

# MODERN WORLD

(An Outline of World History and Civilisation)

## Book I

*By*

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To  
My Mother

## PREFACE

The scope of a history of Modern World is very extensive and the subject matter is not as simple as the chronological history of one country. One has to make a swift survey of progress of political, social and economic history of different parts of the civilised World which is sometimes apparently unconnected and only the period to be studied has been delimited to the modern times. It requires, therefore, some strenuous efforts to make the broad approach so as to connect the different events specified and understand the significance, specially, on the part of an undergraduate student who has little or no knowledge about the broad outline of the social, political and cultural history of the leading nations of to-day. Very few students who have inquisitive mind and broad reading habit can have the rudiments of information and knowledge required to absorb and understand the history of modern civilised World. It is true that at the undergraduate stage, historical knowledge will be mainly informative, events and biographies of great personalities being elaborately told in the form of stories with broad indications of their antecedents and significance to fit them in the general frame work of the world history.

Effort has been made to keep all the above facts in mind in writing the present book which will be followed by another where the story will be carried on upto the recent times. The present book is a small one which the author hopes will find favour with students and with teachers as well for quick reference. The author has tried to make the book useful by including maps, chronological table and University questions in the appendices. A list of authoritative books with specialised treatment of the different topics of the World History in the modern times has also been included in the appendices to acquaint the students with the names of the works of great writers and arouse their interest by enabling them at least to

have a glimpse of the broader and fuller treatment of the topics which they study. Dr. K. K. Datta, a renowned historian and our Vice-Chancellor has so aptly pointed out in his address to the Summer School (1965), Department of History, Patna University, that the students are to be "acquainted with good literature of History" and are never to be "allowed to think that their duty is over by simply stocking some intelligently crammed matter in their immature brains."

The author desires to express her indebtedness to her colleagues and friends for their valuable assistance in the preparation of the book and offers her sincere thanks to them. In this connection Mrs. A. Bose, M. A. Head of the Department of Economics, Magadh Mahila College, Mrs. R. Devi, M. A., Lecturer in History, Patna Womens' College and till recently a colleague of the author and Prof. A. Das Gupta, M. A., Department of English, Patna College deserve special mention. Prof. Das Gupta has given his valuable time freely in reading the manuscript and also the proofs, without which the book could not have been published.

J. B.

Magadh Mahila College,  
Patna University, Patna,  
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## CHAPTER I

### The Advent of Modern Age

Three great events

The fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries saw many changes, which bore fruits of far-reaching consequences in the future course of history. It witnessed some great movements that changed man's outlook on life, enlarged the physical bounds of the world, and largely contributed to the extension of knowledge. Of the many forces that contributed to the transformation of the old social orders, three were of remarkable importance—the Renaissance, the geographical discoveries and scientific inventions and the Reformation. These were the three great events, which have been accepted by scholars in general as heralding the advent of the Modern Times.

A period of transition

Though the historians are in general agreement that it is not possible to draw a definite line of demarcation between one social order and another, still most of them have agreed to acknowledge the above three momentous events which brought remarkable changes in the existing state of affairs as marking a period of transition from the Medieval to the so-called Modern Times.

There is no doubt that the social, political and religious changes in all directions were the outcome of the above three great factors. There were other signs, too, that gave clear indications of the dawn of a new age. In the beginning of the sixteenth century, particularly, conditions characterised as medieval were fast disappearing and much that could be defined as modern were making gradual appearance. The changes, however, were not brought about quickly, but a long period, covering centuries when both the new and old existed side by side. This period of slow process of

has been defined as a period of transition. It was a period of decay as well as of seed time. The passing of the Medieval age was indicated by the decay of its age-long institutions, the most important of which were the Feudalism, the Crusade and the Authoritarianism of the Church.

The effect of the Crusades

The close of the thirteenth century saw the end of the Crusades or the Holy Wars undertaken to keep the infidel Turks out of the Holy lands. The failure of the crusaders produced one salutary effect. Those who returned from it had contact with a broader intellectual horizon, and when back to their own country were no longer satisfied with the dreary life of an isolated community.

Another important effect produced was the growth of commerce. The materialistically-minded crusaders came in contact with the heathens for merchandise. Commerce thus followed the trail of the crusaders. Silk, sugar, spices, new plants and fruits, cotton, muslin, drugs and precious stones found their place in the Western markets.

The intercourse with the Easterners not only contributed to the material prosperity, but side by side went on an exchange of ideas too. The scientific works of Aristotle, Arabic numericals, Algebra, the Mariner's Compass, paper and printing press were brought to the Western world by the crusaders.

The effects of the exchange of thought were not welcomed by the Church. These effects tended to weaken the hold of the Church on the minds of men. The intellectuals of that time, however, by their contact with the realities of another civilisation, came to doubt the value attached to the Church so long. Doubt also was raised that the Church and Christianity embodied all that is worthwhile in life. It lessened, therefore, theocratic power of the Church, over the intellectual life of the people. Introduction of new ideas which were to tear down old orders and to announce the advent of a new age was

The fundamental unity of history can never be denied. The ever-flowing stream of events brings the heritage of the past to the present and carries the legacies of the present to the future, thus merging the past closely into the present and the present into the future, making it impossible to draw any sharp dividing line between them. The division of history into three well-known periods of ancient, medieval and modern is artificial and arbitrary. No particular date can be fixed to distinguish one age from the other. But for the convenience of study, the scholars have drawn some artificial lines of demarcation by selecting certain epoch-making events as land-marks that produced startling developments to ruffle the smooth course of history and direct it into new channels.

Influence of the Renaissance      The Renaissance or the rebirth of learning was one of such momentous events that gave to Europe a new birth. The Europe that emerged out of it was not "a copy of the old one but entirely a new thing or at least an old thing with an entirely new covering on it." The intellectual changes manifested a spirit to understand the past as well as the present in a new way. This inquisitiveness so necessary for intellectual progress was heightened by the crusaders in their intercourse with the East and also by the explorers who in course of their explorations came in contact with the new world and new ideas.

The works of the great men like Aristotle, Virgil, Seneca, though never neglected, were now studied with a new interest changing the medieval attitude of the utilitarianism into genuine interest and enjoyment. The Renaissance not only changed the intellectual life but also the economic and political life of men. The simple agricultural ways of life were changed into a complicated industrial life. Feudalism was already out of date and the shameless exploitation of the peasantry was over. A new social relationship with a new political consciousness manifested itself with the decay of Papacy and the Holy Roman Empire. Nationalism came into prominence. Men were in the process of making fundamental changes in his

attitude towards themselves and the world in which they lived. This change in the outlook on life is commonly called Humanism. The effects of humanism were felt at once in art, sculpture, architecture, music, literature and science as the result of which the western civilisation was changed from the medieval to modern.

Geographical  
discoveries

The explorations of distant lands that followed shortly after the crusaders produced tremendous changes in the mental outlook of men. The prospect of new and lucrative markets along with the crusading zeal led to the discovery of new lands across the unknown seas. The Mediterranean world was no longer sufficient to appease the adventurous spirit and the hunger for land. Sailors, therefore, turned their ships both to the West and to the East—to America and to the Far East. The voyages of explorations thus changed the civilisation from an inland sea stage to an oceanic stage.

Trade gave a strong impetus to travel, no doubt, but the venturesome spirit of the age was of more importance than mere commercial interests. There were people thirsty for a wider knowledge of the world and of mankind and they got inspiration from the writings of the early adventurer like Marco Polo, and set sailing to discover new lands. To this adventurous spirit of the age was added missionary zeal. The eagerness of the missionaries to carry the Christian message to foreign lands bore effective results in furthering geographical discoveries. Merchants and missionaries followed in the wake of the explorers and travelled distant lands together, going to the uttermost part of the world, though with different motives, but both reaping a good harvest.

The direct contact of Europe with Asia began as early as the thirteenth century. Some prominent Christians went to the court of the Great Khan in Mongolia with the hope of spreading the new faith to his land. They, however, failed to achieve their purposes. Two merchants of Venice, the Polo brothers, went to China in 1260 and also to the court of

Kublai Khan, the Emperor. They were warmly welcomed. They came back to Europe in 1269 by way of Persia and Armenia. In their second trip, they took young Marco Polo, the son of the one and the nephew of the other, with them. This celebrated traveller of the Middle Ages remained in China for seventeen years, learning its language and serving the Great Khan. He left China in 1292 discovering several trading centres on his way including Spice Islands and the Southern part of India. Sailing through the Persian Gulf, he finally arrived at Venice in 1295. Marco Polo wrote a book on his travels, which inspired his fellow travellers of the succeeding ages. The hope of converting Easterners to Christianity was not fulfilled of course, but all was not lost to Europe. The memories of Cathay, as China was called at that time, and of the Indies still survived and whetted the ambition of the succeeding generations. Travel by the old routes was no longer safe after the fall of Constantinople. Attempts were, therefore, made to discover new routes to the East. Even when the route was open, the eastern commerce was the monopoly of the cities of Genoa and Venice which they guarded jealously, shutting out the other Europeans from the lucrative trade of the East. The other European Nations, therefore, tried to find out a non-Mediterranean Sea-route to the East and particularly to India. The credit of finding out such a route belongs to Portugal. The Portuguese under the patronage of the royal family, particularly of Prince Henry, commonly styled the Navigator, succeeded in conquering the sea and winning a share in the world trade.

Portugal, therefore, ranked foremost amongst the pioneers of discovery and explorations. Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese navigator, went round the southern most tip of Africa known as the Cape of Good Hope, in 1487. This route was followed by Vasco da Gama ten years afterwards in 1497. Sailing from Portugal Vasco da Gama, reached Calicut in 1498 by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The long-sought-for sea route to India was thus discovered.

The Portuguese thus won the race to reach India. While they were trying to go to the East, the Spaniards were trying to go to the West. Christopher Columbus, a poor Genoese adventurer was so much impressed by the writings of Marco Pólo that he conceived the bold plan of going to China and to India. Believing that the World is round, he planned for a westward voyage across the Atlantic, little thinking of the perils that were in store for him. He appealed to Portugal for help for his intended voyage, but was refused. But the help which Portugal refused, came from the king and the queen of Spain. The perilous voyage of sixtynine days across the unknown ocean, could not have been possible without the help of Ferdinand and Isabella, the king and the queen of Spain. The land that he discovered was America, though he knew it to be India upto the last. This discovery excited Europe very much, particularly Spain and Portugal. Two rival dominions were set up by both in this new land. The other adventurers that followed Columbus, were the Cabots. John Cabot and Sebastian Cabot, both from Genoa, crossed the Atlantic under the patronage of England. They went to the court of the Great Khan, and also made a voyage to North America in 1498. This voyage gave England her first claim to the mainland of North America.

Brazil was discovered by Cabral and it became a Portuguese dependency. Amerigo Vesputchi, a Florentine navigator made several voyages to the New World. He was the first to find out the mistake of Columbus and to recognise that country as a new continent. Since then, this new country came to be known as America after his name.

In the earlier part of the sixteenth century, Magellan traversed the vast Pacific Ocean. He went round Africa and came back to Europe, the first voyage round the world and making, consequently, the greatest in history.

It was an age when geography was freed from the dominance of theology. Actual knowledge of the map of the world was obtained and the accuracy in that map was made possible. Not only Portugal and Spain, but England, Holland and

France too joined in this enterprise for a share in the lucrative trade of India. Travel to America and Asia had become well established by the end of the sixteenth century. The new age was also characterised by its scientific inventions. Remarkable progress was made in this field with the relaxation of the restrictions of the Church. The old superstitions had to give way to the scientific spirit of the age. Many causes contributed to the scientific progress of the period. The Renaissance and the Reformation, by relaxing the hold of the Church on the mind of men and introducing the humanism and individualism paved the way for scientific work. The voyages of discovery and explorations, too, facilitated the study of science.

Scientific inventions

A brief review of the progress made in this field would reveal the changes in the attitude of the sixteenth century writers, philosophers and scientists. There was a new faith and a new scientific spirit that distinguished the age from the medieval when the people accepted things without questions. The scientists of the sixteenth century made an effective protest against it. Philosophers like Francis Bacon and Descartes raised the question and contributed to the idea of doubt and thus heralded the age of science. Geographical knowledge enhanced the knowledge of astronomy—Kepler, Copernicus and Galileo, all extending this science by their valuable contributions. The movement of the celestial bodies was studied and the Law of Gravitation was formulated. Newton, the discoverer of this law, reduced the scientific inference concerning the law to a formula. Halley predicted the appearance of a comet that bears his name. The new astronomical knowledge necessitated the reform of the calendar. The old Julian calendar was replaced by the so-called Gregorian. Considerable progress was made in chemistry and medicine. The blood circulations—from the heart to the arteries and thence to the veins and back to the heart—discovered by William Harvey, made remarkable improvement in the science of medicine. Mathematics which

was too much in demand in this age received a rich heritage from the East. Substantial progress was made in this field too by the sixteenth century scientists. Utilitarian motive led to the development of physics and mechanics. Knowledge ceased to be the monopoly of the clergy and became the common possession. This, in course of time, led to numerous inventions, such as the gun-powder, which by revolutionising the art of warfare, gave a death blow to the feudal system and consequently to the feudal society. The invention of Mariner's Compass helped the navigation of the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries. The effect of the invention of printing widened man's knowledge by making the Bible and school books available at a cheaper rate. Without the paper and the printing press, the idea of the Renaissance could not spread out. No single event did more to popularise it than did the invention of printing.

**Importance of the Reformation** The role of Reformation or the Protestant Revolt against the Roman Church was no less important in breaking down the domination of the old System than the Renaissance. The concept of unity attacked by Humanism gave rise to the national states, thus shattering the medieval concept of universal state. The monopolistic power of the universal church was broken in its wake. Though the relation between the two great movements is curious and contradictory—but so far the break-down of the old System is concerned, they acted in unison. The pre-Reformation reformers Wycliffe, Savonarola and John Huss failed to achieve the goal. The movement started by Martin Luther in 1517 led men to revolt successfully against the traditional dogmas of the Roman Church which resulted in severing the Church into two. The Reformation brought about such changes in the civilisation that it ceased to be medieval any longer. The Reformation and the Counter-Reformation, the one by breaking down the authority of the Pope, and the other by reforming the Church from within, made it fit for the modern World. Progress was made in the education by the reformers.

Nationalism was also encouraged. The impediments on the way of their growth were removed, and this ultimately helped to build the edifice of the modern world on the foundations of the old.

## CHAPTER II

### The Renaissance

#### *Meaning of the Renaissance :*

The Renaissance or the intellectual awakening was one of the three great events that heralded the advent of the modern age. This intellectual revolution brought about by the movement known as the "Classical Revival", started from the thirteenth century, when scholars began to show an interest in the study of the old classics. This interest in old classics led to the revival of the long forgotten Greco-Roman culture of antiquity, thus revealing to men a buried world, rich in all forms of ancient excellence and containing seeds of scientific thought and reasoning without which the age of science which was to come, would have taken a longer time to arrive.

The term Renaissance includes all the intellectual changes evident at the close of the middle age and at the beginning of the modern times. From this point of view it signifies not only the changes found in art and literature but also the all round changes in the economic and political life of a man. Up to the 13th century, the classical languages, literature, and art were kept in subordinate place fettered by the religious authorities as means for other ends concerned with the church. From the 14th century onwards, a new interest was taken in them recognising their long neglected values. The ancient writings were studied with veneration, turning back man's mind to revere antiquity, glorifying the distant past and thus leading to the "discovery of the world and of man." Though the period between the 14th and the 17th centuries had been characterised for the re-discovery of the Greco-Roman world, never did the European scholars, even in the Dark Ages, lose contact with "the glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome." From the 14th century onwards a new

interest was taken in the study of the masterpieces of ancient Latin and Greek literature which ultimately liberalised men's mind and gave them a new outlook on life, substituting a critical spirit of enquiry for the medieval ideal of implicit obedience to authority.

This rebirth of learning fostered the growth of an individual spirit awakening men's curiosity and replacing the medieval ideal of self-repression by the modern spirit of vigorous assertion of individuality. The Renaissance, therefore, signifies the rebirth of the freedom-loving adventurous spirit of man from the bondage of the medieval clerical authority and in this sense this movement has been aptly defined by Symonds as a "movement by which the nations of the Western Europe passed from the medieval to modern modes of thought and life."

#### *Causes of the Renaissance :*

The forces that put the Renaissance into operation were "many and complex." Scholars like Roger Bacon, St. Francis of Assisi, Dante,—the living spirits of the new era—lived in the 13th century. Their works served as a back-ground for the Renaissance proper. The foot steps of the great pioneers, of the 14th century—Petrarch (1304—1374) and Boccaccio were followed by the most of the scholars in the next century in Western Europe.

#### *(1) The Fall of Constantinople :*

The fall of Constantinople was a great event that shook Europe. The 1000 year-old Greek Empire of the East finally came to an end. From the beginning of the 15th century, the Greek scholars from the East were compelled to flee to Italy due to the Turkish pressure upon the Byzantine Empire. The date of the fall of Constantinople is the great date in history. The fall of Constantinople in 1453 is believed to end an era and mark the beginning of a new one. The Greek scholars who came from the East brought with them the treasures of the ancient Greece. The capture of Constantinople which so long was the centre of the Greek learning, forced the

Greek scholars to leave the country and to take refuge in Italy. When settled, they started giving lectures on Homer and other ancient poets and scholars, founded schools and rediscovered the long forgotten writings of Tacitus, Cicero and others. The presence of Greek scholars from the East thus gave a strong impetus to the study of the long-lost or long-forgotten ancient writings and thus in course of time classical study became a profession of the scholars and the fad of the princes. The attitude of the clergy towards the "new learning" was not at first encouraging but soon the misgiving and the opposition gave way to warm welcome and appreciation. The Classical Revival reached the climax at the beginning of the 16th century under the patronage of Pope Leo X. Italy, just in the days of Pericles, became once more the "School of Hellas" producing not only numerous scholars and teachers but also masterpieces in art, architecture and literature. Thus, the fall of Constantinople, just like a watershed, let loose forces which not only overflowed Italy, but also the Western Europe with new ideas that heralded the dawn of the modern age, as aptly remarked by LORD ACTON that the modern history began "under the stress of the Ottoman conquest."

(2) *Influence of the Crusade :*

The consequences of the fall of Constantinople on the renewed study of the culture of the buried world were indeed great. But there were other factors too that turned men's mind to the new modes of thought and life. As H. G. Wells points out : "The suppression of private wars, the higher standard of comfort and security that followed the crusades and the stimulation of men's mind by the experiences of these expeditions were no doubt necessary preliminary conditions" in changing the mental outlook of men.

(3) *Revival of Trade*

The peace and order were followed by a remarkable development in trade. Restoration of old trade routes and the discovery of new ones were the outcome of the adventurous spirit of men. The voyages of discovery gave an outward

expression of the new pulsation of life that they were feeling as the direct effect of the Renaissance which liberated their mind from the cramping influence of the medieval Church. Thus, they began to seek new routes to the East and this search led incidentally to the discovery of the New World, bringing into prominence, not only a lucrative trade but also a new social force in the growth of a strong middle class.

(4) *Growth of Cities :*

Growth of cities was a natural-consequence of the growth of trade. Thus in the 13th and the 14th centuries, a number of independent and quasi-independent cities like Venice, Florence, Genoa, Lisbon, Paris, London, Antwerp, Hamburg grew up and flourished. These cities were not only business centres but were also the centres for exchange of thought, not connected with trade, where people came together and talked of "the polemics of the popes and princes, the conspicuous savagery and wickedness of the persecution of heretics", expressing doubt about the authority of the Church and questioning and discussing other fundamental things. The contact of the West with the East not only enriched Europe materially but also contributed to her intellectual progress.

(5) *Contact with the East :*

H. G. Wells has rightly observed that "the Arabs were the means of restoring Aristotle to Europe" and that "Frederick II acted as a channel through which Arabian philosophy and science played upon the renascent European mind." The contact with the Jews, too, produced important effect on the mind of the westerners as their very existence was a "note of interrogation to the claims of the Church." The stir that was produced was not confined to the mind of the educated few but it affected the mind of the common man too, establishing a direct contact between "the conscience of the individual man and the God of Righteousness," in spite of the persecution of the reactionary Church.

*(6) Intellectual Cause :*

From the 11th century, great universities grew up at Paris, Oxford, Bologna and at other centres which became the centre of philosophical discussion. Amongst the medieval schoolmen, Roger Bacon stood foremost. Just like a beacon enlightening the dark ocean of ignorance, he continued his attack upon the ignorance of his time against the dogmas and the authorities, denouncing the four chief sources of ignorance, "viz, respect for authority, custom, the sense of the ignorant crowd and the vain proud unteachableness of our dispositions." Three centuries, however, elapsed before the full extent of his knowledge was fully realised by men.

*(7) Paper and Printing Press :*

The indebtedness of the Christendom to the Saracenic world can hardly be overestimated. Not only it gave incentive to the Western philosophers and scientists, but it gave paper and art of printing to the Westerners without which intellectual revolution could not have been possible. The art of paper making originating in China entered into Europe in the 9th century through the Arab paper manufacturers. Good papers, however, were not available before the end of the 13th century in Europe. Printing of books, for all practical purposes, was made possible not until the end of the 14th century. The immediate effect of the use of paper and of the printing press was the rapid spread of knowledge. Knowledge was no longer confined to the educated few. It spread among the common people by the availability of books at a cheaper rate written in vernacular so as to be understood by ordinary men.

*(8) Importance of the Mongol Conquests :*

The importance of the Mongol conquests was not less than the contribution of the Saracenic world to the revival of learning. The barriers between the East and the West was lowered under the Great Khan and representatives from every

nation who appeared at his court. One of such visitors was Marco Polo whose travel accounts produced such a profound effect on the future generation that two centuries later an explorer like Christopher Columbus, conceived the bold plan of sailing westward round the world to China and discovered incidentally an unknown world, the West Indies in course of the voyage. The success of Columbus, however, became a source of inspiration and distant voyages were undertaken throughout the following centuries.

From the 13th to the 17th century the process of breaking with the Latin tradition went on unceasingly and at the end of the 17th Century the breach was complete.

### *Effects of the Renaissance :*

#### *(1) The Dawn of the Modern Age :*

The Renaissance produced deep impression on the minds of men. It widened men's outlook on life and gave them full scope for the growth of individual spirit at the same time. Obedience to authority was overshadowed by freedom of thought giving a rude shock to the medieval conception of life.

The Renaissance thus heralded the dawn of the modern age. The startling development out of the turmoil and travail that spread all over Europe gave birth to the fine flower of Renaissance which, in course of time changed the course of history and diverted it into a new channel. The great intellectual awakening giving man a new mental outlook, emboldened him to challenge the old world. The idea of a single state under two heads, the Pope and the Emperor received a great blow and the modern state system based upon the idea of nationality grew up. The idea of individual man as a political unit was also a characteristic of this age. The feudal society of classes was replaced by the individual society and the freedom of thought, characteristic of modern age, freed men from the intellectual bondage of the Medieval Church.

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*(2) Literary Activities :*

A sympathetic study of mankind in contrast to the study of theology of the Middle Ages was started by Petrarch. A notable humanist of the 16th century was Erasmus whose "Praise of Folly" assailed ignorance, made fun of superstitions and lauded the Classics. The beauty and the originality of classical literature were appreciated and the study of Caesar, Cicero, Virgil, Xenophon, and Homer were added to the curricula. Reverence for antiquity led to glorification of the past, which at the same time produced weakening effect on medieval institution. The Medieval Church had to suffer from the effects. The critical spirit and the wider outlook freed men from the ecclesiastical tutelage. It belittled the theology, assailed monasticism and brought the ecclesiastical monopoly to an end. A remarkable development was made in vernacular literature. Latin ceased to be the medium of instruction. Books were written in national languages. In England Chaucer took the lead. In Italy Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio wrote in vernacular languages. In Germany, too, Martin Luther popularised the vernacular literature by writing his views and translating the Bible in German language. In Spain, too, vernacular received a strong impetus by the works of Cervantes.

Another characteristic of the Renaissance is the stimulus it gave to the study of history. A large number of historians began to write and study history in a more critical spirit and accuracy.

The flower of Renaissance blossomed forth in Italy, particularly in Florence, the home of the early Renaissance. Medici family of Florence offered protection to many struggling students and artists and established an academy for the study of platonic philosophy. It has produced in the 13th and the 14th centuries Dante and Petrarch, the two great poets of Italian language. In the second half of the 15th century, this famous city produced three great men Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo and Raphael.

The Renaissance flowered in Italy in the 15th century and gradually spread to the other parts of Western Europe. Italy, the home of many of the literary figures, impressed other countries too,— particularly France, England, Germany and Spain. Petrarch and his immediate successors wrote chiefly in Latin. Important new works in vernacular were produced by Tasso, Cervantes, Camerons, Racine, Shakespeare Milton and others.

- Roger Bacon, a great literary genius, but a lonely figure of the 13th century, suffered from the disadvantages of holding beliefs which were at least two centuries ahead of his time. The Renaissance is regarded to have started in the beginning of the 14th century with the publication of the Divine Comedy by the Italian poet Dante. It was not written in Latin but in Italian, the language of the common people. After Dante came, Petrarch and Boccaccio. Petrarch, the father of Humanism, renewed the interest in the works of Virgil, Cicero and Livy. Boccaccio is chiefly noted for his Decameron—which was a source of inspiration to the scholars of the succeeding generation. Machiavelli wrote his historical works the 'Prince', famous not only because of its greatness but because it is well known for giving glimpses into the minds of the princes and the politicians of the day.
- In England, Chaucer inspired by Boccaccio's writings wrote his famous 'Canterbury Tales' in English language. He was the first great English poet and did much to standardise the English language. Thomas More in his 'Utopia' based on Plato's 'Republic', depicted an ideal commonwealth in contrast to the conditions of England of his day. He suffered persecution for his religious faith at the time of Henry VIII.
- The development of English poetry, particularly drama, clearly indicated the spirit of Renaissance. The works of Christopher Marlowe,

Roger Bacon  
(1214—94)

Dante  
(1265 - 1321)

Petrarch—  
(1304—74)

Boccaccio  
(1313 - 75)

Chaucer  
(1340—1400)

Thomas  
More

Shakespeare  
(1564—1616)

Shakespeare, and Ben Jonson expressed the literary spirit of the age. Shakespeare has never been excelled as a dramatist—the only dramatist who could challenge the ancient tragedians of Athens—Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides.

John Milton is a notable figure for his majestic poetry and prose, which gave vent to the zeal for the personal liberty in his 'Paradise Lost'. Cranmer wrote the 'Book of Common Prayer'. Spencer in his 'Fairie Queene' showed the influence of the classics and of Humanism. All of them wrote in English. The literary outburst of this period has never been equalled in any other period preceeding or succeeding it. This period saw the rise of many other celebrated English writers like Hooker, Bacon and others.

Martin Luther, the author of the Protestant Revolt was also a great scholar who made valuable contributions to German literature. The Spanish and Portuguese writers too deserved attention for their contributions to vernacular.

In Spain, Cervantes immortalised his name by his famous work 'Don Quixote', making fun of medieval feudalism and decadent chivalry. The Portuguese literature reached its zenith in the time of Camões, whose 'Lusiads', a patriotic epic, dealt with wonderful voyages and exploits of Vasco da Gama, similar to Virgil's 'Aeneid'.

The sarcastic writings of the French writers of the 16th century like 'Gargantua' of Rabelais of the 17th century and the master-pieces of Corneille, Racine, and Moliere made the century the 'Golden Age' of French literature. All these literary geniuses wrote in their national languages. Latin was thus deposed from its proud position as the universal medium of instruction and literary production.

Erasmus, the foremost classical scholar of the 16th century, was a native of Rotterdam in Holland. He travelled a good deal in various parts of Europe. He was a trained theologian noted for his book 'The Praise of Folly'.

(3) *Scientific development :*

Remarkable advancement was made in the study of natural and experimental sciences in the 16th century. The marvellous discoveries and explorations brought men in close contact with each other providing facts for scientific study and investigation. The two eminent scholars, Francis Bacon and

Descartes, set forth a new and fruitful scientific method championed by Roger Bacon in the 13th century. Francis Bacon, a lawyer, a judge, a philosopher and a scientist, wrote brilliant essays and treatise like the 'Advancement of Learning' pointing out that the scientific conclusion did not present mature knowledge.

Rene Descartes, a French scientist, took interest in various branches of science, mathematics, physics and chemistry, convincing men the necessity of questioning everything and thus contributing to the importance of the idea of doubt.

In the 16th century great advancement was made in Astronomy by Copernicus and Galileo. Copernicus (1473—1543) "Ptolemy's Theory" that the heavenly bodies known as "Ptolemaic System", revolve round the earth was challenged. Copernicus revived the theories of ancient Greek astronomers who differed from Ptolemy, tasted it and set it forth in his famous book. His theory is now known as the Copernican theory. It revolutionised the theory of Ptolemy by declaring that the sun and not the earth is the centre of the planetary system.

His theory was championed by Kepler, a German astronomer and Galileo the Italian scientist. Kepler amended the theory of Copernicus by showing that the planets revolve about the sun not in circular but in elliptical orbits.

Galileo popularised the theory of Copernicus. He invented a telescope which, though weak and crude, was then a marvel. He discovered many wonderful astronomical facts by its means. His works in

physics were more important than in astronomy. The law of pendulum was discovered by him. He also perceived the world to be a mechanical order controlled by natural laws.

Newton (1642—1727) Newton concluded that the movement of the celestial bodies was controlled by gravitation.

The study of medicine and anatomy reflected the humanistic spirit of the Renaissance. The works of Hippocrates and Galen were revived. Vesalins, a Netherlander, wrote treatises on anatomy and corrected the errors made by Galen.

William Harvey (1578-1657) The name of William Harvey has been immortalised by his discovery of blood-circulation—a prime contribution to medieval science. He also showed close connection between medicine and chemistry. Codrus and Helmont made further progress in medical science.

#### (4) *Inventions :*

Of these various scientific inventions in other fields which revolutionised the old order, a few deserve special attention. The printing press accomplished an intellectual revolution and the discovery of the fire arms brought about a revolution in warfare and in social conditions. The Mariner's Compass led to great activity—almost a revolution—in navigation, discovery, exploration, colonisation and commerce.

#### (5) *Progress in Art :*

The Renaissance brought a revolution in the art of painting. Four names stand prominent in this field—Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Raphael and Titian. The latter two were mainly painters, while the former were equally great as architects and sculptors.

Leonardo (1452-1519) Leonardo—a Florentine by birth—was patronised by the Medici family and the Royal House of France. He was a scientific painter, typifying the scientific spirit of the age. He was a man of versatile genius, artist, poet, musician, and engineer. Of the few paintings he has left, four are recognised as masterpieces of the highest rank. His "Mona Lisa" with inscrutable, brooding smile

stands without a rival. "The Last Supper" a fresco in Milan, is one of the most notable studies of character in painting. The other two—"The Virgin of the Rocks" and "The Virgin and Child with St. Anne", too, are also of outstanding merit and impress one with lovely mystery and rare inward beauty. "The ideal of the Renaissance was the well rounded, the 'complete' man, interested in all the branches of culture".

Michael Angelo was also a Florentine like Leonardo and a peerless artist in various fields. Though a "Jack of all trades," he was the master of all. The famous statue of David and the Tomb of Pope, Julius II, the Basilica of St. Peter at Rome are few of the enduring monuments of his work. The ceiling frescoes of the Sistine Chapel of the Vatican of which the 'Last Judgment' is the most celebrated one.

Raphael (1483-1520) died at the age of 37 but at that age he even surpassed Michel Angelo in the art of painting. His famous picture 'Divine' is almost peerless. The "Sistine Madonna" with its life like charm can be regarded as one of the most famous paintings. He worked for sometime as the architect at St. Peter's Basilica.

Titian (1477-1576) was the chief representative of Venetian school of painting. Though not a genius like Leonardo or Michael Angelo, he possessed the supreme gift of oil painting.

The work of Lorenzo Ghiberti who carved the gates for the baptistery in Florence had such exquisite artistic beauty that Michael Angelo declared them to be worthy for the 'gates of Paradise.'

Two other prominent painters of the 15th century—Gozzoli, who in his "Adoration of the Magi" gave a picture of Florentine life of his time and Botticelli, who re-introduced the spirit of classicism giving life and freshness to the christian tradition in Art, deserve special mention.

The artistic activities of this age dominated by Christian

Church was restricted by hard and conventional practices. The spirit of Humanism led to the adoption of classical art forms for christian uses making it simpler at the same time and paving the way for the establishment of a new school.

Painting made remarkable progress in other countries too. The 16th and the 17th centuries were the "Golden Age" for painting. Italy became the heritage of all Western Europe. Under the patronage of Francis I of France and Philip II of Spain, artistic activities made vigorous progress, Velasquez and Murillo immortalised the name of Spain. In Germany, Albrecht Durer, under the patronage of the Emperor Maximilian, painted the portrait of Erasmus. He was greater as a wood carver and engraver. His famous engraving "The Knight and the Death" and "St. Jerome in His study" are standards for later engravers.

In Flanders, the Van Eyck brothers painted good pictures like Italian painters and discovered a new way of mixing colours. Van Dyck, another great artist, made himself famous as a portrait painter.

Holland was the birth place of Rubens and Rembrandt, whose artistic works entitled them to be among the greatest painters of the world.

The Renaissance made its influence felt in music too. The 16th century is regarded as the "Golden Age" for the revival of music:

Development was made in all branches of art, architecture, sculpture, music, painting and engraving. All these were cultivated with brilliant success.

#### (6) *Geographical discoveries :*

The renaissance Europe also furthered the spirit of adventure. It gave incentive to geographical explorations as the result of which a series of discoveries were made. The great pioneers like Columbus, Vasco da Gama and Bartholomew Diaz discovered America and the sea route to India under the patronage of the royal families of Spain and Portugal.

All these effects produced so much changes that Renaissance has been rightly regarded as the precursor of the modern age.

(For the detailed study of geographical discoveries see Chapter 1).

## CHAPTER III

### The Reformation

#### *Meaning of the Reformation :*

The Renaissance has enriched the European culture and the scientific discoveries and inventions expanded Europe and also the knowledge of man. All these epoch-making developments led to another great upheaval in religion known as the Reformation meaning a break in the Church of Western Europe. This event is also known as the Protestant Revolt of the sixteenth century.

Even before the Renaissance, there had been several rumblings in the body of the Church. Both the princes and the people of Europe were beginning to feel the heavy hand of the Church and grumbling a little. There were signs of doubt and disobedience for the suppression of which the Inquisition was created by the Church. The terror of the Inquisition and the burning of the heretics, however, did not put down the new spirit. The printing of books and of the Bible added fuel to the fire. The break with the Church occurred in the sixteenth-century but it was the outcome of dissatisfaction which was smouldering since the later medieval period. The Reformation movement or the Protestant Revolt started in Germany when Martin Luther, the greatest opponent of the Catholic Church, became its leader. It was a religious revolution for the separation of the Protestant Church from the Church of Rome which had two fold objects, the renovation of the moral life and the repudiation of the Papal claims to ecclesiastical supremacy. Considered from this point of view, it was both a religious and a political movement. It was a religious movement for reformation of the christian faith and it aimed also at the moral development of the common man. But when it clashed with the interest of the Pope, it assumed political character. The Papal infallibility was challenged by the secular princes

of Europe who took advantage of it to free themselves from Papal authority. It is called the Protestant Revolt because it protested against the various dogmas of Europe. It was a popular movement against the corruption of the Church.

*Nature of the Reformation :*

Its nature is revealed by the three-fold characteristics. It was firstly a popular movement against the corruption and authoritarianism of the Church, secondly a revolt of the princes to put an end to the interference of the Pope, and thirdly an attempt of the loyal clergymen to remove the evils and abuses of the Church which enormously affected the standard of morality. The Latin Church was dismembered and the portion that survived was thoroughly renovated. The breaking away of a large section of Northern Europe from the Latin Christendom is generally known as the Reformation.

*Causes of the Reformation :*

The concept of unity in the Middle Ages was attacked by humanism and by the spirit of individualism. The Reformation rebelled against the intellectual unity and the centralised control of the Roman Church. The

(1) Humanism

(2) Growth of national state

rise of national states shattered the medieval conception of the Universal State. The final assault on the monopolistic power of the Universal Church— one of the greatest of all medieval institutions, was made by the Reformation.

(3) Effects of the Renaissance

The relation between the Renaissance and the Reformation was peculiar. Both movements aided in the breakdown of the old order and each contributed to the establishment of the new. In some cases they co-operated with one another while in others they were opposed to each other. Some humanists like Thomas More were loyal supporters of Roman Catholicism, while the austere Protestants had no love for the pagan learning stimulated by humanism.

(4) Early attacks on the Catholic Church

Long before the Protestant Revolt of the sixteenth century, the authority of the Pope was challenged by the people known as the Heretics.

This gave rise to a variety of faith. The most serious of these attacks on the Church brought about the Great Schism of the eleventh century which separated the Church into two—the orthodox Greek Church of the East and the Roman Catholic Church of the West.

(5) Corruption in the Church

The moral influence of the Church was declining from the thirteenth century. Certain practices of the clergy, usually known as the corruption aroused criticism and caused scandal. The Church discipline was lax. The worldmindedness of the clergymen made them unfit for the position they held. Instead of being spiritual guide, they shocked the conscience of the people by their love for power and pelf. Voices of protest naturally arose against the evil practices and demands were made for reforms. The four main forces that attacked the authority of the Pope were (i) the growing power of the national states, (ii) the members of the clergy who opposed the centralised authority of the Pope, (iii) the reformers who condemned the evil practices, and (iv) the middle class.

(6) Influence of the early reformers

The great abuses of the Church led to widespread protests. The English reformer Wycliffe was the first to attack the worldliness of the Church and to question even the fundamental beliefs of the Church. Hence he has been called the "Morning Star of the Reformation". His teachings spread widely in

John Huss (1369-1415)

Savonarola (1452-1498)

Europe and particularly in Bohemia where John Huss attempted a religious revival but had to suffer martyrdom in 1415 for his premature attempt. The Florentine reformer Savonarola met the same fate by being burnt alive as a heretic. The Lollards as the followers of Wycliffe were called and the Hussites, the followers of John Huss, however, were growing in number. Even the attempts

of the princes to curb them down were not always successful. The burning of Huss led to the popular outbreak and the Hussite Wars thus started lasted for several years.

(7) Political  
opposition

To the moral cause was added political opposition. Criticism of Papal authority was made in different ways. Kings and rulers resented and resisted the political power of the Church. Growth of national states in England, France and Spain won the right to tax Church property and to nominate Church officials. They not only limited the Church courts but also disobeyed Papal decrees. The conflicts between the Pope and the kings in the fourteenth and the fifteenth centuries were very common. Though it weakened the power of the Church to a great extent, it was not by itself a sufficient force to cause a break with the Church. There was, therefore, the need of other forces of opposition, the strongest of which was the religious opposition made by Wycliffe, a professor of Oxford and John Huss, a priest and a professor in the University of Prague.

(8) Economic  
cause.

To the moral, religious and political causes was added the economic cause which enhanced the unpopularity of the Church and made it a subject of severe criticism. Financial burdens tended to become financial abuses. The big clergymen continued to become rich in worldly goods. A large part of the landed property belonged to the Church and a considerable amount of the revenue was taken by the Church as annates and other contributions. These heavy drains of national resources were resented by the rulers. Huge sums of money extracted from the "good christians" of Germany, England and France were spent on the "bad christians" of Italy. This state of things was very wittingly set forth by Erasmus in his "Praise of Folly."

Papal interference was a menace to the growing sense of national independence. The rulers of Europe, therefore, very conveniently joined hands with the reformers to secure financial and political advantages.

The background of such political upheaval had been

already prepared by the Renaissance which opened men's mind to the evils of the Church. The revival of learning evoked a spirit of criticism and the German humanists used it for practical purposes. The growth of national feeling which was gathering strength in Germany, England, France and in other countries objected to the foreign rule of the Catholic Church. Against such tendencies the Catholic world showed firm hostility by refusing to nationalise the Churches.

(9) Intellectual  
cause            The writings of the renaissance reformers did a great deal for the progress of the Reformation.

The German humanist like Reuchlin, Ulrich Von Hutten and the Oxford reformers like Colet and Thomas More took up the cause of the Reformation in serious earnestness. They wanted to reform the Church from within by removing its abuses and, unlike Martin Luther, they did not believe in violent methods or revolutions. They were reformers but not revolutionaries. Erasmus in his "Praise of Folly" bitterly denounced the worldliness of the churchmen, condemning Luther at the same time for his excesses. But the "jokes of Erasmus did the Pope more harm than the anger of Luther."

(10) Immediate  
cause            The immediate cause for the attack on the Church by Martin Luther was the sale of Indulgence. Luther attacked this practice in his ninetyfive theses and nailed them on the Church door at Wittenberg, challenging all to refute his arguments. Luther the fearless and a dynamic critic of the Church, was at first a reformer but came to a breaking point with the Church on the question of the sale of Indulgence. He not only condemned the whole system but also protested against the Papal infallibility.

Luther's attack on the Church was utilised by the princes as an excuse for war. All the parties, nobles and peasants came to support him for divergent reasons. The political, economic and patriotic oppositions together with the religious teachings had merged and fused into open rebellion of the princes and the people.

Martin  
Luther  
(1483-1546)

Luther, a professor of theology in the University of Wittenberg, made a vigorous protest against the sale of Indulgence, a promise of special favour to the sinners after death granted by the Church on money payment. He was excommunicated and declared an outlaw. But so many persons in Germany were in sympathy with him that Luther was able to defy the Emperor as well as the Pope.

The cause of Luther was so popular in Germany that all the Germans would have joined Lutheran camp but for the Peasants' revolt which was ruthlessly put down in 1525. Luther sided with the nobles and the result was that Germany was divided. The North followed Luther while the South remained Catholic.

*Effects of the Reformation :*

But what Luther lost in southern Germany, he gained it in Scandinavia where Lutheranism was established. Monasteries were dissolved, priests adjured their allegiance to Rome and a simple form of worship was introduced. National language was substituted for the Latin mass in all the Protestant Churches.

A protracted civil war went on between the Catholics and the Protestants. It was brought to an end with the Peace of Augsberg in 1555 which won legal recognition for Protestantism. In course of the war excesses were committed by both parties. The fanatical zeal of the extremists sometimes threatened the very existence of Protestantism. Luther's stern attitude, however, saved the situation. Luther, though a good organiser, was rather an intolerant one in spirit. This spirit of intolerance was reflected in the Church he founded and it brought new types of fanaticism in Puritanism and Calvinism. Calvin himself burnt many people to death for their unwillingness to conform to his faith. The various disturbances in Germany such as the Knight's war of 1523 and the Peasants' Revolt of 1525 were suppressed with great cruelty for which Luther has been highly criticised. Though Luther's conduct had been justified by the success of

the cause, it produced a strong reaction against the Reformation and led to the loss of the support of the masses.

(2) Spread of Protestantism

The Protestant revolt was not confined to Germany. The new doctrine was preached by Zwingli in Switzerland and by John Calvin in France. The Reformation movement did not make any headway in England at first. Henry VIII was opposed to Luther. For his hostile attitude, the Pope rewarded him with the title of the "Defender of the Faith". But later on he broke with the Pope for his disappointment in getting his approval to annul his marriage with Catherine of Spain. For this personal reason as well as to exert his own royal authority over the Church, he induced the Parliament to pass an Act of Supremacy. This act substituted the King for the Pope as the Head of the Church. The English Church was thus nationalised, though the movement for it was neither national nor religious in character. It was prompted by private and political considerations rather than by desire for reform. Step by step, the Church in England became the Church of England. Henry VIII, however, did not wish to change the doctrines. It was under Edward VI and Elizabeth I that doctrinal changes were made. Every where the Reformation was usually attended by religious intolerance. Persecution and confiscation of property were also regular features of the movement.

Switzerland : Zwingli (1484-1531)

Ulrich Zwingli, the Swiss reformer revolted against the Catholic Church. Some little states were converted while others remained Catholic. Zwingli was killed in a battle in 1531.

John Calvin (1509-1564)

John Calvin, the French reformer occupies a prominent place in the history of Protestant revolt. He set forth his doctrine in a great book "The Institutes", a masterpiece in theology. A large number of Swiss, Dutch, Magyars and Huguenots were Calvinists. He was the founder of Presbyterianism which meant the Government of the Church vested in an elected body.

(3) Counter-Reformation Lutheranism, Anglicanism and Calvinism were the three chief forms of Protestantism. While Protestantism was taking shape in various countries of Europe, a Counter-Reformation movement started in Italy, Austria, France and Spain for the removal of abuses of the Roman Church. A series of reforming Popes in the second half of the sixteenth century felt the need of changing the Church government and setting of higher moral tone to the Church.

The Council of Trent. A general council was held in Trent and kept in session from 1545 to 1563 which defined the doctrines of the Roman Church. The Church service book was revised and the lapses in faith were punished in the Inquisition, the ecclesiastical court for the punishment of the heretics.

The breaking away of a large section of northern Europe from Latin christendom came as a shock. The stress of the losses produced profound changes in the Roman Church. The Church was reorganised and a new spirit was infused into it. One of the dominant figures for the Catholic revival was a young Spanish soldier St. Ignatius Loyola, the founder of the society of Jesus. The society of Jesus or the Jesuits, founded in 1534, became one of the greatest teaching and missionary societies that the world has ever seen. It carried Christianity to India, China, America raising the standard of education and stimulating Protestant Europe to similar activities. It gave birth to a new, vigorous and aggressive Roman Catholic Church that we know to-day.

(4) Reforms in the Catholic Church A series of reformatory measure were issued as a result of the Catholic reaction. The gross abuses in the Church were removed. The division among the Protestants into three main hostile sects gave an opportunity for the Catholic revival. Another reason that furthered the cause of reform was a

better class of Popes under whom the Papacy gained in moral strength. The Counter-Reformation was active through the three agencies—the Council of Trent, the Order or Society of the Jesuits and the Inquisition. The Council defined the doctrines of the Roman Church and the Order of the Jesuits arrested the progress of Protestantism.

The Society of the Jesuits

The society of the Jesuits was a military organisation for religious purposes, its members being devoted soldiers of the Papacy and its aim being to fight with the Reformation for the restoration of the Roman Catholicism to its former position. Certain changes, however, became permanent. The authority of the Pope was substituted for the authority of the Bible. Religious toleration and individual morality received strong impetus.

(5) Political effects      The Christian religion was nationalised to a large extent. It ended the Papal servitude making the nations independent in their internal concerns. Confiscations of the Church property enriched the country and consequently increased the power of the king. Macaulay has rightly observed that Protestantism had outdistanced the Catholic countries in political progress and material prosperity. The “Concordats” with monarchs to maintain Catholicism in Spain, Portugal, France and Austria, gave special privileges to the monks but tended to make the Church subservient to the king.

(6) Religious Wars      Philip II of Spain, a most fanatical champion of Catholicism tried to stamp out Protestantism by the aid of the Inquisition. In Netherland, he faced a determined opposition from the Dutch and a terrible war broke out for religion. The Religious Wars in Germany were brought to an end in 1555 by the Peace of Augsburg. But this peace did not last long. The Thirty Year's War broke out in 1618 between the German Catholics and the Protestants in which all the leading nations took part. In course of time, the nature of the war was changed and it became a duel

The Thirty years War

between the Bourbons of France and the Vasas of Sweden and ultimately a dynastic struggle for supremacy between the house of Hapsburg and the house of Bourbons, Spain and Austria on one side and France and Sweden on the other. The Thirty years War was brought to an end by the Peace of Westphalia which placed the Calvinists on an equal footing with the Lutherans and the Catholics.

The Peace of Westphalia

The immediate effect of the religious wars was the division of Europe into two hostile camps. England, Scotland, North Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and parts of Netherland were separated from the Church of Rome. Religious persecutions became the order of the day and the religious wars that broke out were never witnessed before or since. France suffered from religious persecution for a pretty long time. The Edict of Nantes which gave the Huguenots, the French protestants some relief, was revoked by Louis XIV in 1685. The triumph of the principles of religious toleration and the cessation of religious wars were left for a still later date when religion ceased to be a matter of the state.

The Edict of Nantes

The religious wars and the persecution disgraced the whole Christendom. It had paralysing effects on the missionary activities of both the Catholic and the Protestant Churches. At the horrible sight of wars and cruelties, many thoughtful men grew skeptical of the Christian religion as a whole. The states stepped into the position of the Church and started doing many things which the Church previously did. The division in the Church has made the Christian civilisation much more secular than that of the Middle Ages.

(7) Social effects

The religious wars made Europe a bloody battle ground for about a century. The people had to suffer naturally a great deal from the intolerant spirit of the clergy. The Catholic minorities in the Protestant states and the Protestant minorities under the Catholic rulers had to pay heavily for the freedom of

conscience and faith. The peasants particularly suffered from financial exactions. The diminution of the Church dues gave them some relief no doubt, but what was gained was more than lost by the exactions of the kings and the lay proprietors. But these did not last long. Reaction set in and a new spirit came into life. A new set of political and social situations were created which indirectly helped the cause of religious and individual liberty. The medieval religious tradition was broken for ever though the old persecuting spirit took a long time to die. Toleration was not granted until intolerance had been exhausted in all its phases. So the seats in the Parliament were not given to the Catholics before 1830, to the Jews before 1858 and to the atheists before 1886.

The reformation gave a strong impetus to education. The Catholics and the Protestants vied with each other in raising the standard of education and thereby raising the level of intelligence which ultimately gave birth to a regenerated Europe after the storm and stress of centuries.

## CHAPTER IV

### The Industrial Revolution upto Early 19th Century

*England in the 18th Century :*

England remained mainly a nation of farmers and merchants upto the early years of the reign of George III. During the first half of the 18th century manufacturing industry grew steadily. The early reign of George III saw a series of discoveries which multiplying the power of production led to the commercial ascendancy of Great Britain. From 1500 onwards remarkable progress was made in science and the alliance between pure science and industry brought a revolution in English Society. The civilisation of Europe was altered in the 18th century not by political institutions or politicians but by science and the scientists.

The changes in the economic order however, was gradual. The industrial changes of the 18th century and of the succeeding centuries were in process of formation at the close of the Middle Ages. As these changes did not take place suddenly, questions have been asked whether the term 'Revolution' for this industrial movement is an appropriate one. The term 'Revolution' is usually applied to the more violent upheavals like the French Revolution of 1789 and the Russian Revolution of 1917. But the profound changes produced by orderly methods and peaceful means without violence and bloodshed in the later half of the 18th century, altered the social and the economic life of English men to such an extent that the only term that can be suitably applied to express it is the 'Revolution.'

*Meaning of the Industrial Revolution :*

It was science that made the Industrial Revolution possible. Technical progress is dependent upon the advancement

of the physical science. It is true that necessity is the mother of inventions, but the people have to be taught of the existence of a necessity. The Industrial Revolution had to wait, therefore, for the emancipation of science to find out the need and discover the solution.

“The Industrial Revolution, was a fundamental change or series of changes in the methods of producing cloth, iron, steel and other manufactured goods. It was largely the displacing of hand work by machine work.” The British industry underwent a remarkable and extensive change in the second half of the 18th and in the first half of the 19th centuries as the result of a series of scientific inventions which made things on a large scale in large factories. It has aptly been remarked that the change that occurred as the result of the Industrial Revolution “has made the siege of Bastille and the battle of Waterloo seem almost insignificant in comparison.” No other event has affected the life of the common man more tremendously than was done by this revolution. The common people in the previous ages, hardly apprehended a revolution. But the Industrial Revolution, as it went on towards the end of the 19th century, was more and more distinctly seen as one whole process even by the common people, as had never been done before by the commonalty.

It was the mechanical inventions that made such a tremendous difference in the method of production. Historians often confuse the mechanical revolution with the Industrial Revolution. H. G. Wells has rightly pointed out that the two processes were working together and were constantly reacting upon each other. The mechanical revolution, the precursor of the Industrial Revolution, was quite a new thing in human experience. It went on regardless of the social, political, economic and industrial consequences it might produce in its wake. The Industrial revolution, on the other hand, was more and more affected by the constant changes in human conditions caused by the mechanical revolution. But Riker is of opinion that the Industrial Revolution was the transformation

in the methods of production and transportation through the general substitution of power-driven machinery for hand labour.

*Nature of the Industrial Revolution :*

A revolution does two things. It overthrows an old order and sets up, in its place, a new order. Of the various kinds of revolutions, referred to in history—the political revolution affects the Government, the religious ones the Church and the social revolutions change the life and privileges of certain groups of people. An intellectual revolution like the Renaissance changes the outlook of men on life while a diplomatic revolution leads to an entire rearrangement of international alliances. An agrarian revolution changing the technique and organisation of agriculture brings a change in the relative importance of certain social classes. The Industrial Revolution by changing the methods of production changed the old system of handwork at home into the new system of machine work in factories.

Rarely in history we come across a Glorious Revolution. Usually the nature of a political revolution is violent. So was the religious revolution of the 16th century. Social revolutions too have been accompanied by destructive violences. The Industrial Revolution, unlike other revolutions but similar to the intellectual revolution, was mainly peaceful though at the end of the 19th century, due to the rise of party struggle, it lost its original peaceful nature and became rather very noisy.

Such a revolution need not be sudden or violent. It may be gradual and even imperceptible. As the people at the beginning were not conscious of the changes that were taking place, it is difficult to ascertain the date of its beginning with accuracy. Within a period of twenty years from 1765-85, the changes produced in the textile industry attracted notice. Revolutionary changes were brought in the condition of England by the middle of the 19th century which transformed the methods of production through the general substitution of power driven machineries for hand labour.

“The power of the Old World was human power”. A vast proportion of mankind in the early period was employed in purely mechanical drudgery. As the 19th century went on the plain logic of the new situation asserted itself and the human beings were no longer wanted as a source of mechanical power. They were wanted only as human beings when intelligence had to be exercised. The ‘drudge’, the creature of mere obedience “had become unnecessary in this welfare of mankind.” In this change-over he had to be educated to secure “industrial efficiency” for which there was a rapid progress in popular education. It was the mechanical revolution that insisted upon the complete abolition of illiterate class throughout the world.

“Economic history has no Waterloo, no peace treaties, no elections to serve as a milestone.” It is hard, therefore, to fix the time for the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. But there is no doubt that England was the chief place, that the movement began to operate from the 17th century and that it spread all over the world by the 20th century, particularly during the last 150 years which had made the industry instead of the agriculture the principal occupation of the civilised world.

*Causes of the Industrial Revolution :*

The Industrial Revolution made its appearance in Great Britain earlier than in other countries as she possessed certain facilities not available in other countries. She became the pioneer because of certain advantages which she alone possessed, the most important of which was the geographical position peculiarly suitable for the growth of commerce and trade. No part of the world was inaccessible to her ship. Her coast line afforded excellent harbours and rivers offered easy communications. The climatic condition too, was favourable for promoting industrial habits.

## (2) Natural resources

Abundance of natural resources was one of the causes that made England the starting place for the Revolution. Her soil was rich in coal and iron and the availability of these two resources in close proximity on the sea coast was of vital importance. The importance of the coal and iron in abundance can hardly be exaggerated. "The industrial expansion of the period could not have taken place if there were no iron for the construction of machinery and if there were no coal to melt it."

## (3) Agricultural Revolution

Agriculture, a part of the Industrial Revolution was in a backward condition upto the 17th century. Little improvement was made in its technique. Though the revolution was neither so complicated nor so far-reaching in its results, still it involved so many things that it facilitated the progress of the Industrial Revolution. New machineries were required for the drainage of wastelands, for fertilisation and for the breeding of stocks. This demand for machineries served as a connecting link between the Industrial Revolution and the Agrarian Revolution. Machines for harvesting, threshing, hay loading and dairy, paved the way for further improvement and thereby foretold the advent of the Industrial Revolution.

"Wheels have made history." The economic upheaval of the 18th century offers a striking example of it. It was the mechanical invention that produced the Industrial Revolution as the "machines are largely wheels in one form or another."

## (4) Use of steam as a motive power

The lack of motive power held the progress of machinery in check. Wind was unworkable and water has certain disadvantages as it freezes in winter. Both these natural powers are limited by conditions of place. The machine must be brought to the power but the power can not be brought to the machine. Steam suffers from none of these disadvantages. It is entirely under the control of man and can be produced from water and coal on the exact spot in the precise proportion required. It therefore, facilitated mass production.

Electricity and other motive powers re-enforced the effects produced by steam in later times. The supremacy of steam was challenged by electricity in the later 19th century as it has many advantages over steam and may be considered as an ideal motive power. It can be produced cheaply and transmitted over long distance. The use of gas and oil as motive power was far below steam and electricity.

(5) Personal freedom The Habeas Corpus Act of the 17th century assured personal freedom to the Englishmen not enjoyed by other countries at such an early date. England was comparatively free from many social abuses while the continent was still suffering from the abuses of feudalism which had paralysing effects on the industries. The serfdom tied the masses to the soil making it impossible for them to move to the towns to provide labour for factories, mines and docks. Thus industrial progress was hindered in other countries for the lack of personal freedom.

(6) Over-sea empire Of all the advantages, the most favourable one was the possession of an extensive over-sea empire by Great Britain. In the scramble for America, Africa and Asia, Great Britain always managed to get the lion's share which offered a wide market essential for the disposal of the goods produced on large-scale by the revolution.

(7) Superiority of Navy England possessed a strong navy which gave her superiority over her rivals holding back even a Napoleon when occasion arose.

(8) Financial stability. Efficient banking system gave financial stability to the business men. The wise policy of Walpole brought great prosperity to the nation proving the solidity of British institutions at the same time.

(9) Cessation of Wars in England Though Great Britain participated in most of the wars of the 18th century, these were fought outside England. British trade and industry, therefore, unhampered by wars, made remarkable development.

(10) Accumulation of capital is essential for industrial expansion. There were circumstances at this time that favoured the growth of capital in England. The Puritanism of the 17th century and the Methodism of the 18th century led to frugality and abstinence. The great trading companies brought wealth to the country but the austere way of living and the discouragement of frivolous expenditure led to an accumulation of wealth which became available for industry as capital, whenever required.

*Progress of Industrial Revolution :*

Revolution in Agriculture      Agriculture, the first industry to be affected by the scientific spirit, was one of the oldest. Uptil the 18th century, the arable lands were treated in the medieval ways. The Industrial Revolution profoundly altered the position of agriculture. There was a notable advance in agricultural techniques during the 18th and the 19th centuries. The old three field system by which a large part of land had to be left fallow every year was abolished by the introduction of new crops such as rye grass, roots and clover which grew in winter. So, instead of three shifts of crops in rotation,—a four course of rotation was substituted. By the cultivation of roots, the recuperative advantages of a bare fallow was secured without the loss of a year's crop. Moreover it provided food for the animals during winter. Abolition of fallowing, therefore, produced important effect on the rearing of animals. The winter crops and clover removed the difficulty of food and stopped unnecessary massacre of animals during winter.

Supply of natural manure also increased and the fertility of the soil was correspondingly developed. The enclosure movement produced remarkable changes in society involving a transformation in land ownership. The waste land and the land that was regarded as common property were brought under cultivation by private owners through the acts of Parliament. The enclosure movement abolished the system of small farming and introduced large scale farming in its place. On the

social side, the Agricultural Revolution completely destroyed the ancient village community and substituting individual farming, led to the decay and disappearance of the yeoman class and the small farms. A new class of landed aristocracy arose in its place.

The dispossessed owners of small farms, finding it hard to maintain livelihood in the village, gradually drifted to the towns which were springing up as the result of the Industrial Revolution to work as wage-earners in the factories, mines and mills.

Of the scientists who revolutionised the agricultural system, one was Jethro Tull (1674-1740) who invented drill sowing, deep ploughing and machine hoeing. Townshend (1674-1738) introduced many winter crops, particularly turnip for which he got the nick name "Turnip Townshend." Robert Bakewell improved in scientific breeding of live stock while Arthur Young, a man of letters, popularised the new husbandry.

Wonderful developments occurred in the cotton industry as the result of mechanical inventions in both the spinning and the weaving of cotton. The first of the inventions came in 1738 when John Kay's "flying shuttle" for cloth weaving was made. The flying shuttle quickened the process of weaving and doubled the output of the weaver. In 1764, James Hargreaves invented spinning Jenny in the name of his wife which revolutionised the spinning industry. Five years later, in 1769, Arkwright made his waterframe which developed the process of spinning by rollers through water power. Finally, Crompton, by his 'Mule' in 1776, combined the principles of Hargreaves and Arkwright. A few years later, in 1785, the "Powerloom" was invented by Cartwright. All these inventions, working together, revolutionised the cotton industry and led the way for a similar revolution in wool, silk and linen industries but cotton always had a lead over the others.

Iron industry was also similarly affected by the scientific inventions. Power-driven machineries proved the importance of coal and iron. The

The Cotton Industry

Iron and Coal Industry

iron industry was threatened with extinction at the time when new demands were made on it for want of fuel needed to melt it. But Britain was saved from this fate by the timely invention of Darby, who used coal instead of coke for his "blast furnace." Further improvements in the iron industry were made by Henry Cort, the Bessemer and Siemens—thus bringing into existence "the age of iron."

The utilisation of steam engine is, however, the means of communication most important feature in the period before 1815. The power of steam was recognised long ago but it was left to James Watt (1736-1819) to produce the first efficient steam engine in 1769. The first locomotive engine was invented by Stephenson (1781-1848) who might be called the father of the railway locomotive. The new motive power immediately conquered the whole world.

Robert Fulton was the first to launch his steam boat on the Seine in 1803, but failing to get any encouragement in France, he came to England. His steam boat 'Clermont' was the first to obtain success as a practical boat in 1807. Further improvement in this direction was soon made and the first steamship 'Savannah' crossed the Atlantic in 1819. The number of steam boats increased gradually and they became numerous by 1850.

The year 1815 saw the invention of safety lamp by Humphry Davy for the use of the miners.

Industrial development on a large scale would not have been possible, if means of communication had not been improved. The rivers offered sufficient highway for the transport of goods to the coast. The advent of large-scale production required better means of transport. When steam was used successfully to turn the wheels of machine, inventors began to think of using it to move ships and wagons. The construction of canals and railways and the development of steamships necessarily accompanied the Industrial Revolution. In the earlier stages, industry depended on roads, rivers and canals

when factories were moderate in size and run by one man or by partnership. With the development of steamship and railway, much larger establishments came into existence which, under conditions of maximum production, needed the whole world as a market.

**Road** Before the 18th century the condition of roads in England was atrociously bad. In the 18th century, and still more in the 19th century, improvements were made in this direction by men like Metcalfe and Telford. The best type of road constructed was called "Macadam" after the name of John Macadam, a Scottish engineer.

**Canals** Canals were also dug to provide cheap transportation for coal and other heavy materials. The names of Bridgewater and Brindley are renowned for building canals.

New methods in agriculture, new inventions in manufactures and improvements in the means of communication—all had their share in developing the prosperity of Great Britain and justifying the name 'Industrial Revolution' for this period of her economic history.

Further improvements in the means of communication were made after 1815 by the inventions like telegraph and the telephone and also through the Press and Post Office which brought almost the whole world within a man's reach.

#### *Effects of the Industrial Revolution :*

The effects of all these inventions revolutionised British industry and made its influence felt all over the world.

(1) **Revolution in industries** The immediate effect was the replacement of human labour by power-driven machines. The age of coal and iron ushered in a long series of inventions and the invention of steam locomotive and steamship revolutionised transportation.

(2) **Large-Scale production** The new method in industry increased production and with machine running full, overflowed the markets with goods at low price making it possible for common people to have more conveniences.

(3) Improvement in the means of communication With the advent of large-scale production better means of transport were needed. The large quantities of goods produced by a group of factories in a single town could not be disposed of in its immediate neighbourhood. So they had to appeal to a wider market. But this was impossible unless adequate facilities existed for the cheap transport of heavy and bulky goods over long distances. The construction of canals and railways and the development of steamships necessarily accompanied the Industrial Revolution.

(4) Abolition of Domestic system Growth of factories for textile, metal and mining industries, changed the condition of labour and affected the lives and the habits of the people profoundly. The domestic system of making things was over with the machine work in factories.

Rise of joint-stock companies and industrial combinations fused the small independent firms into one.

(5) Development of trade The goods thus produced in large quantities were exported to all parts of the world. The start which Great Britain obtained over her industrial rivals enabled her to establish a footing for her trade in many remote countries. Markets were developed, and British goods secured a reputation abroad which they have never since lost.

(6) Localisation of industries In the 16th century, there was a tendency for the localisation of industries on geographical consideration. Thus cotton industry was localised in a place like Lancashire and shipbuilding in the north-east of England and the Clyde. Great industries grew up round about the coal fields in the north-east of England, Yorkshire, Lancashire, Black Country, South Wales, the Clyde and Belfast in Ireland. These places are the centres of wealth but at the same times, seats of chronic social diseases.

(7) Growth of capitalistic economy Establishment of capitalistic economy was one of the features of the modern industrial organisation. Industry was not capitalistic in the Middle Ages as the guildsmen of the medieval

times needed very little for their trade and if any industry was organised on capitalistic basis, the amount of capital required was much less than was used in the 19th century.

(8) Growth of new classes. Growth of capitalism resulted in the new classification of society on the basis of wealth with the capitalists, who were the employers on one side and the wage-earners on the other. The wage-earners were hard hit by this change-over of the system of production from the domestic to the factory system which reduced them to the condition of 'wage slavery' making them work unceasingly for long hours under insanitary conditions.

(9) Rise of class struggle. A new class of working men, the engineers for the construction of machineries, arose. The ignorant working people who often resented the use of machineries which displaced hand labour and caused unemployment, broke into riots and sometimes stormed the factories doing immense damage to the machineries. The relation between the two classes, the employers and the employees remained antagonistic ever since, giving rise to class struggle—a very unhealthy feature of the modern society. The struggle did not come in force, of course, in the 19th century, but the relative differences in the position of the capitalists and the labourers—the foundation of the class-struggle was laid down in this age.

(10) Problem of unemployment. The growth of a large and permanent wage-earning class intensified the problem of unemployment. In the new set up of the Industrial organisation, the tendency of profit was prominent. Goods were produced according to demand and in the time of industrial trouble, when there was the possibility of less consumption, the organisers did not make use of the machineries and threw the labourers out of employment.

(11) Social evils. The merchants and financiers assumed greater importance. The ill-feeling due to the disadvantages of industrial life suffered by one class and the security and comfort enjoyed by the other, kept alive the spirit of

antagonism. The factory workers had to live in miserable little houses, mostly damp and dark cellars, which poisoned home life and weakened the standard of morality. Long working hours, even for women, gave them little time to attend to their house work and to take care of children. The children, too, either left to themselves or working in the factories, learned to imitate the vices of the grown up. Men and women alike took to drinking and modesty and virtue were difficult to maintain. Ignorance, poverty, hunger, dirt and disease characterised the life of the cellars or the 'cheese-box' homes of an industrial city.

But the situation that arose was too unjust to be permanent. Villages were deserted and the cities were thickly populated where millions and millions of people drifted in search of livelihood. Industrial towns grew up in the northern region, South Wales, in certain parts of Midlands, Lancashire, Tyne districts and West Riding, giving full scope to the chronic city sium, immorality and other social evils.

Population also increased at an accelerated rate. (12) Increase of The five and half millions of 1700 increased population to six millions by 1750 and shot up to nine millions by 1801. This was doubled by 1851 and doubled again by 1901.

Over and above these evils, the economic crisis, a natural outcome of the Industrial Revolution—a sudden catastrophic storm in industry causing crisis in the world economy, enhanced social crisis too. Though there was no such cataclysm in the beginning, yet since the 19th century, the trade boom passing into the trade depression has become a regular feature of the modern economic system.

Reaction soon set in and attempts were made (13) Social progress to remedy the evils of the new system. For more than a century, the state had tried, by legislations or by private philanthropy, to remove the grievances of the workmen. Improvement in housing and regulation of working hours had been made by factory laws.

By limiting the age of children for factory work and by introducing elementary education and afterwards free education, the standard of life of the common men had been raised.

(14) Agitation  
for further  
progress

But all these attempts failed to alleviate the miseries of the people. There were frequent disturbances and revolutionary outbreaks from time to time. Trade Unions were formed to improve the conditions of the labourers and the labour party and the socialist party came into existence. With the same purpose, the protests of the proletariat against the capitalists, the "Captains of Industry", became louder, giving rise to political agitations like the Chartist Movement. Violent methods, such as strike and sabotage were undertaken and movements like Socialism, Syndicalism, Bolshevism, and Trade Unionism, on behalf of the working classes started. But the labour problem which is inherited from the Industrial Revolution is still a vital problem of modern times.

Karl Marx  
(1818-83)

Karl Marx, the great teacher of Socialism, was a native of Germany. In his famous manifesto of 1847, he emphasised international character of labour and taught the working classes that their interests were the same the world over and that the national barrier was essentially artificial. His 'Das Capital' "a scathing indictment of economic order" published in 1867 became the Bible of the Socialist movement.

Thus new forces which were the protests of the proletariat against Capitalism, arose out of industrialism and new classes raised their heads to claim rights and powers. The Reform Act of 1832 and the Repeal of the Corn Law gave some relief and political power to the common people. The general tendency of history throughout the 19th century was towards complete democracy, to which not only England but the whole of Europe had to adjust herself and in course of time the triumph of universal suffrage terminated in the control of the

states by the majority of their citizens. Thus the Industrial Revolution, the greatest contribution of Great Britain to civilisation, led to the emergence of an immense proletariat class with revolutionary changes in its material conditions.

## CHAPTER V

### The War of American Independence

#### *The 18th Century Revolutions :*

The latter half of the 18th century saw the outbreak of three great revolutions of which the first one was the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution produced vital changes in industries and made the English World dominated by the cloth manufacturers, the iron-masters and the mine-owners. The Second great revolution, the revolt of the American colonies against the mother country, was a political one. Though it was not as important as the third one—the French Revolution which was to follow it soon, still it succeeded in changing not only the history of America but also the history of mankind to a considerable degree by giving severe blows to the theory of Absolute Monarchy.

#### *The Early history :*

This great event, the revolution of the American colonies against England, or the War of American Independence of 1775-83, was not a mere British concern though, in its origin it was a protest against the autocracy of George III. The history of English-dominated America began in the 17th century when a batch of puritans called the pilgrim fathers, left England to escape religious persecution to find a new home for good in this new continent. Not satisfied with the Elizabethan settlement of the Church and unwilling to tolerate the autocracy of James I, they crossed the Atlantic in 1620 on board the "Mayflowers" and founded a settlement in America called New Plymouth. This was the beginning of the New England group of colonies on the eastern sea-board of North America which grew up in course of few decades. There were other colonies too, founded by the Dutch, the Portuguese, the Danes and the Frenchmen, but the British supremacy in the

colonies soon aroused jealousy of others inviting challenge at last from France. The duel between France and England for colonial supremacy was decided by the Seven Years' War (1756-63) which not only eliminated France from America but also paved the way for the elimination of England from that land.

*The Seven Years' War opens a New Chapter :*

The Americans had no desire to break with the mother country even when the world-wide struggle between France and England started for colonial supremacy. They had left home because they were not satisfied with their lot. But while away from home, they were even more attached to it. The thirteen colonies that grew up on the east coast of North America remained loyal to England until the middle of the 18th century when the Seven Years' War was concluded by the Peace of Paris. But the triumph of Wolfe on the Height of Abraham at the battle of Quebec in 1759 not only brought the war to an end but also paved the way for the beginning of the independent history of America.

H. G. Wells has rightly observed that whatever motive might have urged Columbus and Vasco da Gama to explore distant land—the perennial first motive of all the sailors—was trade. At the end of the third quarter of the 18th century, the northern two-thirds of the North America was under British rule. The British Government which was lapsing at this time towards an intenser form of monarchy, gave a fatal blow to the American trade under its well-meaning but obstinate ruler George III and forced a struggle between the Home and the Colonial Governments.

Two kinds of economic systems grew up in the American colonies—one in the north based on small farms and the other in the south, based on large plantation and slavery. The English king and the big land lords tried to exploit the colonies as much as possible. After the Seven Years' War which was waged for the protection of the Americans from French aggression, efforts were made to get money from the colonies to cover a part of the heavy expenditure incurred in connection

with the War. George III desirous of reviving the personal rule of the Crown, thought the colonies were parts of the country and so should be administered primarily for the benefit of the mother country. The Seven Years' War secured Canada for England. Strong and confident after the victory, England now increased trade restrictions and imposed new taxation caring little for objections it might arouse. The Seven Years' War had, however, taught the colonists many things. The expulsion of the French from Canada freed the American Colonies from that danger which had made them dependent upon the aid of England. Montcalm, the opponent of Wolfe, predicted accurately that the very success of England would mean the loss of the colonies. The colonies, now, freed from the danger of absorption by the French, tried to stand by themselves, independent of the mother country. The colonies were no longer in a mood to submit tamely to the authority of the mother country and for the first time, the democrats of the North, Anglicans, aristocrats and the slave-owning planters of the South united for a common cause when attempt was made to tax the colonies for the realisation of the great expenses that fell upon England, as the consequence of the War.

*Characteristics and the Attitude of Colonies :*

Of the thirteen colonies, Virginia, the Carolina, Georgia—tobacco and cotton growing states, worked by slave labour. The northern or New England colonies—Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Massachusetts, discontented with the Anglican Church, were not disposed to tolerate autocracy. There were Dutch settlements in the centre and the Roman catholic colony of Maryland. Pennsylvania was colonised by the Quakers. Each colony was self-sufficient, having its own Governor and a legislative assembly. They enjoyed a degree of self-government and wished for more as the long distance from the Government which produced a feeling of aloofness naturally strengthened this longing. After the Seven Years' War, they were more rebellious and less disposed than ever

to submit to the dictatorship of England.

*Causes of the War :*

(1) Navigation Laws England had previously passed Navigation Laws for the regulation of the trade of the colonies.

By these laws, the colonies had to transport their goods in British vessels. For a long time, however, these laws, were not effectively enforced. But special attention was given for the enforcement of these laws after the Seven Years' War.

(2) Custom Laws New Custom Laws such as Sugar Act requiring the payment of a duty on exported sugar and certain other imports, previously disregarded, were now enforced strictly from 1764. There were restrictions too, on some commodities such as steel, woollen goods, hats, tobacco, cotton and mollasses or liquid sugar which were to be sent to no other country but Great Britain. The colonies disliked such handicaps on their trade and also objected to be taxed by a distant power. A good deal of smuggling, therefore, went on to evade the payment of taxation.

(3) Writs of Assistance As systematic smuggling made the restrictions on trade ineffective, officers were given Writs of Assistance empowering them to search the houses as well as ships for taxable goods. This aroused vehement opposition from the colonists.

(4) Effects of the Seven Years' War The troubles between Britain and her American colonies began directly from the expulsion of France from Canada. After the Seven Years' War, England naturally thought of taxing the colonies so as to make them contribute something towards their own defence. But for the stupidity of the British Government, the policy did not work in a practical way and the colonists were made to pay without any voice in the Parliament. Their trade was sacrificed to British interest. The highly profitable slave trade too, was under the control of the British Government. Imposition of new taxes on certain articles, therefore,

precipitated the crisis. With the removal of French menace, the colonies no longer needed British protection. They became bold and assertive with a desire for more liberty and a determination to function independently. But unfortunately, the British Government failed to understand that by the time of George III, the colonies had grown up sufficiently to take care of themselves.

The mistaken policy of Grenville brought matters to a head. Firstly by trying to put a stop to smuggling, putting heavy duties on molasses and issuing a proclamation against the acquisition of lands from the Red Indians, he irritated the colonists and roused their indignation and discontent. Lastly, the Grenville ministry decided to keep a small standing army for the defence of the Americans against the Indian tribes. The Quartering Act for the exaction of money from the colonists made the British Government all the more unpopular.

All these things started the trouble which was further heightened when Grenville passed the Stamp Act requiring all legal documents and formal acts to be written on stamped paper. Legally the British Parliament had the right to pass Acts for the colonies but when doing it, they forgot the fact that the colonists were Englishmen with the English men's idea of liberty and self-government and that these liberty-loving people might object to being taxed by a parliament in which they were not represented. They denied the right of the British Parliament to tax them against their will and hence "No taxation without representation" became their famous cry. There were violent outbursts for which the Stamp Act had to be repealed.

The Rockingham Ministry, though repealed the Stamp Act; passed a Declaratory Act at the same time in order to assert England's right to pass laws binding upon the colonies. This was a sufficient cause for constant frictions but the colonists were further irritated by the folly of Townshend who imposed taxes on tea,

glass and paper in 1767. As the measure was a severe blow to the colonial self-government, it aroused angry protests and by agreement the colonists stopped importation of British goods.

(8) The Boston Tea-Party, 1773

The position became so critical that in 1770, Lord North's Ministry abolished the taxes on glass and paper but the tax on tea was retained as an assertion of the right of taxing the colonies directly or indirectly. The colonies did not object to the amount of taxation. So the conciliatory policy of Lord North failed to produce any effect. They objected to the principle involved in such taxation and acting on that principle they destroyed three cargoes of tea of the London East India Company which arrived in Boston in 1773. A band of Americans disguised as Red Indians boarded the vessels and threw all the tea chests, 340 in number, into the sea.

Attitude of the statesmen

This incident known by the name the "Boston Tea-party" was a challenge to Great Britain. The British Parliament now acted with severity. To punish Boston, the British Parliament, closed it to all commerce and deprived the colony of Massachusetts of its representative institution. The eminent statesmen like Pitt and Burke did not approve of this coercive attitude of George III. Both these statesmen urged the government to adopt conciliatory measures. Accordingly, Lord North passed a Bill which declared that the colonies which would contribute towards its own defence and civil administration, should not have to pay taxes. But this concession failed to produce desired effect as it was too small and came too late. It was the obstinacy of the king as well as the lack of statesmanship that brought the matters to a crisis. Thus a combination of various factors together with the patriotic zeal and eloquence of the American leaders like James Otis, Patric Henry, Thomas Paine, Samuel Adams and Thomas Jefferson led to the outbreak of the war.

*Outbreak of War, 1775 :*

Attempts were, however, made by the loyal colonists to

restore harmony. Accordingly, a petition known as the "Olive Branch Petition" was sent to the king by the loyalists, including George Washington, for a kind of Dominion Government and requesting him to withdraw the objectionable restrictions. But all these attempts failed. The fighting began in 1775 and the first shots were fired by the British in Lexington.

The Congress of Philadelphia  
 Declaration of Rights, 1775

A Congress was held immediately in Philadelphia which was attended by all the colonies except Georgia. A Declaration of Rights, demanding the repeal of all the objectionable acts and stating the terms on which the colonies could maintain connection with England was issued in 1775. Lord North's attempt at conciliation proved a failure. The war had already started at Lexington.

*Declaration of Independence, 1776 :*

The thirteen colonies now broke their allegiance to Great Britain. The Congress at Philadelphia issued the famous Declaration of Independence in 1776 stating the famous principle that "All men are born equal". The Congress also drew up a constitution known as the Article of confederation, which was to be the constitution of the United States. George Washington was made the Commander-in-chief of the continental armies. Benjamin Franklin, together with other patriots, went to France and other countries which were unfriendly to England to secure help and recognition.

From the very beginning, the attitude of the British government was unsympathetic and vacillating being partly coercive and partly conciliatory. But at the same time, it must be remembered, the situation was so difficult that no statesmanship could overcome it. The War was more than a mere struggle on the battlefield between the mother country and her rebellious colonies. It represented a phase of the struggle for representative government that was taking place in England.

The colonists obtained victory in the first battle at Lexington. They were, however, defeated at Bunker's Hill. Washington

compelled the English to evacuate Boston after which independence of the colonies was declared. A federal republic of thirteen colonies was formed under the name of the United States. Though defeated at the battle of Brooklyn and forced to retire from New York, Washington ultimately forced General Burgoyne to Surrender at Saratoga in 1777.

Thus the first phase of the War was over. During the course of three years (1775-77), the British made many mistakes and missed many opportunities, particularly failing to utilise the opportunity when Washington was besieging Boston. Colonel Howe's operation was successful in the beginning but his lethargy enabled Washington to retrieve his position. The plan of operation was not carried successfully. So Burgoyne, who was far outnumbered, had no other alternative but to capitulate at Saratoga.

The next three years of the War (1777-80) were decidedly advantageous for the colonies. In 1778 France and in 1779 Spain joined the War. The French fleet formed a decisive factor and deprived Great Britain of the command of the sea. Russia and Prussia too, along with other Northern powers, formed an alliance known as the Armed Neutrality in order to prevent British ships to search neutral vessels for enemies' goods. Gibraltar too, was besieged. Though Admiral Rodney succeeded in defeating the Spaniards in the battle known as the "Battle of the Saints" and Lord Cornwallis obtained some success in the beginning, the odds against the British were enormous for which Cornwallis had to surrender at York Town in October 1781. The Surrender at York Town brought the War to a close. The War was concluded by the peace of Versailles in September 1783.

#### *Causes of the British Failure :*

The reasons which account for the defeat of the British were many. It appears surprising that with greater resources in men and money England should have failed to put down the rebellion. England, of course, made the mistake of underestimating the strength of her enemies. They began the War in

a half-hearted way which, unaided by timely reinforcement, ended in failure. Too much interference by the Home government also contributed to the failure.

There is little doubt that the campaign was ill-conducted, but England too was handicapped in many ways. To conduct a campaign, in a vast country, three thousand miles away, was itself a difficult task. It was difficult to send men and supplies in time across the Atlantic in the days when ocean shipping was almost in its infancy. The soldiers were handicapped by the novelty of the terrain—wood, swamps and immense distances of an inhospitable country with which their American opponents were better acquainted.

To overcome all these difficulties, a man of exceptional calibre was needed. England, unfortunately failed to produce a great general. Except Lord Cornwallis, all other officers were incompetent. Even Cornwallis was not a match for George Washington—a man who was not only great as a general but also a thorough gentleman, upright, truthful, courageous, untiring in organising power and steadfast even in the darkest periods of the War.

The international situation too, was unfavourable for England which contributed greatly to the success of the Americans. Whatever valour and endurance, the American patriots might have, it could not achieve success by itself if no help would come from other countries. France, after the loss of Canada was waiting for an opportunity to recover part of her colony. So she made an alliance with the revolted Americans in 1778 and promised open aid. The financial assistance which France gave and the volunteers who crossed the Atlantic to fight for the colonies, was a deciding factor. England lost her command of the sea. Spain too, for the loss of Florida, Minorca and Gibraltar joined the Americans against England. The commercial jealousy of Holland led her to declare war against Great Britain. Encircled by enemies on all sides and the loss of the command of the sea, led to the capitulation of Cornwallis at York Town.

*Results of the War :*

(1) The Peace of Versailles, 1783 The treatise of Versailles of 1783 recognised the independence of America. A new nation and the first republic thus emerged out of the storm and stress of the war. Great Britain gave up Minorca and Florida to Spain and Tobago and St. Lucia in West Indies to France. Senegal in Africa and certain parts in India were also ceded to France. England retained Canada, Nova Scotia and New Foundland in America.

(2) Indirect results of the War The indirect effects of the War, however, were much more important than the direct results. The war ended with the loss of a colony for England but it gave her at the same time a worthy but costly lesson in colonial administration which ultimately led to strengthen another. She took the lesson seriously and became more successful as a colonial administrator.

France The Revolution was important for another point of view. It represented an episode in the long struggle between England and France for colonial supremacy. It produced great effects on the internal history of France as the enormous expenditure for naval and military operations made financial bankruptcy imminent, ultimately leading to the fall of the French Monarchy. The Frenchmen who assisted the Americans, came back home with the ideas of individual liberty and an intolerant attitude towards the restrictions imposed by the great monarchy. The people who fought for the freedom of a country against its king, were now, all the more ready for a revolt against their own king.

America The peace of Versailles gave birth to the first modern experience in federation. The federal constitution, which is still the constitution of the United States was put into operation in 1789 with George Washington as the first President. Very little changes have been made in the form since then except certain changes in the interpretations and usages which have given it maturer shape.

From constitutional point of view, the American Revolution gave fuller expression to the principle of the English Revolution of the 17th century. The various political institutions which the Americans put to test—such as the elected president instead of hereditary king, a written constitution based on the principle of “Checks and Balances”, separation of the Church and State, separation of powers and abolition of hereditary aristocracy and of feudalism—deeply influenced the other nations and led to its adoption. The precedent of a form of administration based on the philosophy of the 18th century—philosophy of Locke, Rousseau and Montesquieu was thus laid down.

The American government was not a pure democracy. The English Revolution of 1688 was a revolution of the middle class while the American Revolution was primarily a revolt and a triumph of the commercial class. Both the English and the Americans hated absolutism but they opposed radicalism too. Their work was, therefore, a preparation for, rather than, the actual establishment of complete democracy.

## CHAPTER VI

### The French Revolution of 1789

#### *Causes of the French Revolution :*

The great political upheaval that shook the very foundation of the old regime in France converted the history of Europe into the history of "One Nation, one event and one man." The rising of the French people against autocracy and aristocracy which began in 1789 held the sway of European affairs for a period of more than twenty years. It is hard to tell when it ended as one change led to another until the cherished dreams of liberty was realised. Based on authority, class privilege and absolute rule, the "Old regime" everywhere stood as a synonym for oppression of the masses by the aristocrats. Over this regime blew the gusts of new ideas of equality, nationality and democracy and the whole fabric of the old order tumbled to pieces in utter confusion. Tremendous changes that took place in France spread like wild fire to other parts of Europe heralding the dawn of a new age through which it passed.

The Revolution came because the Monarchy was unable to cope with the manifold domestic problems. Besides the imminent bankruptcy, there was the problem of privilege, the remains of feudalism which baffled every attempt of the government of the "ancien regime" to reform or rectify. There were plenty of inflammable materials in France during the last years of ancient regime which could set fire to the whole of Europe. All the brilliance of the rule of Louis XV could not expel the darkness that clouded the political, social and religious atmosphere. "A monarchy, at once despotic and weak, a corrupted and worldly church, a nobility growing increasingly parasitical, a bankrupt exchequer, an irritated bourgeoisie, an oppressed peasantry, financial, administrative,

and economic anarchy, a nation strained and divided by misgovernment and mutual suspicion" were the factors present in France at the end of the eighteenth century at the accession of Louis XVI, an event of no ordinary kind. Along with other abuses that led to the "Combination of grievance and indulgence, of obscurantism and enlightenment, of irritation and incentive" there was the high standard of civilisation which equally contributed to the outbreak of the Revolution.

*Absolute Monarchy :*

Political cause      The autocracy in France was more inefficient than the autocracy elsewhere. The political, economic and social systems of the old regime was medieval in character and Louis XV, though lacking in shrewdness and abilities, succeeded in spending a life of ease and self-indulgence in spite of the threatening atmosphere that burst upon his twenty years old inexperienced successor, Louis XVI.

"The most striking characteristic of the ancient regime" as Ketelbey says, "was its disorder". "A prodigal anarchy" "a debris of power" are the terms which have been used to describe that interweaving confusion of tradition, edict, law and privilege of provincial independence, feudal rights and royal power, which constituted Pre-Revolutionary France." Excessive concentration of power in the hands of the Crown meant the denial of authority to all other orders. The burden of centralisation of administrative, legislature and judicial powers led to the exhaustion of the energy of the crown which by the end of the century became more of a "slave than the lord of its own despotism".

Louis XVI, though well meaning, lacked the strength of character. Slow of sense and mind, he could not assert his own will and was never moved to action by his innate force. He was served by a number of great statesmen of exceptional ability but failed to take advantage of their service for the pressure of the nobles, who protested against the reduction of their privileges. Thus the two political ideas, monarchical and feudal, that existed side by side limited one another,

making confusion worst confounded. There was no representative system and no check on the government. Lack of uniform code of laws made privilege, concession and exemption the basis of French Society. A combination of inequality and privileges, magnified by the sale and re-sale of offices resulted in an unparalleled confusion of things. The rulers followed not principle but expediency and fell victims to their own system. Unable to modify the system or to right the wrong in which he himself was involved, Louis XVI became nothing but a *rouineant*. The situation which could be saved by a Henry IV went out of his control and the country rushed downhill to Revolution.

(2) Social cause

The old social order consisting of three classes, the clergy, the nobles and the peasantry presented a glaring contrast as the first two orders, though comparatively small in number, owned most of the land, enjoyed special social and political privileges, making the burden of the Third Estate, particularly of the peasantry, all the more heavy as they paid the bulk of taxes and had very few privileges. The ancient French maxim that "the noble fight, the clergy pray, the people pay" illuminates the position of the three Estates determined by the feudal idea even upto the end of the eighteenth century.

The Nobles

The bond of privilege that united the nobles as a group made them most irresponsible. Absenteeism was the rule but the nobles who were usually non-residents, took their rents, feudal dues and exacted corvee or labour services. Having no or little political ability, shorn of feudal duties due to the concentration of power, this class still enjoyed the right of exemption from taxation and other feudal privileges. Rights without duties created an anomalous situation which, as Professor Lodge remarks, was mainly responsible for the outbreak of the Revolution. The Revolution was directed in his opinion not against feudalism but against the "effete survival of parts of that system." The nobles got all the important offices,

commissions and privileges besides the excessive hunting privileges enjoyed by the landed aristocracy which became a standing grievance of the peasants as their crops were often injured by the hunters. The nobles were mostly excluded from business activities except maritime trade and large industrial enterprises. The bishoprics and the commissions in the army were also very few. With no duties to perform and no contributions to national resources, they were nothing but useless drag on society. Besides these feudal nobles, there was another class of nobles—the nobles of the robe—who though not treated as equal by the other class, yet increased the number of the privileged.

The Clergy                      Though very small in number, the clergy owned a proportion of land which gave them considerable economic power. Some of the bishops were economically rich and spent most of their time at Versailles neglecting their duties deliberately. The higher clergy at this time were worldly in their outlook and quite indifferent to their spiritual duties. Along with the nobility, they also formed the privileged class. Two-thirds of this rank, however, belonged to the lower class who, though furnished the spiritual guidance to the mass, profitted very little by the privileged position of the order. Such inequality and favouritism goaded this discontented group to join hand with the Third Estate. The monastic order was in a state of decay and rendered little tangible duty to the people.

The Third Estate              The vast majority of the population below the two privileged classes consisted of the bourgeoisie or the upper middle class, the artisans and the peasants. Of these the peasants alone constituted the nineteenth of the population. Hardly a million of them were serfs while others some what like lease holders or land holders had enormous feudal obligations. They had to pay feudal dues to their lords, tithes to the Church and taxes to the king besides being subjected to corvee and lettres de cachet—two of the many obnoxious laws of the old regime. Agriculture

suffered for lack of capital and the feudal system of hunting of their lords. As a class, they were cramped and over-burdened with no other prospect but starvation staring at their face.

The Middle Class This class of Third Estate consisting of the well-to-do business element, most of the intellects and the energetic section of the community, formed the intelligensia of the country. They keenly felt the social inferiority, as they were conscious of their worth and thus increased the number of the discontented mass. Their strength lay not in their monetary superiority but in their possession of those intellectuals who furnished the best materials for the Revolution. By the propagation of revolutionary creeds, the French philosophers assumed moral leadership and exerted more influence than any other factors in directing the course of the Revolution.

(3) Economic cause The glaring inequality that existed in the fiscal system became a source of constant ferment among the artisans and the peasants. Nearly the whole of the revenue of the Crown fell upon the class—the non-nobles, the non-clericals and the rural section. They provided most of the income of the Church and of the nobility as well. The oppressive system of taxation was made worse by the method of its collection by which the State very often sold the right of collection to private individuals. Thus the system exempted the rich who could pay and over-burdened the poor, least able to pay. Taxes were often increased arbitrarily in the secret session of the royal council and unfairly distributed among the highest bidder who unscrupulously extracted money from the people. A feeling of hatred strained the relation between these two classes and this feeling gradually went on increasing and ultimately led to the break-down of the whole system. Bourgeoisie though not so badly off, suffered from many restrictions on industry and trade as the king still directed mercantile policy. The chief leaders of the Revolution came from this class and “vanity rather than liberty” as Napoleon says, stimulated this section to action.

(4) Intellectual cause      The intellectual revolution brought about by the eighteenth century philosophers was greatly responsible for the outbreak of the social and political revolution of 1789. Writers of all kinds, prominent among whom were Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau, paved the way to its outbreak.

Montesquieu  
(1685—1755)      As an ardent advocate of the English constitutional monarchy, Montesquieu exposed the evils of despotism, of privileged aristocracy, corruption of the court and of the folly of the Divine Theory of Kingship. In his "Persian Letters", a satire on French society, he criticised French manners and customs and the intolerance of the Church. His views and attitude were not revolutionary but he expounded in his other book "The spirit of Laws"—the virtues of a separation of powers.

Voltaire  
(1694-1778)      Voltaire was a contrast to Montesquieu in method and temperament. A master in biting satire, he held the supremacy of reason and mercilessly attacked the abuses of the Church and of the State. His chief target, however, was the Church, the authority of which was undermined by his destructive criticism. In spite of his attack on the Church and on the State, Voltaire was neither an atheist nor a democrat. Fully aware of the dangers of popular movement, he advocated benevolent despotism and never consciously aimed at monarchy, yet "his attack on the Altar automatically weakened the Throne on which it rested".

Jean Jacques  
Rousseau  
(1712—1778)      The political outlook of Rousseau differed a great deal from that of Voltaire and he began where Voltaire left off. "Voltaire harnessed the horses of reason and Rousseau unchained the tiger of emotion." His famous work the "Social Contract" defines the inherent virtues of the "Natural Man" and inculcates the doctrine that "Man is born free. but every where he is in chains." This immortal gospel of democracy asserted the divine right of the people and the infallibility of their decision.

The political value of the works of Rousseau was so great that without it the Revolution would have taken a different course.

The ideas of these political giants spread through all classes but the upper middle class, most of whom were well-educated, were inspired more by these ideas than others and this class formed an eager audience for the radical philosophers.

The flow of ideas from the War of American Independence imbibed by the Frenchmen like La-Fayette urged them to rise in similar revolt. The successful revolt of the English colonies in America supplied intellectual antecedent to the French people and those who participated in it returned home with the ideas of revolution and republicanism and were struggling to break away from the chain of age-old customs, traditions and authority. They preached the principle of the right of revolution and the right of the people to overturn an oppressive government. "The American War of Independence echoed through France like a trumpet-call; Frenchmen had fought for the young republic, democrats had seen the theories of Rousseau put into practice and freedom established in a land of innocence, they had seen revolution succeed, and when they came back—men like La-Fayette, who had gone forth to America like a crusader to a Holy War—fired with inspiration of a practical example."

(6) Character of the kings Inefficiency of Louis XV who ruled from 1715 saddled France with autocracy and brought her on the verge of bankruptcy as the king spent money more lavishly than Louis XIV. He was neither great nor enlightened and took no pains to improve the government, or lessen expenses. Weak and frivolous, he enjoyed the privileges of his position, shirking responsibilities altogether. Louis XVI, his successor was well-intentioned, but uninterested in the art of government. He cared for the people but lacked the talent to play the king. It was always pressure from outside that moved him to action, particularly the pressure of his wife Marie Antoinette who possessed a strong personality which the king lacked. "The king had only one man

about him—his wife” says Mirabeau, which means it was the queen who steered the helm of the realm, not the king. The queen possessed no political sense or experience and had a very narrow view of life. Her influence, therefore, did more harm than good and prepared grounds for the spread of scandal and criticism which proved fatal to both of them and to France and it ultimately led to their death in the hands of their own people after twenty years of misrule and confusion. The king possessed many private virtues—honesty, piety, amiability and good sense—but he had no capacity to govern. So, for the role of benevolent despotism, the fashion set up by Frederick the Great of Prussia, Louis XVI was entirely unfit.

(7) Immediate cause      The chronic financial deficit since the days of Louis XIV, due to a series of costly wars led to the bankruptcy of the treasury. Matters were made worse during the rule of Louis XV who had neither the inclination nor the capacity to improve the state of affairs. Qui fore of the coming “deluge”, he went on along his extravagant way of living and let matters take its own course. The participation of France in the costly undertaking viz.—the War of American Independence in the days of Louis XVI, quickened the pace of the coming “deluge.” Although Louis XVI tried in more ways than one to save the situation, his best attempts failed for court intrigues and the unwise interference of the queen. The best ministers of the age like Turgot, Necker and Calonne could not save France from the impending crisis. The influence of the degenerated court, the Church and the queen made the king to withdraw support the ministers needed and the failure of the attempted reforms hastened the Revolution. The king tried one expedient after another but the situation was not improved. The only remedy was the imposition of more taxation. The Assembly of Notables which the king summoned on the advice of Calonne also could do nothing. Hopeless at mending matters, the king, on the advice of the Assembly, consented at last to summon the States-General. The call for the States-General, the elective representative of the Nation

after a hundred and seventyfive years' abeyance, is an indication of the failure of absolute monarchy and of the old regime.

*Nature of the French Revolution :*

(1) Influence of English and American Revolution . The tendencies which had set in motion the English Revolution of the Seventeenth century and the American Revolution of 1775 led to another social and political upheaval in France in 1789. These tendencies, sweeping away the injustice of the old regime, challenged absolutism and the hereditary aristocracy and set up a precedent for the oppressed to revolt against the oppressor. The great philosophers like Voltaire and Montesquieu, inspired by the philosophy of John Locke, preached in favour of a limited monarchy and Parliamentary government of the English type. The influence of the American War of Independence on the French Revolution was immense. The French volunteers fighting in America saw the theories of Rousseau applied in a foreign land and naturally craved for their application in their own country when they came back.

The French Revolution resembled the above two revolutions in its political aspect only. It was not merely a rising against the evils of absolutism but also a stand against the prevailing social and economic orders. The English Revolution was conservative in nature. It aimed at transferring political power from the landed aristocracy to the middle class doing very little to change privileges and class distinctions. Both the English and the Americans hated not only absolutism but also radicalism. Hence, their work unlike the French Revolution was conservative in nature rather than revolutionary.

(2) The Makers of the Revolution The Revolution in England was the work of the middle class and the triumph achieved was meant for the middle class only. In America too the Revolution was led by the commercial class. Similarly in France, the Revolution was initiated by the bourgeoisie or the middle class—the most educated and intelligent section of the Third Estate.

There is a great deal of controversy regarding the makers of the Revolution. Historians in general agree that it was the work of the Third Estate but opinions differ as to which section of the Third Estates—the bourgeoisie or the peasantry—it is to be attributed. Of the various factors which contributed to the outbreak of the Revolution, the class struggle for power was perhaps the most important one. It has been rightly remarked that “it is no longer but very secondarily a question of the king, of despotism and of the constitution; it is a war between the Third Estates and the two other orders.”

The pattern of society was based everywhere on feudalism composed mainly of two elements—the nobles and the serfs. There was hardly a middle class to serve as a link between the two except in France. Feudalism produced everywhere class privileges and paralysing restrictions on the peasantry. It was not possible for the ignorant and ill-educated peasantry, however, oppressed they might have been, to be conscious of the injustice and to take the lead for its removal. The bourgeoisie, on the other hand, were more enlightened and intelligent and naturally more conscious of the anomalies that existed in France and responded more quickly to the preaching of the French philosophers with which they were better acquainted than the peasantry. This class formed the wealthy section of the community and had to shoulder the main burden of taxation. They were, therefore, aware of the social, political and economic injustices meted out to them and were ready to avail of the opportunity to break into rebellion. So the middle class, as Prof. Hearn Shaw points out, took the initiative in its early stage to which the peasantry, guided by the extremity of their suffering, joined hands.

(3) It was a class-struggle for power

Society everywhere was based on feudal principles with all its harmful effects. It appears strange that the Revolution broke out in France and not elsewhere in spite of the fact that the condition of the common people was comparatively better off than their fellowmen in Germany, Spain and Russia. The

Revolution broke out in France not for the intensity of suffering but for a new unwillingness to submit to the anomalies of the old regime. Due to the influence of the philosophers, there was a change in the angle of vision of the middle class who were indispensable to the government for their general prosperity and for the innumerable administrative posts they held. In other countries feudalism was still a reality as the nobles had to render certain services for which they enjoyed special privileges. But in France, they were divested of all powers though allowed to retain exemptions and privileges. This anomaly was challenged by the middle class. They objected not only to the absolute monarchy but also to the favour shown to the idle, ill-educated nobility for whom the highest political honours were reserved. This class felt that worth and not birth should be the real test for social recognition.

(4) Destructive Characteristics of the Revolution  
 This Revolution was destructive in character as it aimed at abolishing the old order, root and branch, and bringing radical changes for the reconstruction of a new political and social system based on the principles of equality, liberty and fraternity. It was an "outburst of individualism to the political and social problems of the day."

(5) It was a matter of European concern  
 With the declaration of War with Austria the Revolution ceased to be a mere domestic affair. Originating in France, it spread like wild fire throughout Europe, breaking down the corrupt and arbitrary government and heralding a new order based on equality, nationality and democracy.

(6) A war of ideas  
 So far it was a war of bayonets, the Revolution was resisted by the reactionaries, but as a war of ideas it was irresistible. Just like hurricane, the new ideas swept away the old order based on custom, authority and privilege. The French bayonets were more efficient because they had the new ideas at their points.

(7) Excess of the Revolution  
 The condition of France was desperate and it needed desperate remedies. Many excesses were committed in course of the Revolution

for which it had been violently criticised. The Revolution in France went to excesses because of the civil strife and of the pressure from outside. Such excesses as the September Massacre and the Reign of Terror, when thousands were put to the guillotine, are hard to justify. It led to the loss of sympathy and raised a host of enemies. But with the change of time the outlook of the critics too has been changed. It is no longer regarded as a mere destructive force but as a landmark of the rise of democracy.

(8) It was a reaction against dogmatism. It was also a reaction of the secular trend against dogmatism. The industrial and professional middle class was roused by religious intolerance, the judicial abuses and social superiority of the degenerate nobility and the higher clergy. They were more susceptible to the influence of the democratic literature of the day.

(9) A middle class movement. It was a middle class movement as to this class belonged the philosophers and the leaders of the Revolution. The government that was set up was a middle class government and the Code was also meant for the middle class. It marks the entry of a new force, the Third Estate into the continental politics. As complete franchise was not achieved before the end of the nineteenth century, the triumph of democracy was the triumph of the middle class.

#### *Summary of the French Revolution :*

(1) The States-General. In 1789 Louis XVI, unable to cope with imminent financial crisis, summoned the States-General, the feudal Parliament of France. The Summoning of the States-General was significant as it was ignored at least for 175 years. It indicated the inability of the French monarchy to solve the problems of the State without the assistance of the Nation, admitting thereby that absolutism had failed to justify its existence.

(2) The National Assembly

The States-General was a three chambered Parliament consisting of the elected representatives of the three orders—the clergy, nobles and the commons or the Third Estates. It was soon converted into the National Assembly as the members of the Third Estates objected to the old system of meeting in three separate chambers and of voting by orders. They demanded that three chambers should meet in a single chamber and that the vote should be by individual and not by orders. As Necker the Finance minister allowed the Third Estates as many members as the two other orders combined, the demand if conceded, would mean transference of power from the upper class to the Third Estates. It was resisted therefore, by the two privileged orders and under their pressure the king could do nothing. The king even went so far as to close the hall in order to prevent the session of the National Assembly. This conduct of the king infuriated the Commons so much that they rushed to the neighbouring Tennis Court and under the guidance of Mirabeau took the Oath of the Tennis Court not to separate until the proposed changes were accepted. Finding further resistance useless, the king recognised the National Assembly but he had no intention to make it a permanent body. Troops were, therefore, massed near Paris for its suppression. The Commons demanded immediate dismissal of the troops but when it was refused, Paris rose in rebellion.

(3) Fall of the Bastille

There were plenty of materials in Paris for a general conflagration. The vacillating temper of the king only added fuel to the fire. The mob in fury stormed the Bastille—a royal fortress and prison, a symbol of Bourbon autocracy on the 14th July. The 14th July was a great day for the Revolution and is still celebrated as the Independence Day. It was a momentous event as it sounded the death-knell of the old regime. The "Taking of the Bastille" as the incident is known, was followed by the establishment of municipal government and a city militia or the National Guard in Paris. The Fall

of the Bastille produced tremendous effects on the provinces. Insurrections broke out rapidly throughout the country. The peasants rose in revolt every where, burnt the chateaux of the feudal lords as well as the records of feudal services. Thus on the famous "August days" feudalism was abolished in France.

The National Assembly now converted into the Constituent Assembly began the work of constructing a new political and social system for the new age. But their work was interrupted by another unhappy incident—"a second fit of revolution", known as "the March of the Women" who goaded by hunger went to Versailles, armed with weapons, to bring the royal family "the baker and the baker's wife and the baker's little boy", back to Paris. The king was hence forward practically a prisoner in the hand of the mob.

The Constituent Assembly now completed its work in 1791. The Constitution of the year 1791 announced its basic principles in the famous Declaration of the Rights of Man proclaiming—"Men are born free and equal in rights." This document is as important as the Bill of Rights of England and the Declaration of Independence of America. The new constitution made the king a nominal head of the executive with no power except suspensory veto to control the legislature. The civil constitution of the clergy secularised the Church. Reforms were introduced in the financial, judicial and administrative systems. France was divided into eighty-three departments. Thus the highly centralised France was completely decentralised. The position of the king became so critical under the new constitution that he tried to escape from Paris but was unsuccessful. His attempted flight only shook the loyalty of the people and strengthened the republican party.

(5) The Legislative Assembly which started functioning from the 1st October, 1791, was not destined to last long. The excessive distrust of the king and the rigid separation of powers made it

unworkable very soon. It passed decrees against the emigres and the non-juring clergy. It also declared war against Austria in 1792 as Austria was hostile to the Revolution and showed sympathy towards the royal family and the emigres. France, however, fared badly in the war and her defeats were attributed to the king who was suspected of being in league with Austria. The Manifesto of the Duke of Brunswick precipitated the crisis. The Parisian people rose in fury. A systematic massacre, known as the "September Massacre" was organised to get rid of the traitors within. The palace of the king was attacked and the mob forced the National Assembly to depose the king.

(6) The National Convention (1792-1795) The Convention abolished the monarchy, declared France a Republic and executed the king as a traitor. The execution of the king was "both a crime and a blunder." Louis XVI was well meaning and desirous to do good to his country but the lack of will power made him to commit many errors. But to execute him as a traitor for the weakness of character was cruel and unjust. This action also raised a host of enemies against France. The First Coalition of European powers was formed and France had to suffer from a series of defeats. Besides the foreign danger the execution of the king produced an anti-revolutionary feeling in France and she had to face the consequences of the blunder committed.

(7) The Reign of Terror The condition of France was desperate and France had to take recourse to desperate measures to avert it. Another bloody repression more murderous than the "September Massacre" known as the Reign of Terror was organised to root out all hostile elements. By indiscriminate massacre, the Terror saved the Revolution from the danger within and without. Carnot "the Organiser of victory" obtained a series of brilliant victories. Soon there was a split in the camp and the leaders grew suspicious of each other. All of them including Danton, Marat and Robespierre, the dreaded three fell victims of the

Terror. The death of Robespierre, the most active promoter of the Terror brought it to a close.

Thus the Convention saved France and the Revolution by drastic measures. It is notable not only for its destructive work but for the constructive work too. The framing of the Constitution which was long neglected was completed and a series of work for improvement of social life and national education was undertaken some of which it succeeded in completing—leaving others to Napoleon for completion.

(8) The Directory (1795-1799) The new Constitution known as the Directory worked from 1795 to 1799. It was very unpopular for its aggressive attitude. War was going on with Austria. It was in this war that Napoleon Bonaparte made himself prominent. Born on the island of Corsica in 1769, Napoleon rose to prominence by defending the Directory on the 13th Vendemiaire. He was entrusted with the Italian campaign against Austria. His brilliant victories in Italy and threatened attack on Vienna broke the First Coalition. The Treaty of Campo Formio made with Austria largely extended French influence in Europe. ••

Napoleon now conceived the bold plan of striking England indirectly to ruin her commerce. His suggestion for an attack on Egypt for the purpose was readily accepted by the Directory as the Directors grew jealous of Napoleon's power and popularity. Napoleon's Egyptian campaign, however, proved a failure. He succeeded of course in winning a victory in the Battle of the Pyramid but Nelson, the British admiral defeated him completely in the Battle of Nile. While in Egypt, he heard all about the disorders that were going on in France and leaving his army to its fate, he came back to France, organised a Coup d'etat against the Directory and turned it out of doors.

(9) The Consulate (1799-1804) The Consulate set up by Napoleon was the last phase of the Republic. It consisted of three consuls but all powers were practically concentrated in the hand of the First Consul, Napoleon, who was

made the First Consul became the real ruler of France. Henceforth the wars of revolutionary France with Europe became Napoleonic wars. Napoleon led France from victory to victory to save "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity" from the foreign foes till all the powers who formed the Second Coalition against the Directory were crushed under his weight. He now grew powerful enough to defy the Republic and proclaim himself as Emperor.

(10) The Empire (1804-1815) The French Revolution now merged completely into the career of Napoleon and the history of Europe became the history of "one nation, one event and one man". Napoleon's attempt to strike England directly failed as he was badly defeated by Nelson in the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. A Third Coalition was formed against him but by 1807, Napoleon defeated all except England. Austria was defeated at Austerlitz, Prussia at Jena and Russia at Friedland in 1807. The Treaty of Tilsit, concluded with the Czar in 1807, practically brought the whole continent at his feet. By the Treaty of Tilsit, Napoleon reached the zenith of his power. He was now the Emperor of the French, the king of Italy and the Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine. His brothers and stepson were made rulers of vassal states in Germany, Spain and Italy. The ideal of Universal Empire was thus almost realised. The Napoleonic Empire, though shortlived produced far-reaching consequences. His political creations, particularly in Germany and Italy brought significant changes in the future course of history. The Holy Roman Empire was brought to an end. The map of Germany and Italy were simplified and the influence of Austria in both these countries was undermined which in course of time paved the way for their unification under national government.

Tilsit marked the zenith of Napoleon's power but Tilsit again was the turning point of his fortune. It led him into further adventure and to blunders as well which ultimately brought his ruin. Of the blunders committed three were mainly responsible for his fall. These were the Continental System, the

Peninsular War and the Russian Expedition. The Continental System aimed at hitting British trade, rebounded upon him and involved him in a series of wars which exhausted his resources in men and money. The Peninsular War broke out when he placed his brother on the Spanish throne. It was the national rising against Napoleon that largely contributed to the collapse of his Empire. He himself has admitted that "It was the Spanish Ulcer that ruined me."

The defeat of Napoleon in the Peninsular war, encouraged the European powers to take up arms against him. Though he succeeded in defeating Austria at Wagram, his attempt to punish Russia for her refusal to abide by the Continental System ended in complete failure. The ill-fated Russian Campaign shattered Napoleon's military prestige and encouraged his enemies to combine against him once more. The Fourth Coalition was formed and the Battle of Liberation was started by Prussia in 1813. Napoleon was defeated and sent to Elba. He tried once more to recover his position. The "Hundred Days" that followed his escape from Elba witnessed his restoration as well as his final defeat at Waterloo in 1815. He was sent to St. Helena as an exile and died there as a prisoner in 1821.

Thus ended the great political 'deluge' with the fall of Napoleon leaving behind it a rich heritage which outlived Napoleon and the Vienna Settlement.

#### *Effects of the French Revolution :*

Prof. Riker has rightly pointed out that "The importance of the French Revolution, like that of all revolutions, could be measured only with time." The twofold characteristics of the Revolution are revealed by the results it had produced. As a war of bayonets it ended in failure with the fall of Napoleon in the Battle of Waterloo, but as a war of principles, the Revolution has become an eternal challenge to the reactionaries of all ages and of all time.

It fell short, no doubt, of achieving many of its high ideals. The scenes of the Terror had shocked the world and aroused

hatred against it. Many crimes had been committed in the name of liberty and thousands had been put to the guillotine without discrimination. Still it is hard to deny that the Revolution was an event of great value. The immediate and the ultimate effects it had produced withstood the ravages of time and the forces it had let loose have become the heritage of mankind.

France, the chief centre of the upheaval was naturally affected by its immediate results but the moral effects of the Revolution influenced all the countries alike. Liberty, equality, fraternity, democracy and nationality were the watchwords of the Revolution, and they had too many magnetic power to be resisted and could only be temporarily checked. They entered so deeply into the consciousness of the people that a struggle of about half a century could not root them out. The idea that the Revolution was a mere passing storm proved illusory and the calm that followed the defeat of Napoleon was purely temporary. The forces were too strong to be overcome and the champions of the old regime, who had defeated a Napoleon had to fight in vain with their back to the wall for over forty years.

*Immediate effects of the Revolution :*

Effects on France

(1) Political

France obtained a written constitution. The monarchy that was revived was no longer an absolute monarchy. The Revolution prepared the ground for future steps to be taken for the establishment of popular government and complete democracy.

(2) Social

The Revolution which originated as a class struggle brought striking changes in society. The old system of privileges based on birth was replaced by equality before law and prominence was given to efficiency. Serfdom was abolished in the famous "August days" of 1789. Thus feudalism, the age-long institution of the Middle Ages which had outgrown its need came to an end. Protection was given to women regarding property claim and new laws of inheritance, quite modern in character, were introduced.

(3) Economic It did not bring complete economic freedom of course, but steps were taken to safeguard it.

The various social and economic reforms lessened the inequalities of wealth. Negro slavery and imprisonment for debt were abolished. The Bank of France and the "Metric System"—a new system of weight and measures gave financial security to the nation.

(4) Intellectual The influence of the French philosophers broadened man's mind and transformed him into a new being, socially, economically and spiritually. The declaration of the Rights of Man was a great document of human freedom and still stands on par with Magna Carta and similar other documents. The Code Napoleon, educational reforms and the uniformity of the institutions for all became permanent and spread all over Europe.

(5) Religious Attainment of religious freedom was another great achievement. Rationalism obtained a complete success in this field giving freedom of conscience to all, although the Catholics were given certain privileges in France.

*Ultimate results of the Revolution :*

Effects on Europe The French Revolution is more important for its far-reaching consequences than for the immediate results it produced. The ultimate results brought profound changes in Europe. Napoleon, who bestrode Europe like a Colossus, spread the revolutionary ideas all over Europe at the point of his sword. The ideas of Universal Empire was partly realised. It made the Frenchmen, Germans, Italians, Croats and the Poles live under the same laws and institutions. Though the Empire was short-lived, it had great political significance as it served as a means for the spread of Napoleonic institutions and it deeply impressed the whole of Europe. Efforts were made by the big powers to trample under feet the new ideas and to enthrone autocracy once more but "no country that had been touched by the

French influence became ever again quite what it had been before."

*Significance of the political creations of Napoleon :*

The Revolution was not a mere domestic concern. The ideals of political liberty and nationalism penetrated too deeply into the mind of the Europeans. By the erection of the kingdom of Italy, the restoration of the part of Poland and the simplification of the map of Germany, Napoleon removed the international barriers and paved the way for the triumph of nationalism all over Europe. Belgium, Italy, Germany and the Balkan Peninsula broke away from the arbitrary despotism. Everywhere, there was an undercurrent hope which made itself felt in subsequent revolutions. The Vienna Settlement which tried to re-adjust the map of Europe on the Pre-Revolutionary principles of legitimacy, autocracy and conservatism was broken into pieces within two decades. The problems propounded by the Revolution could not be solved by the defeat of Napoleon. The history of Europe in the later half of the 19th century was the history of undoing the Vienna Settlement and the realisation of the ideals which the revolutionary France was trying to achieve since 1789.

(1) Triumph of Nationalism

(2) Legacies of the Revolution

The legacies of the Revolution were inherited not only by France but by the world in general—France being the spokesman of the human race. Personal liberty was secured by the abolition of serfdom leading to the gradual enfranchisement of all. Popular government was set up in majority of states, big or small, by the end of the nineteenth century.

Abolition of social privileges led to the establishment of social equality, the bloody excesses sweeping away the evils and anomalies brought blessings not only to France but to all.

(3) Napoleon's services to Europe

The contributions of Napoleon to future generations were indeed great. It is true that in the field of Waterloo, his star had set for ever. But Napoleon—the Man of Destiny, who helped

to free humanity from many of its burdens—is still regarded as a mighty hero. It is hard to agree with H. G. Wells that Napoleon was a wrecker and an adventurer and to believe that he did nothing but inflict injury to Europe. It is true that he gave France “ten years of glory and the humiliation of a final defeat.” Still it is very difficult to evaluate a man like Napoleon on his failures alone. Almost like a force of nature with extraordinary genius and magnetic power—he towered over his generation. Just like all men he was also a mixture of greatness and littleness, good and evil and ultimately fell a victim to the very weaknesses of his system. But in spite of all his defects and drawbacks, he helped in preserving the ideals of the Revolution and carrying them on to other countries. He preserved the ideals of the Revolution and spread them all over Europe.

The Code Napoleon, the idea of religious toleration, financial and educational reforms and various other public work found new and effective expression in Europe. Impetus was given to the constitutional and national form of government and the evolution of the English political system since the early nineteenth century marked an era of Parliamentary reform in England. Wherever his power was established, Napoleon introduced social equality, and from this point of view the French Revolution can be characterised as “equality on the march.” His social reforms, particularly the Code Napoleon, justified his claims to be a ‘child of the Revolution.’ It has been rightly remarked that as “the last of a series of benevolent despots” and “the first of great modern statesmen,”—Napoleon embodied in himself a period of transition.

Ultimate  
triumph  
of the new  
ideas

Napoleon carried out in part some of the fundamental principles of the French Revolution to Europe. Liberty, equality, democracy and nationalism had made notable advancement by the Revolution and the history of Europe since 1815 has been the history of the triumph of these new ideas.

## CHAPTER VII

### The Unification of Italy and the Unification of Germany

*General condition of Italy and Germany :*

For centuries, Italy and Germany presented a sorry spectacle of weakness and disunion. Both the countries suffered from the foreign domination, demoralising administration and excessive provincialism. Italy, after the fall of the Roman Empire, became a mere "geographical expression", as cynically stated by Metternich after the Vienna Settlement. It consisted of a number of petty states having different forms of government without any cohesion and unity and was naturally an easy prey to foreign domination.

Germany too, an assemblage of more than three hundred states, was loosely bound to Austria which in the capacity of the Holy Roman Empire ruled over the component states. But Austria had practically no authority over these states as they held sovereign power in their internal affairs. The Holy Roman Empire, therefore, had ceased for a long time to be either Holy or Roman or an Empire. Austria and Prussia held the leading position but by their mutual jealousy kept the country always in a state of commotion.

Foreign domination, particularly the predominance of Austria and petty jealousies of the native states made Italy and Germany, the cockpit of Europe. Both the countries aspired for national unity but the greatest obstacle on the way of its realisation was the presence of Austria. So, the expulsion of Austria, the sole arbiter of the fate of these countries, was the end which they had in view. The final achievement of the goal was brought about by the same operations viz. the Austro-Prussian War and the Franco-Prussian War.

The conditions of Italy and Germany resembled each other. A study of the movements in these countries for

liberation and unification will reveal that only superficially the unification bears resemblance and that it was matched by wide difference in problems and methods peculiar to each country.

(i) *The Unification of Italy :*

Italy, a mere "geographical expression" after the Vienna Settlement, asserted the success of the principle of nationality before the end of the nineteenth century. The country being a collection of a number of petty states with different forms of government, unnaturally divided and wrongly exploited, became a bone of contention of native princes and a battle ground for the ambitious foreign rulers. Mutual jealousy and the spirit of self-aggrandisement made these states too weak to resist the foreign powers when the diplomats of Vienna guided by the doctrine of legitimacy and the balance of power, imposed the pre-revolutionary condition upon them.

Venice and Lombardy were given to Austria, Naples and Sicily to its old Bourbon rulers and Parma, Modena and Tuscany were restored to the princes belonging to the House of Hapsburg. Of the eight States into which Italy was divided, only one State viz. Sardinia-Piedmont had a national ruler. Foreign predominance, particularly of Austria, was the characteristic feature of Italian history in the first half of the nineteenth century. The presence of the Papal states made the Italian problem more difficult. The Pope had his headquarters in Italy and not only he ruled over his own states but also over the whole Catholic World as the religious Head of the Church.

The situation, however, was too unjust to last long. The Vienna Settlement has condemned Italy back to her old groove. To remain in this state of ignominious servitude for ever was unthinkable even for a country where, as Metternich stated—"provinces are against provinces, towns against towns, families against families" and "men against men."

The influence of the French Revolution had awakened the country from the stupor and aroused in the minds of the

Italians a desire for self-government. The Italians hailed Napoleon as their deliverer and joined with him to chase the Austrians out of Italy. Their hope, however, was rudely shaken when they found Napoleon assuming the crown of Italy. The Napoleonic regime proved ultimately a blessing in disguise. Under the French banner, most of the petty states disappeared with all their petty jealousies and prejudices. Napoleon's rule gave administrative security and the simplification of the map paved the way for national unity in future. Thus an impulse in the direction of freedom and national organisation was imparted by the French Revolution to Italy which was not nationally conscious till its outbreak.

The Carbonari uprising of 1820-21

The commanding position which Austria held by the Vienna Settlement over the petty tyrants left little room for the progress of liberalism and constitutionalism in Italy. The disappointment of the Italians was heightened by the stern attitude of the restored princes and patriotism having found no expression, the constitutional agitations were driven underground. Secret societies like the Carbonari were formed. The Carbonaris took opportunity of the revolution of Spain and broke out in open rebellion forcing the rulers of Naples and Piedmont to grant constitutions. These revolts were put down by Austria and the kings were restored to their former position.

Effects of the July Revolution of 1830

The failure of the carbonaris made it clear that a stronger creed was needed for the fight for national freedom. The tremor of the July Revolution of 1830 reached Italy. Parma, Modena and some Papal states rose in rebellion. Austria once more came to the assistance of the princes and put down the flames of insurrections everywhere. Thus the national aspirations of the Italians were twice baffled by the Austrian intervention. The risings, however, were not complete failure as they exposed the internal weakness of the princes who could maintain their position only with foreign aid. It was a costly lesson but it helped the Italians to achieve success at the end,

Expulsion of Austria was the goal of all these movements. Though united by this common purpose, the Italians were divided in their opinions regarding the ideals of government and the methods of achieving it. There were three prominent schools of thought suggesting three different ways as the best plan for national organisation. Mazzini who was the first to take the lead in the struggle for independence after the failure of the Carbonari movement, was a revolutionary. He wanted to set up a republic by revolutionary methods. The second school of thought headed by Gioberty wanted a federation of Italian states with the Pope as its president, while the third party was in favour of constitutional monarchy for all Italy under the House of Savoy.

The Carbonari rising of 1820 failed to achieve anything except expressing deadly hatred of the Italians against the foreigners. The rising of 1830 also proved a failure for lack of co-operation. The Italians were not nationally conscious as yet. Spasmodic plots and revolts, therefore, failed to produce any effect except increasing anti-Austrian feeling. The failure of all these movements intensified the need for a more generous creed and it was supplied by Joseph Mazzini, the founder of the "Society of Young Italy." Born in 1805, Mazzini served at first as a Carbonaro and was imprisoned by the Piedmontese government. Within his prison cell of Savona he saw the vision of regenerated Italy and heard the call to leadership. This ardent young patriot founded the Society of Young Italy after his release. "God, the people and Italy", were the cries of the Society. Education, literary propaganda and insurrection, if necessary, were its methods and the conversion of an idea into a popular cause was its achievement. He believed that revolution to be successful must be preceded by renaissance. The society must be an educative body and not a mere band of conspirators. He added moral and intellectual fervour

to the society and a self-sacrificing sense to the ideals of nationality, giving definite shape to it. Thus, by inspiring the youths and kindling their enthusiasm, Mazzini kept alive the spirit of patriotism. Though great as a thinker, he lacked in practical knowledge and failed to realise that Italy alone can not fend for herself. The frequent risings organised by him in different parts failed to achieve anything. But inspite of the apparent failure, great services were rendered by Mazzini to the cause of Italian unification. Garibaldi has truly observed that "He alone watched when all around slept"—"he alone kept and fed the sacred flame." This prophet of Italian Resorgimento was called for leadership during the revolution of 1848 by the Republican party and succeeded temporarily to set up a republic in Rome.

The Revolution  
of 1848

The Revolutionary wave of 1848 shook the whole peninsula and people and the princes rose together to shake off the Austrian hegemony. Urged by Count Cavour, the editor of Risorgimento, Charles Albert, the king of Piedmont-Sardinia put himself at the head of the national movement and joined Venice and Lombardy in driving out the Austrians. Democratic excitement surged all over Italy. Every where the people forced their rulers to grant constitution. The Pope Pius IX, impressed by the liberal sentiment, introduced many reforms. Though Metternich, the Prime Minister of Austria and the guiding spirit of the Vienna Settlement, believed that a "liberal Pope was a natural impossibility" still he was alarmed at the reform movement initiated by the Pope. The democratic movement was soon converted into a national war of independence. At the news of the flight of Metternich, Milan, Venice and Lombardy rose against Austria and the Austrian authority seemed to be on the very verge of collapse. Demands were made for the termination of Austrian dominion and Charles Albert pressed by all declared war in 1848. The movement, therefore, was no longer a revolutionary insurrection but a national war of independence. Unfortunately Charles Albert was not fit for

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the task. Unaided by other powers he was defeated by Austria first at Custozza and then at Novara, and sick at heart, he abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel II.

The defeat of Charles Albert restored the old regime. The Pope was cured of liberal sentiment and became a strong reactionary. The triumph of absolutism brought Mazzini to the field once more. Thus in Italy "the War of the princes was finished, and that of the peoples begun". Aided by Garibaldi, Mazzini occupied Rome and declared it a republic. The Pope fled from his capital. But the news of the flight of the Pope shocked the Catholic World. Louis Napoleon, the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte and the President of the French Republic came to his rescue and restored him to the Papal throne. Thus the Revolution of 1848 collapsed in Italy. There were many causes, such as lack of co-ordination and sound statesmanship that account for its failure. The efforts, however, were not altogether fruitless as the Italians for the first time had shed blood for a common cause. The moral significance of the event was great. It had given Italy not only a cause but also a "dynasty to represent it and a people to defend it."

### *The Progress of Unification (1850-70)*

The national cause, however, survived the apparent shipwreck of 1848-49. The period of aspiration and disappointment was soon followed by an era of achievement after the Crimean War. "Out of the mud of the Crimea a new Italy was made, and less obviously, a new Germany." The union of Italy was the first fruit of the Crimean War. After the abdication of Charles Albert, all Italy now looked up to Victor Emmanuel II, a brave soldier, a sincere patriot and an honest king as their deliverer. Piedmont now became the centre of Nationalist hopes as it was the only country with a constitution under a National ruler. It had fought for a cause and it possessed Count Cavour, one of the greatest statesmen and diplomats of the nineteenth century as its minister.

Count Cavour 1810-61

Count Cavour had confidence in himself and in his people. "I cannot make a speech but I can make Italy", he said about himself. The failure of the previous movements convinced him that plots and revolts would not advance Italian cause. So when he was made the Prime Minister in 1861, he gave up the old methods and devised new plans and tactics for the deliverance of Italy from Austrian yoke. He was the first statesman to recognise that Italy could not fend for herself and that two things, above all, were required for her emancipation, first the great end could be achieved by foreign support and secondly the union should be made under the House of Savoy. Sympathy and active support of the great powers should be sought, for which the Italian question must be lifted out of the domestic politics of Austria and converted into a European concern. His second object of making Piedmont a model state was not less difficult than the first one. It was equally difficult to bring the Italian cause before the political consciousness of Europe and to secure foreign aid.

The Crimean War

Cavour's home policy was as brilliant as his foreign policy. He set himself to the hard task of developing the resources of Piedmont to the utmost to make it an ideal state politically and economically. Thus reformed and regenerated from within, Piedmont soon came to occupy a commanding position in Italy and set out for the task awaiting her. But the task of liberation and unification in which Piedmont was to lead could be done only with foreign help and Cavour was impatiently waiting for an opportunity. When the Crimean War broke out, Cavour saw his chance and made Piedmont to take part in the war against Russia, though Piedmont had no interest in the Eastern Question and had no quarrel with Russia. It was a great diplomatic stroke, almost a leap in the dark, a bold gamble in politics. Cavour's master stroke was rewarded by the brilliant victories obtained by the Piedmontese troops in the Crimean War and the admission of Cavour to the Congress of

Paris in 1856. In spite of the opposition of Austria, Cavour was allowed to speak for the whole of Italy. The account of the unhappy condition of Italy aroused the sympathy of the Italians and particularly of Napoleon III, the Emperor of France. Cavour thus achieved his aim. Italian independence had become a matter of European concern and Napoleon III had pledged himself to its support.

The Compact of Plombiers Napoleon III of France, who was once a Carbonaro particularly moved by the plight of Italy made a pact, known as the Pact of Plombiers two years after the Congress of Paris. By this pact he agreed to fight for Italy against Austria and was to get Nice and Savoy as the price of his aid. The pact was cemented by a matrimonial alliance between the two royal families.

The Austro-Sardinian War 1859 The Austro-Sardinian war which Cavour so ardently desired broke out in 1859. Austria was provoked in such a way that she appeared to be an aggressor. The ultimatum she sent to Piedmont for disarmament was used as a pretext for war for the defence of the country. Napoleon's qualms were satisfied and he declared war against Austria. Aided by the French troops, the Sardinian army advanced towards Lombardy, defeating Austria at Magenta and Solferino. But unfortunately Napoleon III suddenly cried halt in the midst of victory without consulting Piedmont and made a truce with Austria at Villafranca. It was so disappointing that Cavour became furious and advised Victor Emmanuel not to accept the Treaty of Zurich which confirmed the armistice of Villafranca. He threatened resignation when Victor Emmanuel preferred to follow waiting policy rather than to lose all by rashness. His sound judgement saved the situation and furthered the progress of Italian unification.

Treaty of Zurich By the Treaty of Zurich, Austria ceded Lombardy to Sardinia. Thus the first step in the direction of Italian unification was taken. Napoleon III could not press for Savoy and Nice as he did not

pursue the war to the end. There were many reasons to account for the sudden halting of Napoleon III. He was in favour of Italian liberation but he was against the idea of unification as he apprehended that a strong undivided Italy would be dangerous as a neighbour. Besides he was afraid of the hostility of the Prussians and of the Catholic party in France.

Annexionist Movement . . . But the situation was not as hopeless as Cavour thought. The news of the evacuation of Lombardy aroused patriotic enthusiasm among the central duchies of Parma, Modena, Tuscany and some of the Papal states. Everywhere the people voted for their annexation with Piedmont. The policy of non-intervention adopted by England saved further complication. France was won over by the offer of Nice and Savoy. Thus the second great step in the union was taken by the annexation of these duchies.

Garibaldi 1807-82 . . . The third stage in the liberation of Italy is associated with the name of Garibaldi. Garibaldi, the knight-errant of Italian Independence, fought on many occasions for the freedom of his country. "Like a Norse-God, with his giant strength and golden shining hair, his simple, romantic nature, his magnetic power and adventurous sword, the heroic figure of Garibaldi appears and reappears in Italian history." He was born in 1807 at Nice. He had great regards for Mazzini and offered his services to him for the defence of Rome. Though at heart a republican, he fought against Austria under Charles Albert as well.

Conquest of Naples and Sicily . . . He was approached by the conspirators of Sicily for help in their contemplated insurrection against the Bourbon ruler Francis II. Cavour gave secret help to Garibaldi and his men, the Red Shirts. Open encouragement was not possible as the two governments were on amicable terms. Cavour had been criticised for the underhand dealings and his unscrupulousness. But whatever he did was done for a great cause—the cause of his country.

Garibaldi with his Red Shirts, hardly a thousand men

crossed over to Sicily and was hailed with delight by the Sicilians. His brilliant victories in this island made him dictator of this place within three months. Garibaldi, however, refused to annex Sicily to Piedmont immediately as he had his own plan and no confidence on Cavour. He next came to Naples where the king Frances II fled at his approach and Naples was conquered without trouble. Garibaldi's brilliant successes presented to Cavour an embarrassing problem. He had no confidence on Garibaldi for his republican principle. He was now determined to take the matters in his own hands to free Italy not only from the foreigners but also from "evil principles and mad men." He forestalled Garibaldi by advising Victor Emmanuel to occupy the Papal states before the approach of Garibaldi to the Papal territory. It was a race not only between Garibaldi and the royal troops but also a race between the monarchy and the republicanism. In the meanwhile plebiscites were held in Naples, Sicily and the Papal states and everywhere people showed an overwhelming desire for annexation to Sardinia. Cavour's position was, therefore, stronger than that of Garibaldi. Faced with these accomplished facts, Garibaldi had no other alternative but to surrender his power and army to Victor Emmanuel. He formally resigned his dictatorship. After his resignation he returned to his island of Caprera with a bag of seeds for his farm as his only spoil. With rare selflessness, he allowed his loyalty to the Crown to triumph over his principles and personal desires.

The annexation of Naples, Sicily and the Papal states almost completed the unification of Italy. Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed the king of Italy in 1861. Except Rome and Venice, the whole of Italy was united with a liberal constitution under a national ruler. Thus Cavour's dream was realised. He died shortly after, worn out with intense strain for the "race of victory."

Annexation of Venice and Rome

Venice and Rome were the two states that remained to be united after 1861. Victor Emmanuel again adopted a waiting policy

and these two places were annexed as the result of the two great wars that took place in 1866 and in 1870. He joined with Prussia in the great Austro-Prussian war of 1866 and in spite of the defeat of the Sardinian army at Custozza and off Lissa, he was rewarded with Venice after the great victory of the Prussians at Sadowa.

The Franco-Prussian War that broke out immediately after Sadowa compelled Napoleon to withdraw the garrison from Rome which was posted for the protection of the Pope against the Italian Government. Rome thus became defenceless and Victor Emmanuel, taking this opportunity, occupied it. The acquisition of Rome completed the unification—"a thing accomplished by Mazzini's moral enthusiasm, Garibaldi's sword, Cavour's diplomacy and Victor Emmanuel's tact and good sense."

#### *The Makers of Italy :*

Cavour's work as one of the makers of modern Italy can hardly be over-estimated. It has been rightly remarked that "Italy as a nation is the legacy, the life work of Cavour."

At the same time, it must be admitted that "no cause was more blessed in leaders of devoted patriotism and of excellent though dissimilar parts than that of the Italian Risorgimento." Mazzini, an unpractical apostle, could inspire and Garibaldi, a soldier, might have been a martyr of fruitless struggle and ill-guided enthusiasm without the master-brain of Cavour, the real creator of Italian unity. The sound judgement of Victor Emmanuel too was of great consequence. It saved great crises many a time when the rashness of Cavour could spoil everything. Without his support and sober common sense Cavour could not accomplish his work. The trinity of great names, Mazzini, Garibaldi and Cavour, stand in the forefront of Italy's deliverance after three centuries of apathy into which she sank since the days of the Renaissance were over.

#### *(ii) The Unification of Germany :*

The Unification of Germany like that of Italy was the most successful assertion of the principle of Nationality in the nineteenth century. The history of the two countries ran on

parallel lines during the period between 1815-50. In both, the history consisted of disunion, foreign domination and apparently fruitless struggles. In both, the great obstacle to unity was Austria and for both the expulsion of Austria was the ultimate goal.

Pre-Revolution-  
ary condition Since Waterloo, nowhere the strength of Napoleon was greater than in Germany and nowhere was reaction against his dominion more far-reaching in its consequences than in this country. On the eve of the French Revolution, Germany presented a sorry spectacle of three hundred sovereign states loosely bound together with a vague allegiance to Austria, whose ruler, in his capacity as the Holy Roman Emperor, had a nominal hold over Germany. As the Empire ceased to be either Holy, or Roman long ago—it had very little hold on the component states. The two biggest powers Austria and Prussia were deadly rivals and ready to fly at each other at the slightest pretext.

Napoleon's  
political  
creations Napoleon's reconstruction of Germany enlarged the smaller states at the expense of the bigger states like Austria and Prussia. The confederation of the Rhine destroyed the Holy Roman Empire. The map of Germany was simplified by reducing the number of states from three hundreds to twenty. The simplification of the map brought the prospect of federal unity within the range of possibility. The old Germany, thus, was gone for ever. By removing international complications and introducing beneficial changes for better government and higher social life, Napoleon unconsciously took a large step towards German unity and the making of modern Germany.

The Vienna  
Settlement Germany greatly contributed to the fall of Napoleon. But her sacrifices to the cause of freedom were forgotten and ignored when the Vienna Settlement was made. No attempt was made by the rulers to satisfy the legitimate desire of the people for national unity. The Vienna Settlement organised Germany into a loose confederation of thirty-nine states with a Federal Diet under the Presidency of Austria. The Diet consisted of the

delegates appointed by different states. It did not represent the people and lacked executive power. The excessive particularism of the smaller states prevented every attempt at concerted action. Rivalry of Austria and Prussia, selfish jealousies of the German princes and the influence of Metternichism which made Austria, the arbiter of the fate of Germany, were the features of the history of Germany after 1815. Thus the settlement in which the people counted for nothing, was most disappointing to the German liberals. But the sentiment of nationality could not be wiped out for ever. The national aspiration began to centre round Prussia. Of the two states, the position of Prussia was stronger than that of Austria because of her admirable administration, efficient military system and the German character of her population while Austria was inherently weak for the non-German character of her population. It was purely an imaginary name for a jumble of races and languages over which Metternich set up absolutism by the policy of "divide and rule." The first reaction against his "chinese principle of immobility" was organised by the students and professors in 1819. Metternich issued the Carlsbad decrees which dissolved student's societies and gymnastic establishments. A strict censorship of the press was set up and the professors and the students in the Universities were kept under close watch by 'Curators' who were practically Government spies. Thus the liberal reactionary agitation was suppressed and the political quietude remained undisturbed until 1848.

The Carlsbad  
Decrees  
(1819).

Two different movements, one democratic and the other Nationalist in character, were taking place during the years after the Vienna Congress. The aim of the first was the establishment of representative government in the different states of the confederation and the aim of the second was German unity. The democratic element was suppressed whenever it tried to raise its head as long as Metternich dominated over European destiny. But Metternich's calculation

was upset by two other unexpected developments viz. the Zollverein or the Custom Union embodying the revised tariff policy with Prussia at its head and Pan-Germanism which brought a revolution in the realm of ideas. Based on practically free trade policy, the first aimed at removing the tariff wall amongst its members. Thus a strong economic union with Prussia at the head was made which included almost all the German states except Austria. The political value of the union was not realised at the time. "It was a direct preparation for the Empire of 1870."

The second movement was a great literary outburst in which men of letters, the poets and the professors like Fichte, Hegel, and Stein made Pan-Germanism articulate. It was a renaissance of German Universities at Berlin, Breslau, Bonn, Munich, Leipsiz and elsewhere which, like the intellectual revival of France in 1789, extolled the idea of German Nationalism.

The shock of July Revolution of 1830 spread all over Germany. People forced the smaller states to grant constitution but the bigger states remained steadfast to the principle of absolutism. But Germany was greatly affected by the Revolution of 1848. Metternich's remark that "when France catches cold all Europe sneezes" though cynically expressed, was true. The wave of the Revolution swept all over Germany, forcing all the states to grant constitution.

The liberal elements in Germany made an earnest efforts to achieve national unity. For that purpose a parliament met at Frankfurt to draw up a constitution for United Germany. The crown of United Germany was offered to Frederick William IV

of Prussia. But his refusal to accept the crown offered by the people which he regarded as the "crown of shame" frustrated the hope of the Nationalists. Had the Frankfurt Assembly succeeded in its historic mission, the history of Germany would

have been quite different one and there would have been no Sadowa and Sedan. It is true that the Frankfurt Parliament failed for the lack of co-operation of the Prussian king but there were other factors too which contributed to its failure. The Parliament was not composed of the right type of men. The failure was followed by the restoration of old German Confederation but people still clung to the idea of unity and turned to Prussia as the only possible leader of German unity. This was because of her contribution to the War of Liberation and to the national victory. The Zollverein had also given her economic leadership. Although the policy of Frederick William IV was vacillating, yet it did not undermine the confidence of the people on Prussia's "German mission." The king did not wholly abandon the idea of German unity and voluntarily gave the people a constitution which allowed the Prussian people a share in their government. He put forward a scheme of his own and persuaded four kingdoms—Hanover, Saxony, Wurtemberg, and Bavaria to form a Union with

Prussia and the smaller states of Germany. A Parliament was held at Erfurt but the attempt at the union was frustrated by the intervention of Austria who now, recovering from the shocks of the revolution, forced Frederick William IV to abandon the scheme.

The Union of Erfurt

The king had to sign the humiliating Convention of Olmutz in 1850 and to bow his head before Austria. The Convention declared the triumph of reaction and restored the old Federal constitution unaltered. Frederick William IV never recovered completely from the shock of the humiliation. Thus no substantial work was done before the accession of William I and the appointment of Bismarck as the Minister-President.

William I

Prussia entered upon a new phase with the accession of William I, the "Prince Cartridge", a practical, soldierly gentleman. Like true Hohen-Zollern, he believed that Prussia's destiny was dependent on her army. So he wanted army reform above everything. But his proposal

for army reform was rejected by the Diet which wanted to have constitutional reform first. A deadlock, therefore, ensued between the king and the Diet. The king was determined either to have the army reform or to abdicate, if thwarted. At this crisis, he asked Bismarck, a resolute adherent of the royal cause, to head the ministry. Bismarck accepted the office in 1862 with a pledge to carry out the plan of the army reform.

Otto Von  
Bismarck  
(1815-98)

Just like William I, Bismarck was an enemy of liberalism and had strong faith in Prussian monarchy. He did not like the idea of merging Prussia in Germany and hence was overjoyed at the failure of Frankfurt Parliament, as well as of the Erfurt union. Before his appointment as the Minister-President, he served Prussia in various capacity. For eight years he represented Prussia at the Federal Diet and studied the various problems of Germany. His thorough knowledge in German politics which he gained at Frankfurt, helped him to arrive at a definite conclusion regarding the ultimate object of Germany. "Germany is too narrow for Austria and Prussia"—was his conclusion and hence Austria should go to make room for Prussia in Germany. So he aimed at the expulsion of Austria from Germany and started working on that line as a representative at the Federal Diet and also as an ambassador to Russia and France. He studied accurately the character of the two rulers and succeeded in securing the good will of the ruler of Russia and in gaining an insight into the complex character of the French ruler.

Policy of  
"Blood and  
Iron."

His first duty as Minister-President was to end the deadlock between the King and the Parliament. "Germany," he said, "is looking not to Prussia's liberalism, but to her power. The great questions of the day will not be decided by speeches and majority resolutions but by blood and iron." He was criticised as a "bully and an absolutist" but that did not move him from his path. He carried out the army reform without the help of the Lower House fighting with the Parliament for four years with his back

to the wall. "We give Herr Bismarck one year" was the ultimatum of the opposition but he was to stay there for twentyeight years, fighting three wars within nine years, ousting Austria from Germany and uniting Germany under Prussian hegemony. He was an opportunist and an artist in politics and bestrode over German politics like a Colossus ejecting Austria and overcoming France by violence with the help of the army.

The end which Bismarck sought was accomplished by three wars—war with Denmark, war with Austria and war with France. The unification of Germany was the result of the policy of "blood and iron" carried out by Bismarck in the above three wars which were mainly the outcome of his diplomatic ingenuity and unscrupulousness.

The war with Denmark arose out of the Schleswig-Holstein Question which gave a pretext to Bismarck to pick up a quarrel with Austria.

These two duchies formed the southern part of Jutland and were united with Denmark by personal union. They were to remain separate and not to be incorporated with Denmark. But when Christian IX tried to incorporate them, trouble arose and Prussia got a chance of picking up quarrel with Austria. The attempt of Christian IX at "Danizing" the two duchies by closer ties was a violation of the Treaty of London. As Holstein was a member of the German Confederation, it gave Bismarck an opportunity to interfere in the affairs of the duchies and making Austria an ally for joint action against Denmark. The two powers delivered an ultimatum for the repeal of the new constitution published by Christian IX for the incorporation of the duchies. War was declared on the refusal of the king to accept it. The Danish War of 1864 did not last long. The Danes were completely defeated and the king ceded all his rights over the duchies to Austria and Prussia.

War with  
Denmark  
1864

Troubles soon arose on the question of the division of the spoil.

By the Convention of Gastein, Austria got Holstein and Prussia, Schleswig. As Holstein was encircled by Prussian territory, it was not at all advantageous for Austria to rule the duchy. This led to the violation of the Convention by Austria and Bismarck got an excellent opportunity to accuse Austria of ill-faith. The Gastein arrangement caused so much inconvenience to Austria that it was not likely to be permanent. Bismarck knew its drawbacks very well and hence commented—“We have papered over the cracks.” It was nothing but a great diplomatic stroke for him to pick up a quarrel with Austria. So, as soon as Austria demanded that the question of the duchies should be brought before the Federal Diet, Bismarck occupied Holstein by force. Not only that, he also proposed for the reform of the German Confederation on the basis of universal suffrage. Prussia thus stood as a champion of national unification. The proposal of course was turned down by Austria and order was passed for the mobilisation of the federal forces. This was exactly what Bismarck wanted. Austria appeared to be an aggressor and Prussia was justified to take up arms in self-defence.

(2) The Austro-Prussian War—1866

The Biarritz Interview (1865)

The Austro-Prussian war which broke out in 1866 lasted only for seven weeks. Bismarck made every preparation to isolate Austria before the war broke out. He made alliance with Italy and secured the neutrality of France. An interview was arranged with the Emperor Napoleon III at Biarritz who promised neutrality on the vague prospects of territorial gain either in Belgium or on the Rhine in case of Prussian victory. Italy agreed to co-operate on condition that she would get Venetia as the reward for her help. The good will of Russia was secured by the sympathetic neutrality of Prussia during the Polish insurrection of 1863. Thus Austria was isolated on the eve of the war. Most of the lesser states joined with Prussia because of her championship for national unification. The bigger states like Bavaria and Saxony who were afraid of Prussian design, joined Austria. Bismarck had another hard task to perform before the declaration of the

war. When the war was imminent, William I began to draw back as he regarded such a conflict with Austria to be a fratricidal war. So he had to win over the scruple of the king by pleadings and arguments. The Austro-Prussian War also known as "the Seven Weeks War" for its brief duration ended with the glorious victory of Prussia at Sadowa or Koniggratz. The superior military organisation of Von Roon and

Sadowa or  
Koniggratz

Von Moltke, gave Austria little chance to hold the ground. With an astonishing rapidity the war was brought to an end, the defeat of the Italian army at Custozza and off Lissa having no effect on the war. The war

The Peace of  
Prague (1866)

was concluded by the Peace of Prague. It dissolved the German Confederation and expelled Austria from Germany. She ceded Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia and recognised the North German Union with the exclusion of Austria. All the states north of the river Main formed the North German Confederation with a federal council—the Bundesrath and the popular assembly, the Reichstag. The South German States, Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden, were for the time being left to themselves.

Thus the Austro-Prussian duel was over. The significance of the war was great. It indicated the triumph of Bismarckism. Prussia emerged as a great military power. The exclusion of Austria gave her supremacy in central Europe. Bismarck the "best hated man" became a popular idol. Its effects on Italy was also great. By the acquisition of Venetia, Italy advanced one step further towards her unification. Great change was also made in Austria which was divided into two distinct halves, Austria and Hungary.

The incorporation of the South German States was essential for complete unification. A third war, and this time a war with France, was necessary. There were signs of estrangement between Prussia and France on the question of French compensation. "A war with France lay in the logic of history," was the conclusion of Bismarck after Sadowa. A National calamity like this was needed for the annexation of the South

German States. The dazzling but inconsistent foreign policy of Napoleon III soon supplied the desired pretext for a war with France.

(3) The Franco-Prussian War (1870-71) It was clear that France, like Austria, would not allow Germany to be united. The effect of Sadowa on France was serious. "It was France" cried Thiers, "who was defeated at Sadowa."

The defeat of Austria was regarded as a challenge and Prussian victory as a menace to French international prestige. The traditional policy was to keep Germany weak and divided. So, the startling growth of Prussia aroused vehement opposition and the French people became furious against Napoleon III. His failure to handle the situation to the benefit of France made his position extremely precarious. For the very security of his position something must be done. He, therefore, began by demanding compensation from Prussia. At first he asked for some territory on the Rhine, and when refused, he turned to Belgium. He was not sure of what exactly he wanted and that gave Bismarck an opportunity to put him off for the time being. Failing to obtain compensation in Germany, Napoleon III tried to purchase Luxemburg as a last bid from the king of Holland. This was again prevented and the relation between France and Prussia become more and more strained. Thrice thwarted, Napoleon realised that a war with Prussia was unavoidable. Thus, when the two countries were ready to fly to arms, a slight pretext would suffice to precipitate a crisis.

The Hohen-Zollern candidature. The immediate cause of the War was supplied by the Spanish incident. The dissolute rule of the Bourbon queen Isabella disgusted the Spanish people who rose in revolt in 1868 and the Crown was offered to Leopold of the Hohen-Zollern dynasty. As Leopold was a relation of the Prussian King, it caused indignation in France. Leopold had already withdrawn his acceptance of the Crown. Napoleon was not satisfied with it, he demanded assurance from the Prussian king that Leopold's candidature should not be renewed in future. It was a deliberate challenge

for war flung at Germany. It gave an opportunity to Bismarck to make the best and the most unscrupulous use for picking up the desired pretext. The demand was refused by the Prussian king who was at Ems at that time. A telegram from the king containing the details of the interview with the French ambassador Benedetti was received by Bismarck. He published the telegram in such a form that it conveyed the impression that the Prussian king had insulted the French ambassador. Its effect on France was what Bismarck expected. "If I do this", he said, "it will have the effect of a red rag upon the Gallic bull." France was already excited, now she decided upon a war with Germany.

Bismarck took all necessary precautions for isolating France. He treasured all the correspondence with France regarding land compensation. The publication of all these letters revealed Napoleon's insatiable hunger for land. Public opinion went against France and she came to be looked upon as an aggressor. Russia was hostile for Napoleon's intervention in the Polish revolt of 1863. Austria was also held in check by Russia. Italy aspiring for Rome, then occupied by France, refused to side with France. Thus the inter-national situation was unfavourable for the safety of the French Empire. France was regarded not only as an aggressor but also as an enemy of independence. Napoleon's last hope of alliance with South German States was also frustrated when he found them joining the opposite camp for the chastisement of the national enemy. The songs of the war of Liberation were revived and the German Nation, consolidated and united, marched together to chase another Napoleon out of Germany.

Battle  
of  
Sedan

The superior military power of Prussia and the French unpreparedness brought the Franco-German war to a speedy end. The French were beaten at Worth and Gravelotte and lastly at Sedan. At Sedan the whole French army surrendered and the French Emperor was taken prisoner. Thus the war saw the end of

**Bonapartism.** The Second French Empire came to an end and the Third or the last republic was set up under the leadership of Gambetta.

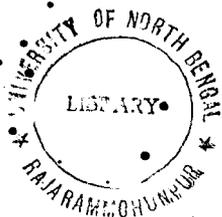
The Treaty of Frankfurt

The war was concluded by the Treaty of Frankfurt which completely undid the work of the Vienna Congress. The unification of Germany was completed. At the royal palace of Versailles, the king of Prussia was declared the Emperor of Germany. Germany was enlarged by the acquisition of Alsace and Lorraine ceded by France and the German constitution was widened to include the Southern states. It produced important effect on Italy too. Napoleon III was forced to withdraw his garrison from Rome which gave an opportunity to Victor Emmanuel to annex it. Thus the Italian unification was completed by this war.

*An estimate of Bismarck:*

Bismarck was the creator of modern Germany. His life from 1815 to 1898 practically covered the nineteenth century. He was the greatest man of the age exercising great influence not only in the history of Germany but in the history of the World. To Prussia he gave an empire and colonies and to the Germans, equal political status as that of England or France. The centre of political gravity shifted from Vienna or Paris to Berlin. His undoubted power and capacity for leadership attracted the notice of the king who sent him as a representative of Prussia in the Federal Diet at Frankfurt and in 1862, when a deadlock ensued between the king and the Parliament, he was called to assume the direction of affairs. He held his position for twentyeight years within which he fought three wars, ousted Austria from Germany, made peace with the liberals and united Germany under the Prussian hegemony. He ranks with Cavour as a Nation builder but his ideas and methods differed widely from those of Cavour. He was not an ardent constitutionalist like Cavour but a throughgoing autocrat and a loyal supporter of kingly power. German unity, he believed, would be achieved by the policy of "blood and

iron" and not by "speeches or majority decisions." His diplomatic preparation for ousting Austria from Germany and the great moderation and wisdom shown to Austria and to the South German states after the battle of Sadowa, hardly find parallel in the pages of history. As a great statesman, he had a thorough knowledge of what was ripe for developments and how to handle the situations like an artist, selecting and moulding the materials to his designs. To secure the adhesion of the South German states, a war with France was needed. So he stole a march on Napoleon and brought a war with France in such a way that France was made the aggressor. He raised Germany from an insignificant position to a dominating supremacy and maintained that position till the pilot who was at the helm of the ship of the State for twentyeight years relinquished it in 1890.



## APPENDIX I

### Books Consulted

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2. Hays, Moon and Wayland—World History, New York, 1950
3. H. A. L. Fisher—A History of Europe, London, 1946
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9. D. M. Ketelbey—A History of Modern Times. London, 1946
10. Jawahar Lal Nehru—Glimpses of World History, London, 1949
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12. Lipson—Europe in the 19th and 20th centuries, London, 1940
13. Warner and Marten—Ground work of British History, London, 1934
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17. Carter and Mears—A History of Britain, Oxford, 1943
18. Grant and Temperly—Europe in the 19th and 20th centuries, London, 1952
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20. H. G. Wells—A Short History of the World, London, 1946
21. Gregg—A Social and Economical History of Britain (1760-1950), London, 1950
22. E. Cressy—A Brief Sketch of Social and Industrial History, London, 1961
23. Lodge—The Students' Modern Europe (1453-1878), London, 1947
24. Hays and Cole—History of Europe Since 1500, New York, 1956
25. Leo Gershoy—The French Revolution and Napoleon, Allahabad, 1960
26. H. A. L. Fisher—Bonapartism, Oxford, 1957
27. J. Holland and Rose—The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era, Allahabad, 1958

## APPENDIX II

### Questions

#### *Chapter I*

1. Indicate the chief characteristics marking the advent of the modern age. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1963 A.)
2. What are the characteristics that mark the advent of the modern age? (P. U.—I. A. 1955 A.)
3. Discuss the features that mark the advent of modern age in Europe. (P. U.—I. A. 1958 A.)
4. What were the evidences of the beginning of modern times?

#### *Chapter II*

1. What were the causes of the Renaissance in Europe? (P. U.—I. A., 1953 A.)
2. What do you understand by the Renaissance in Europe? Point out its important effects. (P. U.—I. A., 1954 S.)
3. Discuss the nature and significance of the Renaissance in European history. (P. U.—Pre-University, 1962 A. Old Course)
4. Discuss the causes and effects of Renaissance in Europe. (P. U.—I. A. 1957 S.)
5. Write an account of the Renaissance in Europe. (P. U.—Pre-University, 1961 S.)
6. What do you understand by the Renaissance in Europe? Discuss its results. (P. U.—I. A. 1956 A.)
7. What do you understand by the Renaissance in Europe? Indicate its importance. (P. U.—I. A. 1959 A.)

#### *Chapter III*

1. Discuss the causes and nature of the Reformation movement in Europe during the sixteenth century. (P. U.—I. A. 1954 A.)

2. What were the principal features of the Reformation Movement in Europe ? Discuss its effects. (P.U.—Pre-University, 1961 A.)
3. Indicate the effects of the Reformation Movement of the sixteenth century. (P. U.—I. A. 1955 S)
4. Discuss the significance of the Reformation Movement in Europe in the sixteenth century. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1962A.)
5. Give an account of the Reformation Movement in the sixteenth century. (P. U.—Pre-University, 1961A.)
6. What were the causes and effects of the Reformation Movement in Europe ? (P. U.—I. A. 1956S and 1959A.)
7. Discuss the causes of the religious Reformation Movement in Europe in the sixteenth century. (P. U.—I. A. 1957A.)

#### *Chapter IV*

1. What do you understand by the "Industrial Revolution ?" What were its causes ? (P. U.—I. A. 1954 A. and 1956 S.)
2. What do you understand by the Industrial Revolution ? Estimate its effects on England. (P. U.—B.A. Part I, 1962A)
3. Discuss the causes of the Industrial Revolution in England. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1963 A.)
4. What do you understand by the Industrial Revolution ? What were its effects ? (P. U.—Pre-University, 1960A.)
5. Discuss the effects of the Industrial Revolution in England. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1964 A. and I. A. 1955 S.)
6. Examine the results of the Industrial Revolution. (P. U.—I. A. 1957S.)
7. What do you mean by the Industrial Revolution ? Why did it break out in England ? (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1965 A. and I. A. 1959 A.)
8. Discuss the nature and effects of the Industrial Revolution in England in the eighteenth century. (P. U.—Pre-University, 1964 S.)

9. What do you understand by the Industrial Revolution ? What were its effects on the social and economic life of the English people ? (P. U.—Pre-University, 1962A-Old Course)
10. Enumerate the effects of the Industrial Revolution on England. (P. U.—I. A., 1960 A.)
11. Examine the social and economic effects of the Industrial Revolution. (P. U.—I. A. 1958 A.)

*Chapter V.*

1. What were the causes of the War of American Independence ? (P. U.—Pre-University, 1960 A.)
2. Indicate the importance of the American War of Independence. (P. U.—Pre-University, 1961 A.)
3. What led to the American War of Independence ? Account for the success of the Americans. (P. U.—Pre-University, 1962A-Old Course)
4. Discuss the causes and effects of the War of American Independence. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1962 A. and Pre-University, 1962 A.)
5. Point out the reasons responsible for the success of the American colonies in the War of American Independence. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1963 A.)
6. Why did the British Government fail in the American War of Independence ? (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1964 A.)
7. Examine the effects of the War of American Independence. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1965 A.)
8. Account for the failure of England in the War of American Independence. Discuss its effects on Britain and her empire. (P. U.—I. A. 1953 A.)
9. Indicate the causes of the War of American Independence. (P. U.—I. A., 1958 S.)
10. Account for the victory of America in the American War of Independence and discuss its effects. (P. U. I. A. 1959 S.)

*Chapter VI*

1. What were the causes of the French Revolution of 1789 ?  
(P. U.—Pre-University, 1961A., B. A. Part I, 1963 A and I. A. 1957A.)
2. Discuss the nature and effects of the French Revolution of 1789. (P. U.—I. A., 1954 S.)
3. Trace the steps in the rise of Napoleon and discuss the importance of his reign in the history of France.  
(P. U.—Pre-University, 1962 A. Old Course)
4. What did Napoleon do for France ?  
(P. U. Pre-University, 1960 A.)
5. Estimate the results of the French Revolution of 1789  
(P. U.—Pre-University, 1962A.)
6. Indicate the chief results of the French Revolution of 1789.  
(P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1962A., Old Course)
7. Estimate the contributions of Napoleon to France and to Europe. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1962A., and I. A. 1956A.)
8. Account for the outbreak of war between Revolutionary France and monarchical Europe. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1962A—Old course).
9. Review briefly the career of Napoleon and indicate his contribution to France. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1962A, Old Course)
10. Indicate the contributions of Napoleon Bonaparte to France. (P. U.—I. A. 1960A.)
11. Why did the French Revolution of 1789 break out ?  
(P. U.—I. A. 1960S)
12. Point out the effects of the French Revolution of 1789.  
P. U.—I. A. 1959 S.)
13. Examine the causes and nature of the French Revolution of 1789. (P. U.—1958S)
14. What did France owe to Napoleon Bonaparte ?  
(P. U.—Pre-University 1961S)

*Chapter VII*

1. Describe briefly how Italy achieved her National Unity. (P. U.—I. A. 1955A, 1957 A. and I. A. 1953S.)
2. Assess the contributions of Mazzini, Cavour and Garibaldi to the Unification of Italy. (P. U.—B. A. Part, I, 1962A)
3. What do you know of the contributions of Cavour to the Unification of Italy ? (P. U.—Pre-University, 1961A)
4. What part was played by Mazzini, Cavour and Garibaldi in the making of Italy ? (P. U.—Pre-University. 1962A, Old Course).
5. Write what you know of the work of Mazzini and Cavour. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1962 Old Course.)
6. In what ways did Mazzini, Garibaldi and Cavour help the Unification of Italy ? (P. U.—I. A. 1959 A.)
7. Mark the main Stages in the Unification of Italy. (P. U.—I. A. 1958 S.)
8. How did Cavour unify Italy ? (P. U.—Pre-University, 1960 A.)
9. Describe briefly how Germany achieved her national Unity. (P. U.—I. A. 1954 A. and 1955 S.)
10. Point out the different stages in the Unification of Germany. (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1963 A.)
11. What Part did Bismarck play in the Unification of Germany ? (P. U.—Pre-University 1961 A.)
12. How was the Unification of Germany brought about ? (P. U.—Pre-University, 1961 A.)
13. How did Bismarck unify Germany ? (P. U.—B. A. Part I, 1965 A.)
14. Give an estimate of Bismarck. (P. U.—I. A. 1960 A)
15. Describe briefly the Unification of Germany. (P. U.—I. A. 1956 A)
16. In what ways did Bismarck help the Unification of Germany ? (P. U.—I. A. 1958 A.)

## APPENDIX III

### Chronological Table

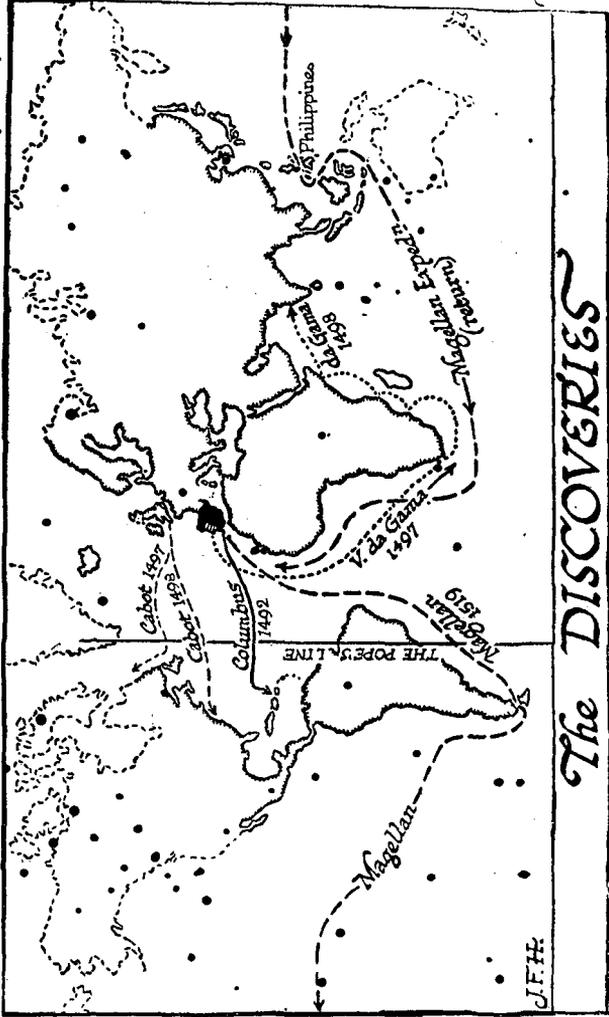
- A. D. 1272 Marco Polo visited the court of Kublai Khan.
- A. D. 1453 Fall of Constantinople.
- A. D. 1486 Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope.
- A. D. 1492 Columbus discovered America.
- A. D. 1498 Vasco da Gama sailed round the Cape to India.
- A. D. 1517 Luther attacked Indulgences.
- A. D. 1620 Mayflower Expedition.
- A. D. 1648 Peace of Westphalia.
- A. D. 1763 End of the Seven Years' War. Canada ceded to Britain.
- A. D. 1776 Declaration of Independence by the United States of America.
- A. D. 1783 Treaty of Versailles.
- A. D. 1789 The Summoning of the States-General. The storming of the Bastille.
- A. D. 1792 France became a Republic.
- A. D. 1793 Execution of Louis XVI.
- A. D. 1804 Napoleon became Emperor.
- A. D. 1814 Abdication of Napoleon.
- A. D. 1815 The Battle of Waterloo.
- A. D. 1830 The July Revolution.
- A. D. 1848 The great year of revolutions.
- A. D. 1866 The Austro-Prussian War.
- A. D. 1870-71 The Franco-German War.

## ERRATA

<i>Page</i>	<i>Line</i>	<i>For</i>	<i>Read</i>
16	32	platonie	Platonic
17	34	developmeut	development
19	4	marvellons	marvellous
21	(Side note)	Lorenz	Lorenzo
30	5	Calvini n	Calvin in
31	18	profund	profound
33	3	house of Hapsburg and the house of Bourbons	House of Hapsburg and the House of Bourbons
53	15	mollasses	molasses
54	26	parliment	parliament
56	28	Vaccilating	Vacillating
57	6	Surrender	surrender
59	27	faught	fought
65	6	intellectul	intellectuals
72	4	thansands	thousands
73	20	Separte	Separate
73	24	dismisal	dismissal
74	24	civilconstitution of the clergy	Civil Constitution of the Clergy
85	31	insurrection	insurrections
96	16	Leipsiz	Leipzig

Appendix IV

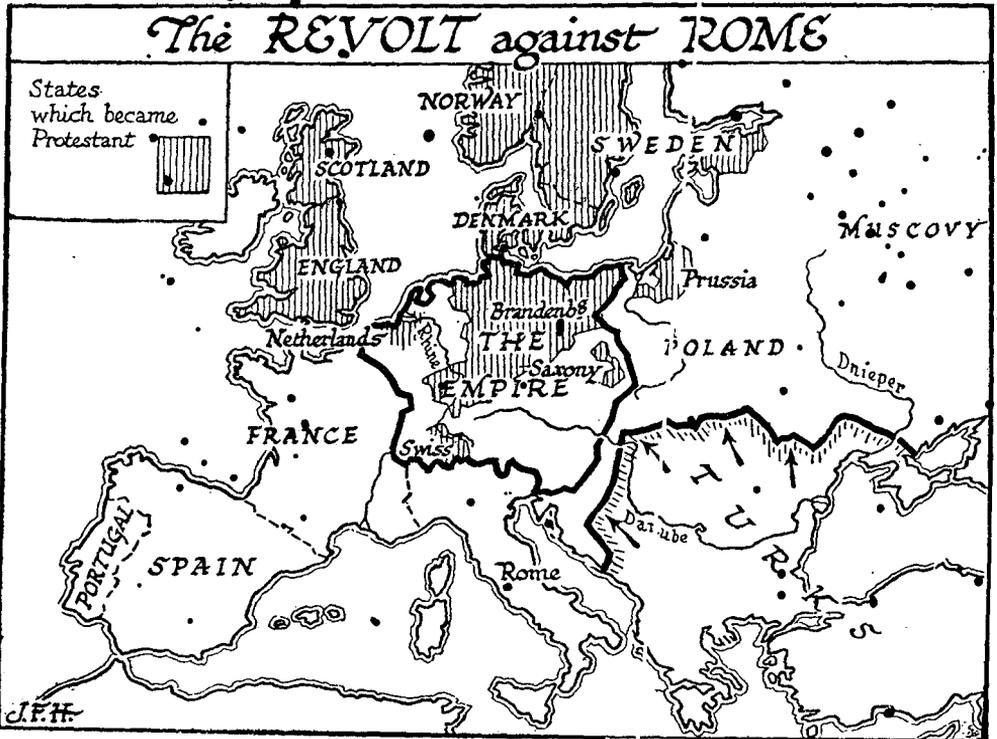
Map No. 1



Map No. 2

# The REVOLT against ROME

States  
which became  
Protestant

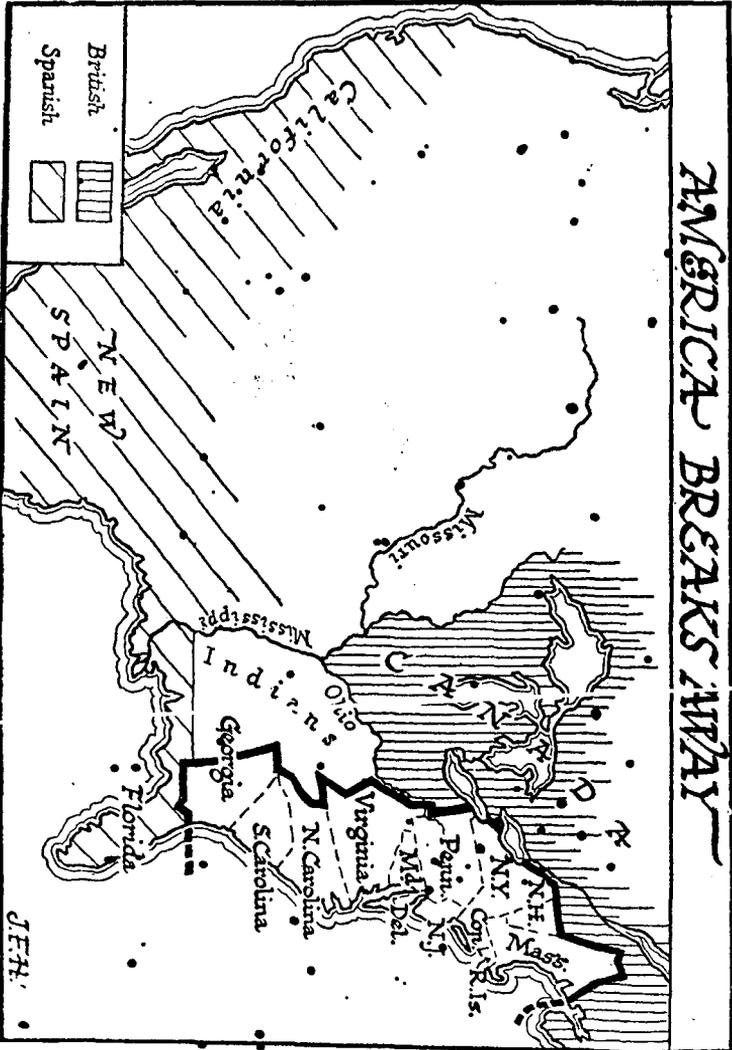


Map No. 3

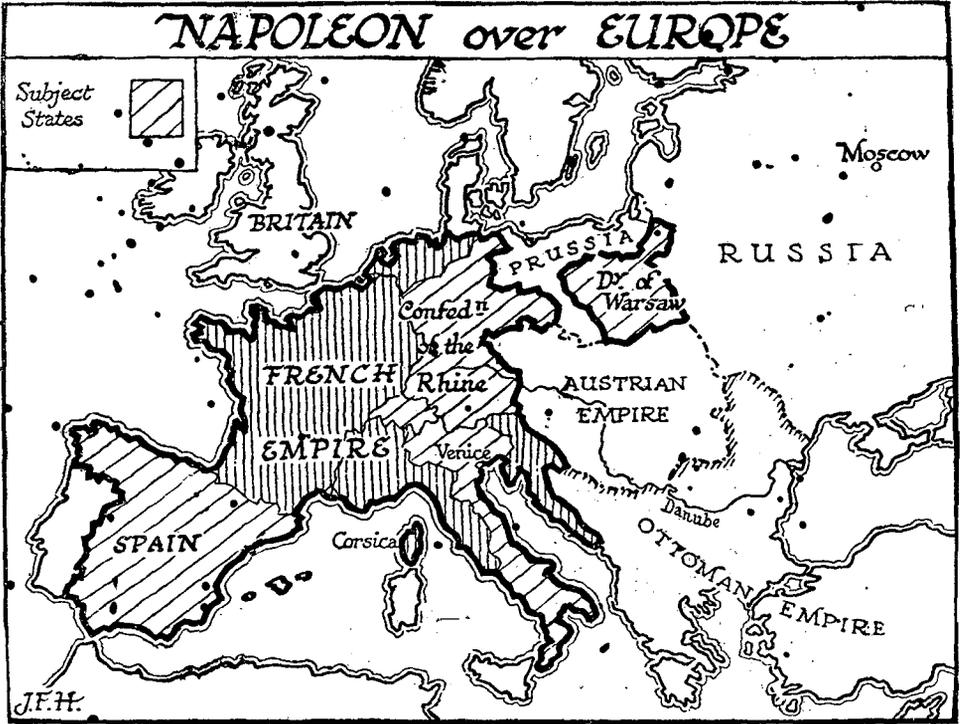


Map No. 4

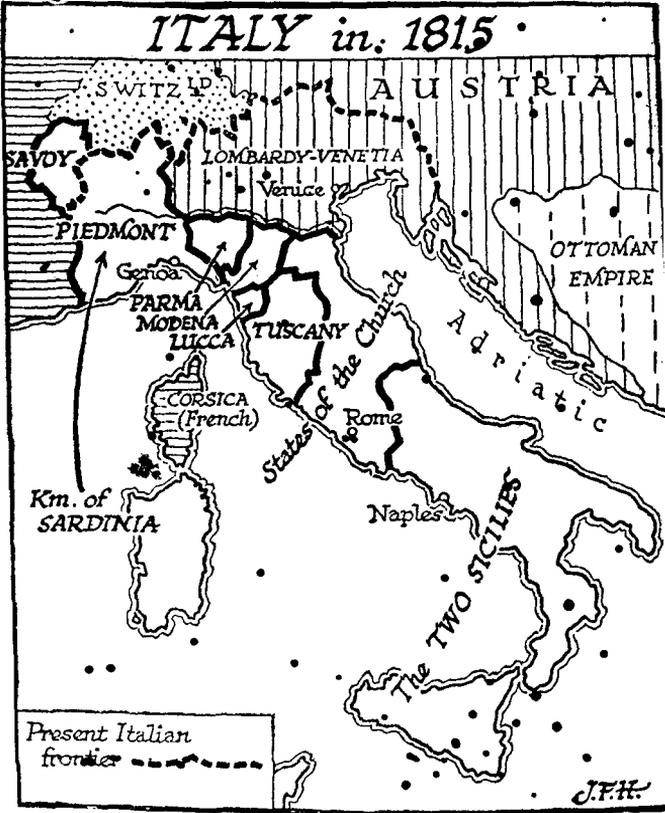
# AMERICA BREAKS AWAY



Map No. 5



Map No. 6



Map No. 7

