was a part of the French secret policy along with the ministry of foreign affairs of France. Mikhail Illarionovich Vorontsov, the vice-chancellor of Russia welcomed Mackenzie. He was an insistent enemy of Bestuzhev

and Elizabeth's resentment at the Convention of Westminster helped in accelerating a Franco-Russian settlement. In April 1756, the Russians guaranteed 80,000 men to Austria for an invasion on Prussia.

After the Convention of Westminster Kaunitz was not sad to lose the British as their ally and he was completely in favour the French closeness to Austria and felt that Prussia was bound to be upset from this closeness. After this convention, the two nations went ahead and signed the First Treaty of Versailles in May 1756. It was an act of defence between both the countries and they both promised to help with an army of 24,000 men in case of attack on either. Remarkably, it excused Austria from any compulsion to take part in a war against Great Britain.

The two alliances are considered to be the factors which resulted in the diplomatic revolution; then again, they paved way for more wars in Europe. Both agreements were extremely defensive, they were bound to have a reverse effect, even Kaunitz was aware that agreement between French and Austria was helping in bringing France closer to the alliance between Austria and Russia for their fight against Prussia. Austria kept themselves away from the French takeover of British Minorca, it was a campaign that continued for thirty days starting from April 19 and ending on May 20, 1756; even Prussia did not participate from the British side.

Frederick the Great wanted to think that the First Treaty of Versailles was not harmful for Prussia, nonetheless that treaty was obviously beneficial for Austria and in some ways for Russia as well. In fact, both the countries had troops very close to Prussia. From July 1756, Frederick started appealing to Maria Theresa about her intensions towards Prussia and he continued to do so till August 20, yet he did not get a satisfying response. Within ten days, on August 29, 1756, Frederick marched his forces into Saxony. He claimed that he only wished to protect himself but his claims have been often debated and many felt that his move gave an impetus to war in Europe. His actions did not seem merely as defensive; to protect his land and have an advantage over Austria and Russia in case they attacked his land. The British were not happy with his actions as they were also pulled in and the French were completely surprised by his move. They were compelled to defend Austria and counter the unpredicted aggression.

The Peace Treaties

Since the Seven Years War theoretically consisted of two wars, one between France and Britain and the second between Austria and Prussia, therefore, when they ended there were two peace treaties as well. The conclusive Treaty of Paris was settled on February 10, 1763, the main participants were obviously France and Great Britain along with Hanover and Spain, and Portugal particularly unstated was also a part. As per the terms, the French let go all their claims in mainland North America, east of the Mississippi River (without New Orleans and neighbourhoods); the West Indian islands of Grenada, Saint Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago; and all conquests made by France in India since 1749 and its claims

NOTES

in the East Indies to Britain. France was given back the West Indian islands of Guadeloupe, Martinique, Marie-Galante, and La Désirade; the Atlantic islands of Saint-Pierre and Miquelon; the West African colony of Gorée (Senegal); and Belle-Île-en-Mer. Saint Lucia was also returned to France. Spain regained Havana and Manila, surrendered Florida to the British, and was returned Louisiana, along with New Orleans from the French. Moreover, the French emptied Hanover, Hesse, and Brunswick. The British allowances to France in the West Indies were done so that the French evacuation of Prussian exclaves in western Germany could be secured. France asserted that they were indebted to subjugate those parts impending Austria's reimbursement with Prussia.

The Treaty of Hubertusburg was concluded on 15 February 1763; between the participants of the second war, these included Austria, Prussia, and Saxony. The terms had been initiated on December 31, 1762. Frederick had thought that in case Russia's Peter III assisted in its possession of Saxony then he would be willing to give East Prussia to Russia, but in the end, Russia was not a part of the agreement and he declined to relinquish Saxony till its elector had forsaken all claims of compensation. The Austrians had wished to at least keep recaptured Glatz, but this was also refused by Frederick and he wanted the same terms to continue that had been established in 1748. The Austrians were only allotted one concession by Prussia. They allowed Austria for the election of Archduke Joseph as the Holy Roman Emperor.

Prussia arose as a great power from the war and its power could not be challenged in the whole of Europe. Austria lost all its glory at the hands of Prussia. In a way Russia's gain was not visible but finally after the war, French influence had ended in Poland and this was a big advantage for Russia. In 1772, when the First Partition of Poland took place the main players were Russia and Prussia; the French were completely ignored and Austria was barely involved.

14.2.1 Joseph II of Austria

Joseph II was born on 13 March 1741. He was crowned as the Holy Roman Emperor in August 1765 and in 1780, November, he became the exclusive ruler of the Habsburg lands and continued to rule till he died in 1790. He was the first-born of Empress Maria Theresa and her husband, Emperor Francis I. He was therefore the initial monarch in the Austrian territories of the House of Lorraine, designed Habsburg-Lorraine. Joseph was a supporter of enlightened absolutism; but, his reforms attempted for modernizing eventually made him the target of severe opposition and because of these oppositions his reforms could not be successfully implemented. He has been equated with great rulers like Catherine the Great of Russia and Frederick the Great of Prussia, they were the three great Enlightenment monarchs. In present times, his policies are referred to as Josephinism. He was succeeded by his younger brother, Leopold II as he died without an heir.

NOTES

Administrative Policies under Joseph II

After the death of his mother, Queen Maria Theresa, Joseph began to issue edicts. He issued more than six thousand edicts along with about eleven thousand laws. These edicts and laws were meant to standardize and rearrange all aspects of life in the kingdom. In spirit, Josephinism was generous and caring. He wished for his people to be happy, but the happiness was according to his terms. Joseph started to build a rational, central and uniform governmental system for his vast empire, he was the supreme authority and all were under his rule. The officials in the government were expected to abide the same standards and spirit towards servicing the state. The officials were appointed in a fair manner irrespective of their class and promotions were also based only on merit. In order to promote uniformity, German was the official language and its knowledge was mandatory for all in the kingdom and specifically in businesses concerned with the Kingdom of Hungary. The Hungarian Assembly did not enjoy any privileges and they were not called together as well.

A uniform system of accounting of state revenues, expenses and debts of territories owing to crown of Austria was initiated by the privy finance minister, Count Karl von Zinzendorf (1739–1813). Austria was able to be extra efficacious as compared to France in being able to meet general expenses and in attaining credit. But, even Joseph's government began to feel the burden of wars and they became financially weak after the death of Joseph in 1792.

Legal Reforms under Joseph II

The eventful ruler managed to completely reform the legal system of his kingdom. He did away with inhuman retributions and in many cases, the death penalty was also removed. He established a standard of thorough equality in treating all wrongdoers. He put an end to censorship of the press and theatre.

Complete legal liberty was allotted to the serfs in 1781–82. The rents of the peasants were monitored and controlled by the government officials and taxes were decided as per their earnings from land. These provisions made the landlords feel threatened and they made sure that the policy was subsequently retreated. Actually, the resistance by the landlords in Hungary and Transylvania was very severe and the reforms could not be fully imposed. The number of land barons in Hungary was very high. The emperor was able to act after 1784-85 when many nobles had lost their lives in the peasant revolt of Horea, though the movement was not a success. Joseph's Imperial Patent of 1785 eliminated serfdom but the peasants were still not given the ownership of the land or independence from payments owing to the nobles who were landowners. The liberation of the peasants from the Kingdom of Hungary encouraged the development of a fresh class of taxable landowners; however, the ills of feudalism and exploitation of the tenants did not end. Feudalism was finally abolished in 1848.

NOTES

To even out the rate of taxation, land assessments were carried out by Joseph so equality of taxes could be maintained in the empire. The aim was to improve the relations between landowners and their peasants and also to improve the standard of life of the peasants and finally increase the earnings for the state. For the emperor, taxes and land reforms were closely linked with each other. The nobles and some of the peasants were not happy with these reforms and soon after Joseph's death, they were done away with. Many believe that the reforms were destined to fail as the aim was to bring radical changes in a short time and people were not able to adjust or realise their worth in the long run.

In urban areas, the new economic principles of the Enlightenment asked for the demolition of the independent guilds; by this time, it had already become weaker since the time of mercantilism. Tax reforms and the institution of Katastralgemeinde by Joseph did the remaining work. The fresh benefits in factories finished the rights of the guild despite the fact that customs laws intended at economic unity. Physiocratic stimulus also steered for the insertion of agriculture among these reforms.

Reforms in Education and Medicine

Elementary education was made compulsory for all irrespective of class, creed and gender. Joseph wanted his population to be educated and this could be achieved by making sure that all attended school at the primary level. Higher education was provided for those who were capable. Joseph generated scholarships for brilliant students who were poor and could not afford higher education. He even permitted schools to be established for all religious minorities including Jews. In 1784, in spite of being a multilingual empire, he instructed that the language of instructions in education should be German and not Latin.

Joseph made an effort to consolidate medical care in Vienna with the construction of a distinct big hospital - the well-known Allgemeines Krankenhaus. The hospital started in 1784. However, centralization led to the problem of sanitation and caused a number of diseases and increased the death rate by twenty per cent. Although on the whole the city experienced medical advancement in the following century.

Reforms in Religion under Joseph II

Religious toleration was most aggressively followed during the reign of Joseph; it was not seen in any other state of Europe. Perhaps the most disliked reform during his time was his attempts of trying to modernise the highly orthodox Catholic Church; the Church had many ancient traditions and it had also helped in the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire starting with Charlemagne. Joseph called himself the protector of Catholicism and hit at the power of the pope in a vigorous manner. He attempted to misuse the Church authority for state matters. He wanted the Church to be independent of Rome. Clerics were deprived of the taxes and instructed to study in universities in the supervision of the government, the bishops

NOTES

were expected to take an official oath owing their faithfulness to the crown. He funded the large growth in bishoprics, parishes, and secular priesthood with the help of widespread transactions of monkish lands. As a follower of the Enlightenment, he mocked the introspective monkish orders, as he felt it was useless. Consequently, he repressed a large majority of monasteries; more than seven hundred were shut down and the number of monks and nuns were reduced to 27,000 which at one time were 65,000. The ecclesiastical tribunals of the Church were abolished and marriage was determined as a civil contract out of the dominion of the Church. Observance of holy days in the empire was also cut in large numbers and he also instructed for reduction of the decorations done in the churches. He gave orders for performing the Mass in a simple manner. His reforms were condemned by his opponents and they felt that he had a strong inclination towards Protestantism. This was further visible with his encouragement to the rationales of Enlightenment and the appearance of open-minded bourgeois bureaucrats. There was an emergence of anti-clericalism and it stayed whereas the opponents of the emperor, the traditional Catholics became vocal and active in their opposition.

In the Patent of Toleration of 1781 of the King, the monopoly of the Catholic Church on faith was lost. Protestants and Jews were allowed to freely practice their faith. All the same, the Catholic superiority was maintained, particularly in Austria. On 12 January 1782, the Secularization Decree was given out banning many monastic orders that were not indulging in training or therapeutic practice, and under the issue, 140 monasteries were liquidated.

Due to his actions, he was paid a visit by Pope Pius VI in March 1782. Joseph welcomed the Pope and gave him respect but in no way was he influenced by his visit. However, Joseph was very influenced with Freemasonry and regarded him as a friend, they both had similar views on the philosophy of Enlightenment. His speech in Paris clearly reflected his views on religion as the speech was full of riposte. In 1789, he delivered an agreement of religious toleration for the Jews of Galicia. The agreement obliterated communal autonomy due to which the Jews were able to control their internal matters; it endorsed Germanization and the non-Jewish attire could be worn.

Foreign policy of Joseph II

The war policy of the Habsburg Empire was focused on extension, colonization and trade. Austria was friendly with Russia but it completely opposed Prussia and Turkey. In spite of being an ally of Russia, Joseph tried to reduce the influence of Danubian Principalities from Russia. Many historians have regarded Joseph to be an extremely aggressive imperialist leader; he wanted the monarchy of Habsburg to be Europe's greatest power. His primary aim was to attain control over Bavaria and for that he was willing to let go of the Austrian territory in the Netherlands, however, twice his plans were crushed by the Prussian King Frederick II, once in 1778 and then in 1785. He was fearful of the ruler since he had the support of some of the German princes as well. Due to the friendship with the Russians,

Joseph had to get involved in a useless and costly war with the Turks during 1787-1791. Austria had nothing to gain from the conflict but was compelled and in spite of winning a few of the battles they ultimately gained nothing.

NOTES

Both mother and son reflected Cameralism in their policy towards the Balkan as endorsed by Prince Kaunitz; stress was given on consolidating the bordering areas with the help of military power. Transylvania was united into the boundary in 1761 and the regiments at the frontier were considered as the strength of the military edict, the commander of the regiment not only had control over military powers but he had a say in civilian matters as well. The prevalent theory of colonization was based on 'Populationistik', it calculated success in relation with labour. Economic development was given full stress by Joseph II. The influence of Habsburg was an essential factor in the growth of the Balkan during the latter half of the eighteenth century, particularly in the development of the Serbs and Croats.

There was lot of unrest in the kingdom due to the King's interference in a number of traditional norms. In the meantime, Joseph was completely concentrating on the success of his foreign policies; they were all designed with aggressive expansion and well measured for offending the neighbouring areas. He tried to end the Treaty of Barrier, as it did not allow his Flemish people to be able to navigate in the Scheldt. After being rejected by the French, he made fresh alliances with the Russians over the partition of the empire of the Ottomans and the Republic of Venice. Soon he had to let go of these diplomacies as it offended the French and was severely opposed by the other neighbours. Consequently, Joseph once again began to concentrate on his acquisition of Bavaria.

His taxation policy was extensively opposed by the nobles; they were very unsatisfied because of his attempts at equality of taxes. He was opposed for his attempts to undo the regional authority in Austrian Netherlands and Hungary since he wanted to put everything under his personal control in Vienna. Even the common man was dissatisfied with his rule; they did not appreciate his over involvement in small matters of their routine lives. It is often understood that Joseph wanted to bring reforms which were needed according to his personal judgement and paid no attention to the needs of his people. It seemed that the king was not reforming the institutions but the people. He was often reported about the discontentment prevailing among the people.

Rebellions started to build up against his reforms on a large scale by 1790, the Barbantian Revolution started in the Austrian Netherlands and Hungary, and other parts of his territories were agitated due to his prolonged fruitless war with the Ottomans. His people were threatening to shut down the empire as a result, he withdrew a few of the projects of reforms and on 30 January 1790, he officially removed most of the reforms in Hungary.

Joseph came back to Vienna in November 1788, his health was not good and he was completely left alone. He had no visitors and even his brother Leopold continued to stay in Florence. He realised that he had no supporters left and there

was no one to promote his reforms. On February 20, 1790 he breathed his last breath. He was succeeded by his brother. His grave is situated at the Imperial Crypt in Vienna and its epitaph reads some of his last words: "*Here lies Joseph II, who failed in all he undertook."*

Check Your Progress

1. What treaty resolved the War of Austrian Succession?
2. Where is Joseph II's grave located?

14.3 LOUIS XV AND LOUSI XVI: CAUSES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution of 1789 brought forth issues that European society was to debate throughout the 19th and early 20th century. Indeed, the chief causes of the French revolution were also prevalent in other European societies. Thus, to understand why the French Revolution occurred, it is important to understand the socio-political structure that was prevalent in most of the societies of Europe in the 18th century.

European society in the 18th century was dominated by various aristocratic houses. France was ruled by Louis XVI, Spain by Charles III, Russia by Catherine the Great, etc. Even the Parliament of Great Britain greatly depended on the patronage of the English nobility and its monarch George III. The monarchs of Europe in the 18th century were termed as 'Enlightened Despots'. Along with their relatives in the European aristocracy, these monarchs owned the majority of the land where common citizens worked for their livelihood. People had no power to influence how the aristocracy in these nations functioned. Many of them were considered serfs who did not have any individual rights granted to them. This resulted in the general public in Europe being strongly resentful towards the aristocracy.

The feudal structure of the society also contributed towards this resentment. In a feudal structure, the major burden of taxation is on the poor whose money is used for privileges that are only meant to be enjoyed by the nobility. European Feudal landlords acted as petty sovereigns, while the state's concern for common citizens was limited only to the collection of taxes. This broke the humane link between the rulers and ruled and the exploitation of serfs at the hand of landlords became the order of the day. The church was of no help to people either. In fact, the church was one of the power centres which legitimized the exploitation of the masses by the nobility. Moreover, many of the monarchs also had megalomaniac tendencies without any moral or ethical considerations in their relations with other nations. According to the historian Charles Downer Hazen, 'the old regime in

NOTES

Europe was disloyal to the very principles on which it rested'. Those principles were the respect for the established order and regard for regality and engagements.

Along with this prevailing situation, the ideas of the Renaissance were slowly taking shape among the masses of Europe. There was spread of scientific inquiry and increasing questioning of religious dogmatism. The invention of the printing press allowed many of the ideas of great thinkers to become widespread. Many pamphlets and journals were published that attacked the church. Perhaps most important of all, the theory of the divine right of kings was also increasingly questioned. All of these factors combined together to become the fuel for the upheaval that was to come to Europe at the end of the 18th century.

14.3.1 Causes of the French Revolution

The French Revolution was one of the few historical events that not only changed the shape of Europe, but its ideas also gave rise to a new type of political system. The Russian thinker and writer Peter Kropotkin, in his book *The Great French Revolution*, stated, 'Two great currents prepared and made the Great French Revolution. One of them, the current of ideas, concerning the political reorganization of States, came from the middle classes; the other, the current of action, came from the people, both peasants and workers in the towns, who wanted to obtain immediate and definite improvements in their economic condition. And when these two currents met and joined in the endeavour to realise an aim, which for sometime was common to both, when they had helped each other for a certain time, the result was the Revolution.'

The causes of the French revolution can be divided into social and political causes. They are enumerated as follows:

Social Causes of the French Revolution

According to many historians, the revolution of 1789 was much less a rebellion against despotism than a rebellion against inequality. The socio-economic inequality that prevailed in France ultimately paved the way for the unrest that gradually usurped Louis XVI's regime of its status. French society at that time was divided into the haves and the have nots. The haves consisted of the clergy and the nobility whose total strength was about one percent of the population. While the haves enjoyed all privileges, the other 99 per cent of the population suffered misery and exploitation.

The division of society in France in the 18th century was based on the social hierarchy that was conceived in the Middle Ages called the 'estate of the realms.' This social hierarchy divided French society along three estates. Broadly speaking, the three estates of France were as follows:

- **First Estate:** The First Estate in France consisted of the entire clergy, which was traditionally divided into the 'higher' and 'lower' clergy. The 'higher' clergy were essentially the nobility of the clergy, whose members came from the families of the Second Estate.

NOTES

- **Second Estate:** The Second Estate in France consisted of the French nobility. The monarch of France was not a member of the Second Estate as he was considered to be outside the system of estates. They were divided into those who administered justice and civil government and those who were made up of the officers of the military.
- **Third Estate:** All those who were not part of the First and the Second Estate were members of the Third Estate. The Third Estate in France at the time of the French Revolution consisted of over 95 per cent of the population. They could be divided into two groups: urban and rural. The urban members of the Third Estate included those who had wealth but no titles, like the rich bourgeoisie or traders, as well as the poor wage-labourers. The rural members of the Third Estate were extremely poor, yet, they were forced to pay excessively high taxes compared to the other Estates. The members of the First and Second Estates lived off the labour that was produced by the Third Estate.

During the time of Louis XVI, there was a famous saying in France which said, 'The nobles fight, the clergy pray, the people pay'. In the 18th century, peasants made up to 90 per cent of the population but owned only a small amount of land that they cultivated. On the other hand, the nobility, the church and other rich members of the Estates owned 60 per cent of the land. The member of the first two estates enjoyed certain privileges by birth. The most important of these was that they were exempted from paying taxes to the state. The aristocracy also enjoyed feudal privileges. These included feudal dues, which they extracted from the peasants. The peasants were obliged to render services to the feudal lord to work in his house and fields to serve in the army or to participate in building roads. During the reign of Louis XVI, the aristocracy had a monopoly of practically all the jobs in the army and the church. Like the nobility, the clergymen also enjoyed privileges. The 'higher' clergy had castles, cathedrals, palaces, invaluable pictures, rich investments and rental from land in the form of *tithes*. Moreover, the church extracted direct tax called *taille* and also a number of indirect taxes. The burdens of financing activities of the state through taxes were borne by the members of the Third Estate alone.

The members of the third estate were expected to pay taxes like *taille* or land tax, *vingtieme* or income tax, the *gabelle* or the salt tax and the *corvee* or the road tax. Estimates suggest that after paying all the taxes, a French peasant was left with only about 20 percent of his total produce. According to the historian Professor Leo Gershoy, three principal causes determined the steady decline in the fortunes of the French peasantry in the 18th century. They were a sharp and continuous growth in population, a marked upward movement of prices without a corresponding increase in the real wages and the influence of the Physiocrats in stimulating agrarian reforms. The population of France rose from 23 million in 1715 to 28 million in 1789. This led to a rapid increase in demand of food grains. The production of grains, however, did not keep pace with this demand. Thus, the

NOTES

gap between the rich and poor widened with things becoming worse if a drought occurred.

Like the peasants, the bourgeoisie or the middle class also belonged to the Third Estate of French society. The bourgeois class consisted of professors, lawyers, physicians, bankers and merchants. However, unlike the peasants, the wealth of the bourgeoisie was almost equal to the aristocratic class. According to the famous 18th century French writer Voltaire, 'the middle class has enriched itself through industrial and commercial profits have increased, there is less luxury among nobility than formerly and more in middle class life so that the contrast between them is not so marked'. While the bourgeois class had wealth, they lacked any real political power. Being educated, the bourgeoisie believed that no group should be privileged by birth. Influenced by works of philosophers like John Locke's *Two Treaties of Government* and Jean Jacques Rousseau's *The Social Contract*, the bourgeois dreamed of a society based on freedom and equal laws and opportunity for all. It was the social awakening of the bourgeois class that gave shape to the ideas of the French Revolution. It is for this reason that many refer to the French Revolution as the Bourgeois Revolution.

Political Causes of the French Revolution

Two important causes of the French Revolution of 1789 were the absolute concentration of power that the French monarch held and the inability of French rulers who followed the reign of Louis XIV (1643-1715). The French monarchs were part of the Bourbon dynasty and built for them a grand palace at Versailles. All functions of government, administration of justice, recruitment and promotion to high offices were all concentrated in the hands of the crown. Had the Bourbon administration been efficient, this centralisation might have served its end. However, the administration was totally inefficient. The legal system employed by the Bourbon's was also extremely cruel. People were routinely given severe punishment for ordinary offences. All of these factors added to the difficulties faced by the people of France. Although the Bourbon King Louis XIV worked hard and was the last competent emperor of France, he left behind a legacy of financial bankruptcy for his successor.

During the reign of Louis XV (1715-1774), France participated in a number of international conflicts. His reign was also characterised by a huge amount of pomp and extravaganza. Writing about Louis XV's court, the Austrian ambassador at Paris wrote, 'At court there is nothing but confusion, scandals and injustice'. Louis XV was devoted to hunting and the pleasures of the court. He was popular with the courtiers who bled the treasury in an irresponsible and selfish manner. Under his reign the bourgeois started getting increasingly restless as they were never consulted or involved in any government activity. Many believe that the decisions that Louis XV took during his reign played a huge part in the revolution that was to occur 15 years after his death. Louis XV managed to weaken the

NOTES

treasury considerably and helped to discredit the concept of absolute monarchy in France.

Luis XV was succeeded by Louis XVI (1774-1792). At the beginning there was high expectation from Louis XVI because Anne Robert Jacques Turgot, a friend of Voltaire and contributor to the *Encyclopaedic* was appointed the Minister of Finance and Comptroller-General under Louis XIV. Louis XVI tried his best to give France a fresh start after it had grown weary under the reign of his predecessor. Following Enlightenment ideals, Louis XVI abolished torture, serfdom, the land tax, and actively participated in America's struggle to gain independence from Britain. Under Louis XVI's reign and Turgot's direction, industry and commerce were freed of restrictions and the tax burden on the lower classes were reduced by transferring a share of taxes to the nobles and clergy. However, these measures were opposed vociferously by the clergy and the nobility. Faced by a hostile aristocracy, and failing to impose his will forcefully, Louis XVI was forced to dismiss Turgot in 1776.



Fig. 14.1 *King Louis XVI*

Source: *http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:LouisXVI-France1.jpg*

Turgot's successors also tried various reforms. However, most of them were directed towards preventing bankruptcy rather than reforming the society. A banker businessman Jacques Necker was another finance minister during Louis XVI's reign. Necker published the first account of the royal treasury, i.e., the *Compte Rendu* which exposed the extravagances of the Queen Marie Antoinette and her friends. Antoinette was the daughter of Queen Maria Theresa of Austria and was looked upon by the people of France as a foreigner who sympathised with France's enemies. Her reputation of extravagance, along with the gossip that surrounded her, played a role in making the French people disillusioned of the monarchy in France.

NOTES

On the complaints of the Queen's friends, Necker was dismissed as finance minister and was replaced by Charles Alexandre de Calonne. Calonne, unlike Turgot and Necker, restored the lavish spending of the French aristocracy.

The financial bankruptcy that France saw facing was the spark that ignited the fire of the revolution. Facing financial bankruptcy, foreign bankers refused to lend more money to the crown. Matters turned to worse when the Parlement of Paris, a judicial body, defied the monarch and refused to enforce new taxes. In 1788, Louis XVI, as a last resort, called a meeting of the Estates-General. The last meeting of the Estates-General had taken place in 1614. The representatives of the Estates met at Versailles early in May 1789. However, the representatives could not reach any agreement. During the meeting, the representatives of the Third Estate felt that the other two estates were only interested in talking about taxes, while they wanted discussions on representations and how the Estates would operate. After several weeks, the representatives of the Third Estate gave up and decided to form the National Assembly. This signaled the start of the French Revolution.

14.3.2 Course of the Revolution

The various stages of the cause of the revolution were as follows:

Revolution and the Work of the National Assembly (1789-1791)

- **Oath of the Tennis Court:** On 17 June 1789, the representatives of the Third Estate proclaimed a National Assembly and invited the representatives of other estates to join in the work of national reform. The King, under the influence of his courtiers, resolved to dictate the reforms that were to be introduced. When the members of the National Assembly met on 20 June, they found the hall where they had met before had been closed by the King. Thus, they proceeded to the tennis court and took the oath to 'never to separate and to meet wherever circumstances demand, until the constitution of the kingdom is established and affirmed on solid foundations'. This is known as the Oath of the Tennis Court and is regarded as the beginning of the French Revolution. It marked the first time that French citizens had stood up to the King. After they refused to back down, the King gave in and ordered the sitting of the Three Estates together and vote by head as members of the Constituent Assembly. However, at the same time, troops moved into Paris and Versailles indicating that the King was preparing to use force. When the Assembly requested the removal of troops, the King refused, stating that the troops were deployed as a precautionary measure. Public outrage at the King for calling troops resulted in the storming of the Bastille.

NOTES



Fig. 14.2 *The Tennis Court Oath*

Source: *http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Anonymous_-_Prise_de_la_Bastille.jpg*

- **Storming of the Bastille:** The Bastille, a fortress at the heart of Paris, was regarded as the symbol of Bourbon despotism. Its storming by the people of Paris is regarded by many historians as the beginning of the French Revolution. On 11 July, with troops in Paris and Versailles, the King dismissed his finance minister Jacques Necker who was sympathetic to the Third Estate. Parisians, fearing that Necker's dismissal marked the beginning of some sort of conservative coup, began to riot. The rioting mob in search for arms stormed the Bastille on 14th July 1789. The fall of the Bastille was a clear indication that the masses were with the National Assembly and not with the King. As a result, the Louis XVI backed down. He recalled Necker and agreed to dismiss the extra troops. The King made the instigator of the Oath of the Tennis Court the mayor of a new government in Paris called the *Commune de Paris.* He also gave full recognition to the national assembly and confirmed the appointment of the Marquis de La Fayette, one of the outstanding champions of constitutional monarchy, as Commander of the National Guard.

NOTES

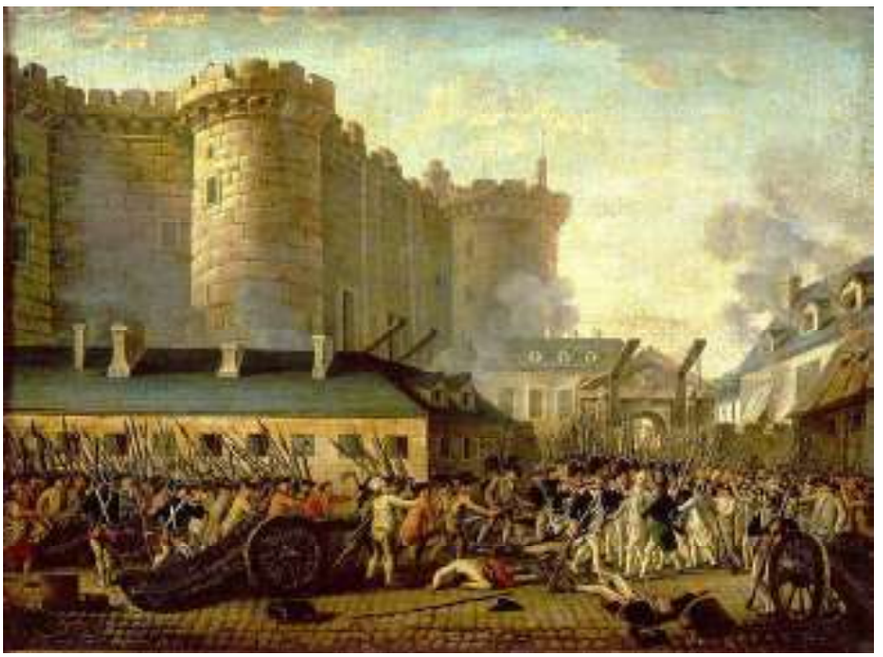


Fig. 14.3 *The Storming of the Bastille*

Source: *http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Anonymous_-_Prise_de_la_Bastille.jpg*

- **Working of National Assembly:** On 4 August 1789, feudalism was abolished by the National Assembly. The assembly also abolished the special privileges given to the members of the first and the second estate. On 26 August, the Assembly published the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen*. The declaration is still considered as being one of the most important documents of human rights. *The Declaration* opened by affirming 'the natural and imprescriptible rights of man' to 'liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression'. It also called for the destruction of aristocratic privileges by proclaiming an end to exemptions from taxation, freedom and equal rights for all men, and access to public office based on talent. According to the declaration, the power of the monarchy was restricted, and all citizens were to have the right to take part in the legislative process. *The Declaration* also asserted the principles of popular sovereignty and social equality among citizens by stating that, 'All the citizens, being equal in the eyes of the law, are equally admissible to all public dignities, places, and employments, according to their capacity and without distinction other than that of their virtues and of their talents'. The National Assembly also took on the task of drafting a new constitution for France. After a long series of negotiations, Louis XVI reluctantly agreed to a new constitution in 1791. The constitution of 1791 gave the National Assembly the power to make laws.

NOTES

France Becomes a Republic

The turmoil during the revolutionary war brought losses and economic difficulties to the people of France. Large sections of the population were convinced that the revolution had to be carried further as the Constitution of 1791 gave political rights only to the richer sections of the society. Political clubs became an important rallying point for people who wished to discuss government policies and plan their own reforms. The most successful of all these clubs was that of the Jacobins. The leader of the Jacobins was Maximilian Robespierre. On August 10, 1792, radicals led by the Jacobins massacred the Swiss guards who protected the King and his family. Louis XVI and his family were taken prisoner. The Jacobins supplanted the legal community with the revolutionary commune. An executive council was created to replace the King and his ministers. The National Convention, which was comprised of the constitutional and legislative assembly, abolished the monarchy and declared France a republic on September 22, 1792.

- **Reign of Terror:** The period from 1793 to 1794 is referred to as the 'Reign Of Terror' in France. During the two years an estimated 40,000 people were executed after being accused of counter-revolutionary activities. The National Convention in April 1793 had created the Committee of Public Safety, which acted as the de facto executive. The Committee of Public Safety came under the control of the leader of the Jacobins, Robespierre. Robespierre followed a policy of severe punishment for all those who were assumed or were seen as enemies of the Republic, i.e., ex-nobles clergy, members of other political parties, etc. Among the people executed during the reign of terror were the former monarch Louis XVI and his wife Marie Antoinette. Even members of Robespierre's own party who did not agree to his ideas were arrested and tried by the revolutionary tribunal. The Reign of Terror unleashed by Robespierre made even the supporters of the Jacobins disillusioned. Finally, in July 1794, Robespierre was arrested and eventually executed by guillotine.
- **Directory:** After the excesses committed by Robespierre and his eventual execution, the new government drafted a new constitution. The new constitution limited the suffrage based on property, unlike the constitution of 1793 which had proclaimed universal male suffrage. The constitution of 1795 created a bicameral legislature made up of a Council of Elders and a Council of the Five Hundred. Executive power went to five 'directors'. Many of the directors were known to be extremely corrupt and did little to make the life of the average French citizen better. Extremely unpopular with the people, the directors lasted only for less than four years (1795-1799). The political instability in France after the revolution eventually resulted in the army, under the leadership of the popular general Napoleon Bonaparte, to stage a coup to overthrow the French Directory. Bonaparte replaced the French Directory with the French Consulate, with himself as the head. The

coup by Napoleon effectively marked the end of the revolution and the beginning of the Napoleonic era.

NOTES

14.4 RESULTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The influence of the French Revolution was felt all through the Western world. Almost 2,000,000 army men were killed in the wars of the French Revolution.

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

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

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

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

Politically, the Revolution was more important than successful. Since 1789, the French government has been either parliamentary, or constitutional, or based on the plebiscitary system that Napoleon inherited and developed. However, between 1789 and 1799, democracy failed. Recurrent elections bred apathy, and

NOTES

filling offices by recommendation became everyday event, even before Napoleon made it organized. The Jacobins' fraternal and Jacobin controlled community ended in 1794, the direct democracy of the sansculottes was squashed in 1795, and the republic expired in 1804; however, as principles they carried on to motivate French politics and keep right and left, church and state, far at a distance.

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

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

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

Check Your Progress

3. What did the Second Estate in France consist of?
4. Name the event which is regarded as the beginning of the French Revolution.
5. What was regarded as the symbol of Bourbon despotism?
6. Which legislature did the constitution of 1793 create?

14.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

NOTES

1. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) resolved the War of Austrian Succession.
2. Joseph II's grave is situated at the Imperial Crypt in Vienna and its epitaph reads some of his last words: 'Here lies Joseph II, who failed in all he undertook.'
3. The Second Estate in France consisted of the French nobility.
4. The Oath of the Tennis Court is regarded as the beginning of the French Revolution.
5. The Bastille, a fortress at the heart of Paris, was regarded as the symbol of Bourbon despotism.
6. The constitution of 1795 created a bicameral legislature made up of a Council of Elders and a Council of the Five Hundred.

14.6 SUMMARY

- The global conflict that took place between 1756-1763 has been referred to as the Seven Years' War. The conflict had enveloped all major powers of that era and it stretched up to five continents, the effects of the wars were felt in not only Europe but also the Americas, West Africa, India, and the Philippines.
- Joseph was a supporter of enlightened absolutism; but, his reforms attempted for modernizing eventually made him the target of severe opposition and because of these oppositions his reforms could not be successfully implemented.
- The French Revolution of 1789 brought forth issues that European society was to debate throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries. Indeed, the chief causes of the French revolution were also prevalent in other European societies.
- European society in the 18th century was dominated by various aristocratic houses. France was ruled by Louis XVI, Spain by Charles III, Russia by Catherine the Great, etc. Even the Parliament of Great Britain greatly depended on the patronage of the English nobility and its monarch George III.
- These monarchs owned the majority of the land where common citizens worked for their livelihood. People had no power to influence how the aristocracy in these nations functioned. Many of them were considered serfs who did not have any individual rights granted to them. This resulted in the general public in Europe being strongly resentful towards the aristocracy.

NOTES

- According to many historians, the revolution of 1789 was much less a rebellion against despotism than a rebellion against inequality. The socio-economic inequality that prevailed in France ultimately paved the way for the unrest that gradually usurped Louis XVI's regime of its status.
- French society at that time was divided into the haves and the have nots. The haves consisted of the clergy and the nobility whose total strength was about one percent of the population. While the haves enjoyed all privileges, the other 99 per cent of the population suffered misery and exploitation.
- The division of society in France in the 18th century was based on the social hierarchy that was conceived in the Middle Ages called the 'estate of the realms.' This social hierarchy divided French society along three estates.
- The First Estate consisted of the entire clergy, the Second Estate was made up of the nobility, aside from the monarch who was outside the system of estates. The Third Estate consisted of all those who were not members of the first or second estate.
- The member of the first two estates enjoyed certain privileges by birth. The most important of these was that they were exempted from paying taxes to the state. The aristocracy also enjoyed feudal privileges. These included feudal dues, which they extracted from the peasants.
- The peasants were obliged to render services to the feudal lord to work in his house and fields to serve in the army or to participate in building roads.
- The members of the third estate were expected to pay taxes like *taille* or land tax, *vingtieme* or income tax, the *gabelle* or the salt tax and the *corvee* or the road tax. Estimates suggest that after paying all the taxes, a French peasant was left with only about 20 per cent of his total produce.
- Like the peasants, the bourgeoisie or the middle class also belonged to the Third Estate of French society. The bourgeois class consisted of professors, lawyers, physicians, bankers and merchants.
- Being educated, the bourgeoisie believed that no group should be privileged by birth. Influenced by works of philosophers like John Locke's *Two Treaties of Government* and Jean Jacques Rousseau's *The Social Contract*, the bourgeois dreamed of a society based on freedom and equal laws and opportunity for all. It was the social awakening of the bourgeois class that gave shape to the ideas of the French Revolution.
- Two important causes of the French Revolution of 1789 were the absolute concentration of power that the French monarch held and the inability of French rulers who followed the reign of Louis XIV (1643-1715).
- Louis XVI became the King of France in 1774. At the beginning there was high expectation from Louis XVI because Anne Robert Jacques Turgot, a friend of Voltaire and contributor to the Encyclopaedic was appointed the Minister of Finance and Comptroller-General under Louis XIV. Louis XVI

NOTES

tried his best to give France a fresh start after it had grown weary under the reign of his predecessor. Following Enlightenment ideals, Louis XVI abolished torture, serfdom, the land tax, and actively participated in America's struggle to gain independence from Britain.

- However, these measures were opposed vociferously by the clergy and the nobility. Faced by a hostile aristocracy, and failing to impose his will forcefully, Louis XVI was forced to dismiss Turgot in 1776.
- The financial bankruptcy that France was facing was the spark that ignited the fire of the revolution. Facing financial bankruptcy, foreign bankers refused to lend more money to the crown. Matters worsened when the Parlement of Paris, a judicial body, defied the monarch and refused to enforce new taxes. In 1788 Louis XVI, as a last resort, called a meeting of the Estates-General.
- The representatives of the Estates met at Versailles early in May 1789. However, the representatives could not reach any agreement. During the meeting, the representatives of the Third Estate felt that the other two estates were only interested in talking about taxes, while they wanted discussions on representations and how the Estates would operate. After several weeks, the representatives of the Third Estate gave up and decided to form the National Assembly. This signalled the start of the French Revolution.
- On 17 June, 1789, the representatives of the Third Estate proclaimed a National Assembly and invited the representatives of other estates to join in the work of national reform. The king, under the influence of his courtiers, resolved to dictate the reforms that were to be introduced. When the members of the National Assembly met on 20 June, they found the hall where they had met before had been closed by the king. Thus, they proceeded to the tennis court and took the oath to 'never to separate and to meet wherever circumstances demand, until the constitution of the kingdom is established and affirmed on solid foundations'.
- On 11 July, with troops in Paris and Versailles, the King dismissed his finance minister Jacques Necker who was sympathetic to the Third Estate. Parisians, fearing that Necker's dismissal marked the beginning of some sort of conservative coup, began to riot. The rioting mob in search for arms stormed the Bastille on 14 July 1789. The fall of the Bastille was a clear indication that the masses were with the National Assembly and not with the king. As a result, the king backed down. Louis XVI recalled Necker and agreed to dismiss the extra troops.
- The period from 1793 to 1794 is referred to as the 'Reign of Terror' in France. During the two years an estimated 40,000 people were executed after being accused of counter-revolutionary activities. The National Convention in April 1793 had created the Committee of Public Safety,

which acted as the de facto executive. The Committee of Public Safety came under the control of the leader of the Jacobins, Robespierre. Robespierre followed a policy of severe punishment for all those who were assumed or were seen as enemies of the Republic, i.e., ex-nobles clergy, members of other political parties, etc. Among the people executed during the reign of terror were the former monarch Louis XVI and his wife Marie Antoinette.

- The most significant impact of the Revolution was that the nobility was replaced by the bourgeoisie as the dominant political class.

14.7 KEY WORDS

- **Divine Right of Kings:** It is a political and religious doctrine that seeks to legitimize the rule of autocratic monarchs. It states that a monarch is not bound to any authority on earth as he has been given the right to rule by God.
- **Parlement of Paris:** The *Parlement of Paris* was a legislative and judicial body established in the middle ages in France. It had the right of deliberation and consultation. Judicial functions were added later on.
- **Jacobins:** It refers to the influential political grouping during the French Revolution. They became notorious for the excesses that they committed during the reign of terror after the revolution.
- **Megalomaniac:** It refers to a pathological egotist who revels in fantasies of wealth, power and grandeur.
- **Bourgeoisie:** It means the middle class and their typical attitudes and perception of materialistic values.

14.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short essay on the social causes of the French revolution.
2. What were the political events that led to the French Revolution?
3. Discuss the consequences of the French revolution.
4. What are the legal reforms undertaken by Joseph II.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Describe the reasons for the Seven Years War.
2. Examine the various reforms undertaken by Joseph II.

NOTES

3. Describe the socio-economic and political conditions in Europe on the eve of the French Revolution.
4. The French Revolution is also referred to as the Bourgeois Revolution. Discuss.

14.9 FURTHER READINGS

Rao, B.V. 2018. *History of Europe*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt Limited.

Merriman, John. 2009. *A History of Modern Europe: From the Renaissance to the Present*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Elton, G. R. 1999. *Reformation Europe 1517-1559, 2nd (ed.).* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hilton, R. (ed.). 1978. *The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism*. London: Verso.

Kierman, V. G. 1980. *State and Society in Europe 1550-1650*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Pennington, D. H. 1989. *Europe in the Seventeenth Century, 2nd (ed.)*. Longman Publishing Group.

Phukan, Meenaxi. 2000. *Rise of Modern West*. India: Macmillan Publishers India Limited.

B.A. [History]
108 24
HISTORY OF EUROPE
(FROM 1453 TO 1789 A.D.)

II - Semester



ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY

[Accredited with 'A+' Grade by NAAC (CGPA:3.64) in the Third Cycle and Graded as Category–I University by MHRD-UGC]

KARAIKUDI – 630 003

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

ISBN 978-93-5338-425-8