# AP EUROPEAN HISTORY COMPREHENSIVE STUDY GUIDE

## Contrasting the Renaissance and Later Middle Ages

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<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Renaissance</th>
<th>Later Middle Ages</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Philosophy:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Humanism</strong> – Emphasis on secular concerns due to rediscovery and study of ancient Greco-Roman culture.</td>
<td>Religion dominates Medieval thought.</td>
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<td><strong>Scholasticism:</strong> Thomas Aquinas – reconciles Christianity with Aristotelian science.</td>
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<td><strong>Ideal:</strong></td>
<td>• Virtù – Renaissance Man should be well-rounded (Castiglione)</td>
<td><strong>Ideal:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Man is well-versed in one subject and it is how to get to heaven</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Literature:</strong></td>
<td>• Humanism; secularism</td>
<td><strong>Literature:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Northern Renaissance focuses also on writings of early church fathers</td>
<td>• Based almost solely on religion.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Vernacular (e.g. Petrarch, Boccacio)</td>
<td>• Written in Latin</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Covered wider variety of subjects (politics, art, short stories)</td>
<td>• Church was greatest patron of arts and literature.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Focused on the individual</td>
<td>• Little political criticism.</td>
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<td>• Increased use of printing press; propaganda</td>
<td>• Hand-written</td>
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<td><strong>Religion:</strong></td>
<td>• The state is supreme to the church.</td>
<td><strong>Religion:</strong></td>
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<td>• “New Monarchs” assert power over national churches.</td>
<td>• Domained politics; sought unified Christian Europe.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rise of skepticism</td>
<td>• Church is supreme to the state.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Renaissance popes worldly and corrupt</td>
<td>• Inquisition started in 1223; dissenters dealt with harshly</td>
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<td><strong>Sculpture:</strong></td>
<td>• Greek and Roman classical influences.</td>
<td><strong>Sculpture:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Free-standing (e.g. Michelangelo’s David)</td>
<td>• More gothic; extremely detailed.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Use of bronze (e.g. Donatello’s David)</td>
<td>• Relief</td>
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<td><strong>Painting:</strong></td>
<td>• Increased emphasis on secular themes.</td>
<td><strong>Painting:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Classic Greek and Roman ideals.</td>
<td>• Gothic style</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Use of perspective</td>
<td>• Byzantine style dominates; nearly totally religious.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• chiaroscuro</td>
<td>• Stiff, 1-dimensional figures.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Increased use of oil paints.</td>
<td>• Less emotion</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Brighter colors</td>
<td>• Stylized faces (faces look generic)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• More emotion</td>
<td>• Use of gold to illuminate figures.</td>
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<td>• Real people and settings depicted.</td>
<td>• Lack of perspective.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Patronized largely by merchant princes</td>
<td>• Lack of chiaroscuro</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Renaissance popes patronized renaissance art</td>
<td>• Patronized mostly by the church</td>
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<tr>
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<th><strong>Later Middle Ages</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Architecture</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Rounded arches, clear lines; Greco-Roman columns</td>
<td>• Gothic style</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Domes (e.g. Il Duomo by Brunelleschi)</td>
<td>• Pointed arches; barrel vaults, spires</td>
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<td>• Less detailed</td>
<td>• Flying buttresses</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Focus on balance, symmetry and form</td>
<td>• Elaborate detail</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Technology</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Printing press</td>
<td>• Depended on scribes</td>
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<td>• New inventions for exploration</td>
<td><strong>Marriage and Family</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Divorce non-existent</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Marriages arranged for economic reasons</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Prostitution in urban areas</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Ave. age for men: mid-late twenties</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Ave. age for women: less than 20 years old</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Church encouraged cult of paternal care</td>
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<td>• Many couples did not observe church regulations on marriage</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Manners shaped men to please women</td>
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<td>• Relative sexual equality</td>
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**THE RENAISSANCE**
- Renaissance Italy: largely in Italy (c. 1300-1527)
- Origins of Renaissance: Jacob Burckhardt – historian who claimed the period was in distinct contrast to Middle Ages
- Northern Italian cities developed international trade: Genoa, Venice, Milan
  - Profits from trade led to enormous patronage of the arts

**Politics among the Italian City-States**
- Major city-states and figures
  - **Republic of Florence** (included Republic of Genoa) – Medici family
    - Cosimo De’ Medici (1389-1464): allied with other powerful families of Florence and became the unofficial ruler of the republic
    - Lorenzo “the Magnificent” De’ Medici (1449-1492): lavish patron of the arts
  - **Duchy of Milan** -- Sforza family; Caterina Sforza (1463-1509): major art patron (e.g. Leonardo da Vinci)
  - **Rome, the Papal States** – controlled by the “Renaissance popes”
  - **Naples, Kingdom of the Two Sicilies:** controlled by Spain after 1435
  - **Venice, Venetian Republic**
    - Great naval and trading power
    - Longest lasting of the Italian city-states
  - **Isabella d’Este** (1474-1539): most famous Renaissance female ruler (ruled Mantua)
  - **Condottieri:** leaders of private armies hired by cities for military purposes

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• **Girolamo Savanarola** (1452-1498)
  o After Medici were removed from power, he established a theocracy in Florence between 1494-98, with the help of France.
  o Earlier had predicted French invasions due to paganism and moral decay of Italian city-states
  o Burned at the stake in 1498 after the French were removed from Italy
• **Charles VIII** (r. 1483-1498), led French invasions of Italy that made it a battleground for international ambitions between France and Spain and effectively ended the sovereignty of most Italian city-states
• **Niccolo Machiavelli** (1469-1527) -- *The Prince* (1513)
  o Modeled *The Prince* after Cesare Borgia, Pope Alexander VI’s son who sought to unite Italy under Roman rule
  o Most influential source on gaining and maintaining power in modern European History
  o Emphasized practical politics: “the end justifies the means”; “it is better to be feared than loved”
• **Charles V, sack of Rome in 1527**: symbolized end of Renaissance in Italy

➤ **Humanism** -- Revival of antiquity (Greece and Rome) in literature
• Characteristics:
  o Revival of ancient Greek and Roman philosophy, literature, and art
  o Strong belief in individualism and the great potential of human beings
    - **virtù**: the quality of being a great man in whatever noble pursuit
  o Focused initially on studying ancient languages, especially Latin and later, Greek
  o Rejected Aristotelian views and medieval scholasticism
  o Believed in a liberal arts educational program that included grammar, rhetoric, poetry, history, politics and moral philosophy
  o **Civic Humanism**: education should prepare leaders who would be active in civic affairs
  o Often, more secular and lay dominated
• **Petrarch**
  o Saw Medieval period as the “**Dark Ages**”
  o “Father of humanism” and 1st modern writer, literature was no longer subordinate to religion
• **Leonardo Bruni** (1370-1444) – wrote history of Florence; division of historical periods; narrative form; civic humanist; first to use the term “humanism”
• **Lorenzo Valla** (1407-1457)—expert in the study of Latin; translated Roman manuscripts
• **Marsilio Ficino** (1433-1499):
  o Founded Platonic Academy at the best of Cosimo de’ Medici
  o Translated many of Plato’s works into Latin
• **Pico della Mirandola** (1463-1494) *Oration on the Dignity of Man*:
  o Emphasized that humans are capable of achieving great things and are made in God’s image;
  (contrasts medieval view of humans as insignificant and inherently sinful)
  o Major figure in the Platonic academy in Florence
• **Baldassare Castiglione** (1478-1529) – *The Book of the Courtier*
  o Perhaps most important book on education written during the Renaissance.
  o Emphasized that a Renaissance man should be well-read in the classics, a gentleman, warrior, poet, musician, etc.
  o Women were essentially to be ornaments for their husbands.
• **Printing press**: **Johann Gutenberg** – spread of humanistic literature to rest of Europe.

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Renaissance Art

- Patronage
  - Florence the leader in Renaissance art especially in the 1400s
    - Giorgio Vasari (1511-1574) – contemporary Renaissance art historian who detailed the lives of many Renaissance artists
    - Major merchant families, such as the Medici’s, provided massive patronage
    - Patronage also from local churches
  - Rome became the center of Renaissance art in the 1500s (up to about 1527)
    - Pope Alexander VI (1492-1503): commissioned a fortune in Renaissance art
    - Also, Julius II (1503-1513); and Leo X (1513-1521)
    - Artists such as Michelangelo, Raphael and Bramante received numerous commissions

- New artistic techniques
  - Painting
    - perspective: 3-D effects (developed largely by Brunelleschi)
    - chiaroscuro: use of dark and light colors to create the illusion of depth
    - Individualism in portrayal of human figures
    - Sfumato: blurring or softening sharp lines in painting; developed by Leonardo
    - Giotto (1266-1336) – considered 1st Renaissance artist, use of chiaroscuro
    - Masaccio (1401-1428) painter: real, nude human figures
    - Sandro Botticelli (1444-1510) – painter: Birth of Venus
    - Michelangelo (1475-1564): ceiling of the Sistine Chapel
    - Raphael (1483-1520): School of Athens, numerous Madonna and Child paintings
    - Titian (c. 1485-1576): greatest painter of the Venetian school
  - Sculpture
    - Use of marble and bronze (as was the case in ancient Greece and Rome)
    - Free-standing sculptures; designed to be seen in the round; contrapposto stance
    - Glorification of the human body and emphasis on individualism
    - Ghiberti (1378-1455): bronze doors for Florentine baptistery (“Gates of Paradise”)
    - Donatello (1386-1466 – sculptor: David (young)
    - Michelangelo: David, the Pieta
  - Architecture
    - Utilized Greek temple architecture in numerous structures
    - Simplicity, symmetry and balance
    - Brought back domes and Roman arches of the ancient Greco-Roman tradition
    - Filippo Brunelleschi (1377-1446) – architect of cathedrals (Il Duomo in Florence)
    - Leon Battista Alberti (1404-1472), architect of cathedrals.
    - Michelangelo: dome atop St. Peter’s Basilica in the Vatican

- Humanism in Renaissance art
  - Pagan themes evident in Botticelli’s Birth of Venus, Raphael’s School of Athens
  - Glorification of the human body evident in such works as Michelangelo’s David, and the Creation of Adam on the Sistine Chapel
  - Bronze used in Donatello’s David; marble used in Michelangelo’s David and Pieta
  - Architectural works drew on ancient Greek and Roman designs such as domes (Il Duomo and St. Peter’s Basilica) and Greek Temple Architecture (Bramante’s Tempietto and front of St. Peter’s Basilica)
Northern Renaissance

➡ Christian Humanism:

- Characteristics:
  - Emphasis on early church writings (esp. New Testament) for answers to improve society
  - Studied Hebrew and Greek texts of the Bible and writings of the Church fathers
  - Emphasized education and power of human intellect to bring about institutional change and moral improvement
  - Writings led to criticism of the Catholic Church and paved the way for the Reformation.

- Erasmus (1466-1536)
  - *In Praise of Folly* (1513): Criticized and immorality and hypocrisy of Church leaders and the clergy; some say that “Erasmus lay the egg that Luther hatched”
  - Made new “purer” translations of the Greek and Latin versions of the New Testament
  - Most famous intellectual of his time

- Thomas More (1478-1536) – *Utopia*
  - Creates ideal society on an island; but to achieve harmony and order people have to sacrifice individual rights
  - Saw accumulation of property as a root cause for society’s ills: gap between rich & poor

- Jacques Lefevre d’Etals (1454-1536): leading French humanist; produced 5 versions of the Psalms that challenged a single authoritative Bible.

- Francesco Ximenes de Cisneros (1436-1517): reformed Spanish clergy and church, Grand Inquisitor of the Spanish Inquisition

- Francois Rableis (1494-1553)
  - Secular works portrayed his confidence in human nature and reflected Renaissance tastes.
  - *Gargantua* and *Pantagruel*: satirized French society, emphasized education, attacked clerical education and monastic orders

- Michel de Montaigne (1533-1592)
  - Developed the essay form, which became a vehicle for testing new ideas
  - Skepticism: Doubt that true knowledge could be obtained
  - Believed that the skeptic must be cautious, critical and suspend judgment.
  - Thus, one must be tolerant of others’ views

- William Shakespeare (1564-1616): Elizabethan era; comedies, tragedies, histories & sonnets
  - Greatest of the English Renaissance authors
  - His works reflected the Renaissance ideas of classical Greek and Roman culture, individualism and humanism

- Miguel de Cervantes (1547-1616): *Don Quixote* (1605-15)
  - Masterpiece of Spanish literature; critical of excessive religious idealism & chivalric romance

➡ Northern Renaissance Art

- Flemish style: the Low Countries produced especially important artists
  - Characteristics
    - Heavily influenced by the Italian Renaissance
    - More detail throughout paintings (especially the background) than the Italian Renaissance
    - Use of oil paints (in contrast to Italian Renaissance that used tempera)
    - More emotional than the Italian style
    - Works often preoccupied with death
o **Jan Van Eyck** – (c. 1339- c. 1441) Flemish painter
  - Most famous and innovative Flemish painter of the 15th century
  - Perfected oil painting; wood panel paintings used much religious symbolism.
  - Employed incredible detail in his works
  - *Arnolfini and his Wife* (1434) is perhaps his most famous work.

o **Bosch** (c. 1450-1516) -- Netherlands
  - Master of symbolism and fantasy
  - His art often looks surrealistic (like Dali of the 20th century) and focused often on death and the torments of Hell.

o **Peter Brueghel the Elder** (1520-1569)
  - Not influenced much by the Italian Renaissance
  - Focused on lives of ordinary people (e.g. *Peasant Dance* (1568) (See right), *Peasant Wedding* (c. 1568), and *The Battle Between Carnival and Lent* (1559)

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

• **Mannerism**
  - **El Greco** (1541-1614): quintessential mannerist who spent most of his creative life in Spain
    - *Burial of Count Orgaz* (1586) is among his most famous works

➔ **Women and the Renaissance**

➢ **Upper-class women**
  - *Querelles des Femmes* (“The Problem of Women”): A new debate emerged over the proper role of women in society (starting with **Christine de Pisan** in the 14th century); the debate continued for six hundred years.
  - Women enjoyed increased access to education
  - However, lost some status compared to women in the Middle Ages; many women now functioned as “ornaments” to their middle-class or upper-class husbands
  - Women were to make themselves pleasing to the man (Castiglione)
  - Sexual double-standard: women were to remain chaste until marriage; same not true for men

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Important Renaissance noblewomen at court in education and culture

- **Christine de Pisan** (c.1363-c.1434): *The City of Ladies; The Book of Three Virtues*
  - Chroned accomplishments of great women of history.
  - Renaissance woman’s survival manual.
  - She was perhaps Europe’s first feminist

- **Isabella d’Este** (1474-1539): “First Lady” of the Renaissance
  - Set an example for women to break away from their traditional roles as mere ornaments to their husbands
  - Ruled Mantua after her husband died; extremely well educated
  - Big patron of the arts
  - Founded a school for young women
  - Wrote over 2000 letters that provide a window into politics & courtly life

- **Artemesia Gentilleschi** (1593-1652) (considered a Baroque painter)
  - Perhaps the first female artist to gain recognition in the post-Renaissance era.
  - First woman to paint historical and religious scenes: e.g. her “Judith” paintings
  - Female artists at this time were consigned to portrait painting and imitative poses

Peasant and lower-class women
- Status did not change much compared to Middle Ages

Marriage

- **European Family Pattern**
  - **Nuclear family** (poor people tended to be unable to support extended families)
  - Wealthier people (and some landowning peasants) tended to have extended families

- Based mostly on economic considerations; not love
  - **Dowries** were extremely important in wealthy families.
  - Women tended to play a more significant role in the economy in Northern Europe.

- Average age for women: less than 20 (for men it was mid-late 20s)
  - Class issues: rich tended to marry earlier than middle classes, and poor tend to marry earlier too, or not to marry at all.
  - In Italy, the age gap between husbands and wives was larger than in Northern Europe

- Increased infanticide and abandonment (among the poor)
  - Increase of foundling hospitals (2/3 of abandoned babies were girls)
  - Low rate of illegitimate births
  - Dramatic population growth until 1650

- Divorce available in certain areas (but still very limited) compared to Middle Ages where divorce was non-existent
  - This was largely due to a modest increase in divorce in Reformation countries

- Rape not considered a serious crime
- More prostitution than in Middle Ages

Female rulers

- **Caterina Sforza in Milan**
- **Isabella I**: Unified Spain along with her husband Ferdinand.
- **Mary Tudor** (“Bloody Mary”): Ruled England (1553-1558)
- **Elizabeth I**: Ruled England (1558-1603)
- **Catherine de Mèdicis**: Ruled France as regent from 1559 to 1589
Persecution of witches
- 70,000-100,000 people killed between 1400 and 1700
- Causes
  - Popular belief in magic
    - “Cunning folk” had been common in European villages for centuries: played a positive role in helping villagers deal with tragedies such as plagues, famines, physical disabilities, and impotence.
    - Claims to power often by the elderly or impoverished, and especially women
  - The Catholic Church claimed that powers came from either God or the Devil
  - Used witch hunts to gain control over village life in rural areas.
  - Women seen as “weaker vessels” and prone to temptation; constituted 80% of victims
    - Most between age 45 and 60; unmarried
    - Misogyny (hatred of women) may have played a role as Europe was a highly patriarchal society
    - Most midwives were women; if babies died in childbirth midwives could be blamed
  - Religious wars and divisions created a panic environment; scapegoating of “witches” ensued
    - Leaders tried to gain loyalty of their people; appeared to be protecting them
- End of witch hunts
  - Scientific Revolution of the 16th and 17th centuries increasingly discredited superstition
  - Advances in medicine and the advent of insurance companies enabled people to better take care of themselves when calamities struck.
  - Witch trials had become chaotic; accusers could become the accused (thus, using witch trials for political gain could be very risky)
  - Protestant Reformation emphasized God as the only spiritual force in the universe.
    - Yet, witch trials did occur in great numbers in Protestant countries as well
  - Some literature of the 16th & 17th century implied that people had a large degree of control over their own lives and did not need to rely on superstition.

Joan Kelly: “Did Women Have a Renaissance?” (1977)
- Middle-class women especially suffered a marked decline in their status along with that of noble women during the Italian Renaissance
- Middle class women were exclusively relegated to the private sphere while men monopolized political and economic issues in the public sphere.
- Sexual chastity was essential for both women of the nobility and the bourgeoisie; a double-standard existed as chastity was not expected of men
- Medieval feudalism permitted homage to female vassals but in Renaissance Italy feudalism came to be replaced by powerful city-states. Thus, the political power of women in many cases vanished.
  - Noble women thus experienced a state of almost universal dependence on her family and husband
- Non-military education by tutors for young noblemen (and women) had often been done by females in the Middle Ages. During the Renaissance female tutors were replaced with male humanistic tutors or boarding schools (that emphasized patriarchal and misogynous bias), thus reducing the educational influence of women.
“New” Monarchs (c. 1460-1520)
- Consolidated power and created an early foundation for Europe’s first modern nation-states in France, England and Spain
  - New Monarchies were not, however, nation-states (in the modern sense) since populations did not necessarily feel that they belonged to a “nation”
    - Identity tended to be much more local or regional
    - Modern notion of nationalism did not emerge until the late 18th and early 19th centuries.
  - Characteristics of New Monarchies
    - Reduced the power of the nobility through taxation, confiscation of lands (from uncooperative nobles), and hiring of mercenary armies or the creation of standing armies
      - The advent of gunpowder increased the vulnerability of noble armies and their knights
      - Many nobles in return for their support of the king gained titles and offices
    - Reduced the political power of the clergy
    - Created more efficient bureaucracies
    - Increased the political influence of the French bourgeoisie (at the expense of the nobility)
    - Increased the public (national) debt by taking out loans from merchant-bankers
  - Opposition to the “new monarchs”
    - Nobles resented the decline of political influence
    - Clergy members saw the pope as their leader, not the monarch
    - Independent towns resisted more centralized monarchical control

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

- England: Rise of the Tudor dynasty
  - War of the Roses: House of York defeated House of Lancaster; gave rise to the Tudor dynasty
  - Henry VII (1489-1509)
    - Reduced the power of the nobility
      - Star Chamber: nobles were tried without a jury and were often tortured
      - Nobles not allowed to have own private armies
    - English Parliament still had influence over taxation and government policy

- Spain
  - 1869, marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon (1478-1516) & Isabella of Castile (1474-1504) began the process of centralizing power.
  - 1492: unified Spain
    - Reconquista—removed last of Moors
    - Expulsion of Jews (between 30,000 and 60,000)
  - Hermandades: alliance of cities to oppose nobles; reduced power of the nobility
Spanish Inquisition: Isabella sought to enforce the authority of the national church
- Tomás de Torquemada, a Dominican monk, oversaw the Inquisition
- Often targeted *conversos*, Jews who had converted to Christianity, but who were suspected of backsliding into Judaism
- Began a wave of anti-Semitism in certain parts of Europe

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

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

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

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

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

Spanish Empire
- Conquistadores began creating empires by conquering Indians
  - Hernando Cortés (1485-1547): conquered Aztecs in Mesoamerica
  - Francisco Pizarro (1478-1541): conquered Incas in South America
- Spanish empire resembled the “New Imperialism” of the late-19th and early 20th centuries than the “Old Imperialism” of the 16th and 17th centuries
  - 1545, world’s richest silver mines at Potosí in Peru ushered in Spain’s “golden age”
  - Audencias: Board of 12 to 15 judges served as advisor to viceroy and highest judicial body.
  - Encomienda: Indians worked for owner certain # days per week; retained other parcels to work for themselves
  - Mestizos: children of mixed white and Indian descent
  - Creoles: American-born Spaniards

“Old Imperialism” in Africa and Asia
- Characterized by establishing posts and forts on coastal regions but not penetrating inland to conquer entire regions or subjugate their populations
- Vasco Da Gama set up posts in India
- Alphonso d’Albuquerque (1453-1515):
  - Laid foundation for Portuguese imperialism in the 16th and 17th century
  - Established empire in Indonesia after 1510
- Francis Xavier: led Jesuit missionaries to Asia where by 1550 thousands of natives had been converted to Christianity in India, Indonesia, and Japan
- Dutch Republic (Netherlands)
  - Dutch East India Company founded in 1602 and became the major force behind Dutch imperialism
• Expelled Portuguese from Ceylon (Sri Lanka) and other Spice Islands (Indonesia)
• By 1650, began challenging Spain in the New World and controlled much of the American and African trade.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

→ **Conflict over Lutheranism**

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

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Spread of Protestantism

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

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

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

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

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

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

Church of England (Anglican Church)

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

- Thomas Cromwell: Oversaw development of king’s bureaucracy
- Edward VI (1547-1553)
  - Son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymore (Henry’s 3rd wife)
  - England moved towards Calvinism during his short reign
  - New practices
    - Clergy could marry
    - Iconic images removed from the Anglican Church
    - Communion by the laity expanded
  - New doctrines
    - Salvation by faith alone
    - Denial of transubstantiation
    - Only two sacraments: baptism and communion

- Mary Tudor (“Bloody Mary”) (r. 1553-1558) tried to reimpose Catholicism
  - Daughter of Henry VIII and Catharine of Aragon
  - Married Philip II, future heir to the Spanish throne
  - Mary rescinded reformation legislation of Henry’s and Edward’s reign
  - 300 people executed including bishops and Archbishop Cranmer; her opponents called her “Bloody Mary”

- Elizabeth I (r. 1558-1603) – the “Virgin Queen”
  - Daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn (Henry’s 2nd wife)
    - Held strong Protestant beliefs; Catholics saw her as “illegitimate”

Effectively oversaw the development of Protestantism in England

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

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

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

- **Pope Paul III** (1534-1549): Most important pope in reforming the Church and challenging Protestantism

- New Religious Orders
  - *Ursuline Order of Nuns* (1544): Sought to combat heresy through Christian education
    - Founded by **Angela Merici**
  - **Teresa of Avila**: Spanish mystic who revived and popularized mystical piety of medieval monasticism

- **Jesuits (Society of Jesus)** (1540):
  - 3 goals: reform church through education, preach the Gospel to pagan peoples, fight Protestantism
  - **Ignatious Loyala** (1491-1556): founder; organized the Jesuits in military fashion
    - *Spiritual Exercises*: contained ideas used to train Jesuits
  - Beginning in 1542, oversaw **Spanish and Italian Inquisitions**
    - Spain: persecution of Christian Moors & Christian Jews
    - Succeeded in bringing southern German and eastern Europe back to Catholicism
  - Sacred Congregation of the Holy Order, 1542, in papal states: Roman Inquisition
    - *Index of Forbidden Books*: catalogue of forbidden reading
  - **Council of Trent** (3 sessions 1545-1563): established Catholic dogma four next 4 centuries
    - Equal validity of Scripture, Church traditions, and writings of Church fathers
    - Salvation by both “good works” and faith
    - 7 sacraments valid; transubstantiation reaffirmed
    - Monasticism, celibacy of clergy, and purgatory reaffirmed
    - Approved the *Index of Forbidden Books*
    - Church reforms: abuses in sale of indulgences curtailed, sale of church offices curtailed, Bishops given greater control over clergy, seminaries established to train priests

- **Baroque Art** reflected the ideas of the Catholic Reformation
  - Began in Catholic Reformation countries to teach in a concrete and emotional way and demonstrate the glory and power of the Catholic Church
    - Style later spread to Protestant countries such as the Netherlands, northern Germany and England
  - Sought to overwhelm the viewer: emphasized grandeur, emotion, movement, spaciousness, and unity surrounding a certain theme
  - Architecture and sculpture
    - **Bernini** (1598-1650)
      - *Colonnade* for piazza in front of St. Peter’s Basilica in Rome was his greatest architectural achievement.
      - Sculpted the *Canopy over the high altar of St. Peter’s Cathedral*
      - His altarpiece sculpture, *The Ecstasy of St. Teresa*, evokes tremendous emotion
      - His statue of *David* shows movement and emotion
Painting
- Characteristics
  - Stressed broad areas of light and shadow rather than on linear arrangements of the High Renaissance.
  - Color was an important element as it appealed to the senses and more true to nature.
  - Not concerned with clarity of detail as with overall dynamic effect.
  - Designed to give a spontaneous personal experience.
- Caravaggio (1571-1610), Roman painter, perhaps 1st important painter of the Baroque era
  - Depicted highly emotional scenes
  - Used sharp contrasts of light and dark to create drama.
- Peter Paul Rubens (1577-1640), Flemish painter
  - Worked much for the Hapsburg court in Brussels (the capital of the Spanish Netherlands)
  - Emphasized color and sensuality; animated figures and melodramatic contrasts; monumental size.
  - Nearly half of his works dealt with Christian subjects.

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

RELIGIOUS WARS: 1560-1648
- Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis, 1559: ends Habsburg-Valois Wars (last of purely dynastic wars)
  - France kept Holy Roman Empire from gaining hegemony in Germany, inadvertently helping Lutheranism to spread
- Catholic Crusade under Philip II
  - Philip II (1556-98): fanatically seeks to reimpose Catholicism in Europe (like his father, Charles V)
    - Built the Escorial: new royal palace (and monastery and mausoleum)
  - Battle of Lepanto: Spain defeated Turkish navy off coast of Greece (reminiscent of earlier Christian Crusades)
- Dutch Revolt
  - United Provinces of the Netherlands formed in 1581 (Dutch Republic)
    - William of Orange I led 17 provinces against the Spanish Inquisition; Philip sought to crush the rise of Calvinism in the Netherlands
    - Spanish Netherlands (lower 10 provinces) remained in control of Spain (modern-day Belgium)
    - Dutch closure of the Scheldt River resulted in the demise of Antwerp as Europe’s economic center
Spain v. England

- Queen Mary Tudor (Philip’s wife) reimposes Catholicism in England
- Queen Elizabeth I reverses Mary’s edict; refuses to marry Philip II
- Elizabeth helps United Provinces of the Netherlands gain independence from Spain
- **Spanish Armada, 1588**: Philip ordered the invasion of England
  - Spain’s navy largely destroyed thus ending plans for invasion
  - Signaled the rise of England as a world naval power

French civil wars (at least 9 in last half of 16th c.)

- Power struggle between three noble families began in 1559
- **Catherine de Medici** (1519-1589) dominated her sons who were French kings as she tried to maintain Catholic control over France
  - She was a member of the Valois faction who opposed the Catholic Guise faction and the Huguenot Bourbon faction
- **St. Bartholomew Day Massacre**: 20,000 Huguenots massacred at Catherine’s order after Huguenots rioted in protest of a Guise assassination of a Huguenot leader.
  - Led to the War of the Three Henrys
- **War of the Three Henrys** (1584-98): civil wars between Valois, Guise, and Huguenot factions

→ **Henry IV (of Navarre)** (1553-1610): first Bourbon king

- His rise to power ended the French Civil Wars
- **Edict of Nantes**, 1598: granted religious toleration to Huguenots
- Henry was a politique: a monarch who favor practical solutions (rather than ideological)
  - Similar to Elizabeth I of England

→ **Thirty Years’ War** (1618-1648) – most important war of the 17th century

- Failure of Peace of Augsburg, 1555: religious tension in the Holy Roman Empire continued into the early 17th century.
- Four phases of the war:
  - Bohemian Phase:
    - **Defenestration of Prague**, 1618: triggers war in Bohemia
    - Protestant forces eventually defeated; Protestantism eliminated in Bohemia
  - Danish Phase: height of Catholic forces during the war
    - **Albrecht von Wallenstein** (1583-1634): paid by emperor to fight for HRE
    - **Edict of Restitution** (1629): HRE emperor declared all church territories secularized since 1552 automatically restored to Catholic Church
  - Swedish Phase: Protestants liberate territory lost in previous phase
    - **King Gustavus Adolphus** (1594-1632): pushed back Catholic forces to Bohemia
    - Holy roman Emperor annuls Edict of Restitution
  - French Phase: “International Phase”
    - **Cardinal Richelieu** allied with Protestants (like in earlier Hapsburg-Valois Wars) to defeat the HRE
**Treaty of Westphalia** (1648): ended Catholic Reformation in Germany
- Renewal of Peace of Augsburg (but added Calvinism as accepted faith in Germany)
- Dissolution of Holy Roman Empire confirmed
  - Dutch and Swiss independence
  - 300+ German states became sovereign
  - Prussia-Brandenburg emerged as a major power (under Frederick William, the “Great Elector”)
- Results of 30 Years’ War
  - Germany physically devastated (as much as 1/3 of pop. in certain areas perished)
  - End to wars of religion
  - Beginning of rise of France as dominant European power; also Britain & Netherlands
    - Balance of power diplomacy emerged in Europe

Reformation was disastrous for German unity
- Germany divided along Catholic and Lutheran groups (later Calvinism in 17th c.)
  - Peace of Augsburg, 1555
  - Treaty of Westphalia, 1648
- France worked to keep Germany divided
  - Hapsburg-Valois wars: Francis I vs. Charles V (France supported Lutherans)
  - 30 Years’ War: Richelieu supported Protestants during the “French Phase”
- 30 Years’ War devastated Germany (1/3 of population killed)

**English Civil War**
- James I (r. 1603-1625): belief in “divine right of kings”
  - Leadership of Church went to those with Arminian beliefs (predestination but with “good works”)
  - Archbishop Laud tried to impose Catholic-style ritual; Puritans dismayed
  - King claimed “no bishop, no king” to Puritan demand to end bishop control.
  - Monarchy plagued by lack of revenue (expensive wars of Elizabeth drained the treasury)
- Charles I (1625-1649): sought to rule without Parliament and to control the Anglican Church
  - Petition of Right, 1628: Parliament attempt to bribe king (taxes) in return for accepting Parliament’s right to tax, habeas corpus, no quartering, and no martial law in peacetime
  - Charles dissolved Parliament in 1629; did not reconvene until 1640
  - Religious persecution most important reason for civil war: led by Archbishop Laud
    - In return for granting taxation, Parliament made demands:
      - Certain high Anglican leaders be tried: (Laud was eventually executed)
      - Star Chamber abolished
      - Parliament could not be dissolved w/o its consent
• **The English Civil War** (Puritan Revolution; Great Rebellion) – 1642-1649
  o **Cavaliers**: supported the king
  o **Roundheads**, Puritans opposed the king:
    ▪ **Oliver Cromwell** (1499-1558) led the “New Model Army”
  o Major issues of the war
    ▪ 1643, Scots allied with Cromwell after Parliament agreed to accept a Presbyterian system of Church government (England would no longer attempt to impose the English Common Book of Prayer on the Scots)
    ▪ Division resulted between Presbyterians in Parliament (majority) and soldiers who were independent and sought congregationalism (Puritans)
  o “**Rump Parliament**: Pride’s Purge” (1648) removed all non-Puritans and Presbyterians from Parliament (Charles I tried to win Presbyterians and Scots over to his side)
  o Charles I beheaded in 1649

• **Interregnum**: 1649-1660 rule without king
  o The Commonwealth (1649-1653): a republic – abolished the monarchy and House of Lords
  o The Protectorate (1653-1659), Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector (Dictatorship)
    ▪ Created in response to Parliament’s desire to disband Cromwell’s army
    ▪ Puritans tried to regulate lives of the people: illegalized drinking, theater and dancing
  o Creation of “Great Britain”
    ▪ Cromwell invaded Ireland to suppress Catholic opposition
    ▪ Cromwell conquered Scotland

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

ABSOLUTISM IN WESTERN EUROPE: 1589-1715

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

• **sovereignty**: embodied in the person of the ruler
• **Jean Bodin** (1530-96): gave theoretical basis for absolutist states; wrote during Fr. civil wars
• **Bishop Bossuet**: gave theoretical basis for “divine right” of kings during reign of Louis XIV
• **Thomas Hobbes** (1588-1679: *Leviathan*)
  o **state of nature**: anarchy results; central drive in every man is power
  o Man’s life in a “state of nature” was “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short strong,”
  o Ideas most closely identified with Voltaire: Enlightened Despotism (18th c.)

➔ **French Absolutism** in late 16th through mid-17th centuries
• **Henry IV** (Henry of Navarre) (1589-1610) – Bourbon dynasty
  o Weakened the power of the nobility
    ▪ The old “**nobility of the sword**” not allowed to influence the royal council
    ▪ The new “**nobility of the robe**” purchased their titles from the monarchy and became high officials in the government and remained loyal to the king.
  o **Duke of Sully** (1560-1641): Finance Minister whose reforms enhanced the power of the monarchy
    ▪ Mercantilism: increased role of state in the economy
    ▪ Reduced royal debt, reformed tax collection
    ▪ Improved transportation
• **Louis XIII** (1610-43):
  - His regency plagued by corruption & mismanagement (mom ruled until he was of age)
  - **Cardinal Richelieu** (1585-1642): laid foundation for absolutism in France (*politique* like Henry IV)
    - **Intendant System**: sought to weaken nobility
      - Replaced local officials w/ civil servants who reported directly to the king; largely filled by middle-class
      - Further developed mercantilism
      - Increased taxation to fund the military
      - **Peace of Alais** (1629): Huguenots lost fortified cities & Protestant armies
      - Began dictionary to standardize the French language
      - Foreign policy, esp. 30 Years’ War, weakened Hapsburg Empire

→**Louis XIV** (r. 1643-1715) – the “Sun King”
• The quintessential model of absolutism in Europe
  - *L’état, c’est moi* (“I am the state”)
  - France became the undisputed power in Europe during his reign
    - France had largest population in Europe (17 million); 20% of Europe’s population
  - French culture dominated Europe
    - French language became the international language of diplomacy (like English is today) and the language of the well-educated (like Latin in the Middle Ages)
    - France remained the epicenter of literature and the arts until the 20th century
    - French Classicism in art most evident in the works of **Nicholas Poussin** (1593-1665)
    - French drama became extremely influential
      - **Moliere** (1622-1673)
        - Plays were written in the classical style (e.g. adherence to the three unities)
        - Wrote some of the most intense emotional works for the stage.
      - **Jean Baptiste Racine** (1639-1699)
        - His plays often focused on social struggles
        - Made fun of the aristocracy, upper bourgeoisie and high church officials
• **Cardinal Jules Mazarin** (1602-1661): controlled France while Louis XIV a child
  - **The Fronde**: failed revolution by nobility directed against Mazarin; inspired Louis later to suppress the nobility
• **Versailles Palace**: grandest and most impressive palace in Europe
  - In effect, became a pleasure prison for the French nobility, over which Louis gained control
  - Cost of maintaining the palace: 60% of all royal revenues!
• Religious Policies
  - Louis considered himself the head of the Gallican Church and thus did not allow the pope to exercise political power in France
  - **Edict of Fountainbleau** (1685): revoked the Edict of Nantes, thus ending religious toleration for Huguenots
  - Repressed **Jansenism** (a kind of Calvinism within Catholic Church)
• Mercantilism brought to its apex by Jean Baptiste Colbert (1661-1683)
  o State control over a country’s economy in order to achieve a favorable balance of trade with other countries.
  o Colbert’s goal was economic self-sufficiency for France
    ▪ Promoted “bullionism”: a nation’s policy of accumulating as much precious metal (gold and silver) as possible while preventing its outward flow to other countries.
    ▪ Built roads & canals; gov’t supported monopolies; cracked down on guilds; reduced local tolls and tariffs; organized French trading companies for international trade: East India Co. and the West India Co.
    ▪ Most important accomplishment: developed the merchant marine
  o By 1683, France leading industrial country: textiles, mirrors, lace making, foundries for steel making and firearms
  o Weaknesses:
    ▪ Poor peasant conditions (esp. taxation) resulted in large emigration
    ▪ Louis opted for army instead of navy; France later lost naval wars w/ England
    ▪ War in later years nullified Colbert’s gains; Louis at war for 2/3 of his reign

→ Wars of Louis XIV: initially successful but eventually ruinous to France
• France created a massive modern army with the potential to dominate Europe
  o A system of balance of power developed to keep France in check
• William of Orange (later King William III of England) thwarted Louis’ expansionism
  o War of Devolution (First Dutch War), 1667-68: France gained 12 fortified towns along the French-Belgian border but gave up Burgundy in return.
  o Second Dutch War (1672-78) – Invasion of the Dutch Rhineland
    ▪ France took Franche-Comté from Spain, gained some Flemish towns, and took Alsace
    ▪ Represented the furthest extent of Louis XIV’s expansion
• War of the League of Augsburg (1688-97): eventually ended in status quo
  o League of Augsburg (formed in 1686 to counter France’s growing power): included the HRE, Spain, Sweden, Bavaria, Saxony, Dutch Republic
  o William of Orange (now king of England) brought England in against France.
• War of Spanish Succession (1701-13)
  o The will of Charles II (Spanish Hapsburg king) gave all Spanish territories to grandson of Louis XIV; other countries feared France would dominate
  o Grand Alliance sought to preserve the balance of power: England, Dutch Rep., HRE, Brandenburg, Portugal, Savoy
  o Treaty of Utrecht (1713): most important treaty since Westphalia (in 1648)
    ▪ Britain was biggest winner: gained the asiento (slave trade) from Spain; gained Gibraltar and Minorca.
    ▪ Spanish Netherlands (Belgium) was given to Austria (became the “Austrian Netherlands”)
    ▪ Although Louis XIV’s grandson enthroned, the treaty prevented the unification of Bourbon dynasties.
    ▪ Kings recognized in Sardinia (Savoy) and Prussia (Brandenburg)
• Costs of Louis XIV’s wars:
  o Destroyed France’s economy
  o 20% of French subjects died
  o Huge debt placed on the Third Estate
    ▪ French gov’t was bankrupt
  o Financial and social tensions sowed the seeds of the French Revolution later in the century

➔Decline of the Spanish Empire (although it remained most powerful military until mid-17th c.)
• Foundation for absolutism in Spain was laid by Charles V (1519-1556) and Philip II (1556-1598)
• Spanish Armada, 1588: symbolized the rise of England as a world power and the limits of Spanish dominance
• Loss of middle class: Moors and Jews had been expelled in large numbers (Spain’s population declined by over 25%)
• Spain’s trade with its colonies fell 60% between 1610 and 1660
• Spanish treasury became bankrupt
• National taxes particularly hurt the peasantry
• Inflation from the “Price Revolution” hurt domestic industries that were unable to export goods
• Poor work ethic among the upper classes stunted economic growth (lack of capitalism)
• Religion overshadowed politics in domestic affairs
• Defeat in 30 Years’ War: politically and economically disastrous
• 1640, Portugal reestablished independence.
• Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659): marked end of Spain as a Great Power
  o Loss of parts of Spanish Netherlands and territory in northern Spain to France
    Population in 1660 had declined to 5.5 million from 7.5 million in 1550
• Spain lost most possessions at Treaty of Utrecht (1713)

➔The Baroque
• Began in Catholic Reformation countries to teach in a concrete and emotional way and demonstrate the glory and power of the Catholic Church
  o Style later spread to Protestant countries such as the Netherlands, northern Germany and England
  o Sought to overwhelm the viewer: emphasized grandeur, emotion, movement, spaciousness, and unity surrounding a certain theme
• Architecture and sculpture
  o Bernini (1598-1650)
    ▪ Colonnade for piazza in front of St. Peter’s Basilica in Rome was his greatest architectural achievement.
    ▪ Sculpted the Canopy over the high altar of St. Peter’s Cathedral
    ▪ His altarpiece sculpture, The Ecstasy of St. Teresa, evokes tremendous emotion
    ▪ His statue of David shows movement and emotion
• **Painting**
  - **Characteristics**
    - Stressed broad areas of light and shadow rather than on linear arrangements of the High Renaissance.
    - Color was an important element as it appealed to the senses and more true to nature.
    - Not concerned with clarity of detail as with overall dynamic effect.
    - Designed to give a spontaneous personal experience.
  - **Caravaggio (1571-1610),** Roman painter, perhaps 1st important painter of the Baroque era
    - Depicted highly emotional scenes
    - Used sharp contrasts of light and dark to create drama.
  - **Peter Paul Rubens (1577-1640),** Flemish painter
    - Worked much for the Hapsburg court in Brussels (the capital of the Spanish Netherlands)
    - Emphasized color and sensuality; animated figures and melodramatic contrasts; monumental size.
    - Nearly half of his works dealt with Christian subjects.
  - **Diego Velázquez (1599-1660)**
    - Perhaps the greatest court painter of the era
    - Numerous portraits of the Spanish court and their surroundings
  - **Artemisia Gentileschi (1593-1652)**
    - Famous for vivid depictions of dramatic scenes and her “Judith” paintings

• In the 17th century, the Baroque reflected the Age of Absolutism
  - **Versailles Palace typifies Baroque architecture**
    - Hapsburg emperor Leopold I built Schönbrunn in Austria in response to the Versailles Palace
    - Peter the Great in Russia built the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg largely on the influence of Versailles
    - Frederick I in Prussia began building his palace in Berlin in 1701

• **Music**
  - **Characteristics**
    - Belief that the text should dominate the music; the lyrics and libretto were most important
    - Baroque composers developed the modern system of major-minor tonalities.
    - Dissonance was used much more freely than during the Renaissance
  - Claudio Monteverdi (1547-1643) developed the opera and the modern orchestra
  - **J. S. Bach (1685-1750):** greatest of the baroque composers
    - Often wrote dense and polyphonic structures (in contrast to the later balance and restraint of the Classical Period—Mozart & Haydn)
    - Wrote in a variety of genres, both choral and instrumental, for a variety of instruments
  - **George Frideric Handel (1685-1759)**
    - Like Bach, wrote in a variety of genres
    - His masterpiece is the oratorio The Messiah

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The Dutch Style: 17th century painting

- Characteristics
  - Did not fit the Baroque style of trying to overwhelm the viewer
  - Reflected the Dutch Republic’s wealth and religious toleration of secular subjects
  - Reflected the urban and rural settings of Dutch life during the “Golden Age of the Netherlands”
  - Many works were commissioned by merchants or government organizations

- Rembrandt van Rijn (1606-1669), painter
  - Perhaps the greatest of all Baroque artists although he doesn’t fit neatly into any category.
  - Scenes covered an enormous range throughout his career
  - Used extremes of light in the Baroque style
  - His works were far more intimate and psychological than typical Baroque works
  - Painted with the restraint of the classicist style

- Jan Vermeer (1632-1675)
  - Paintings of ordinary people in simple scenes

Rococo style (in France)

- Characteristics: elegance, pleasantness, frivolity; contrasts emotional grandeur of Baroque

Constitutionalism in Western Europe

- Constitutionalism: Government power is limited by law. There is a delicate balance between the power of government and the rights and liberties of individuals.

- English society in the 17th century
  - Capitalism played a major role in the high degree of social mobility in England
  - Gentry: wealthy landowners who dominated politics in the House of Commons
    - Relied heavily on legal precedent to limit the power of the king on social and economic matters
  - Middle class began to rise up the social ladder
    - Influenced by the “Protestant work ethic”

- Both King James I and Charles I believed in “divine right” of kings; Parliament disagreed

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

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

- The English Civil War resulted in the emergence of new sects:
  - Levellers: Radical religious revolutionaries; sought social and political reform.
  - Quakers: believed in “inner light”; rejected church authority; pacifists; women allowed to minister
  - Diggers: radical group (foreshadowed anarchy in 19th century)
• **Interregnum:** 1649-1660  rule without a king; **Oliver Cromwell**
  o The Commonwealth (1649-1653): a republic – abolished the monarchy and House of Lords
  o The Protectorate (1653-1659), Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector (Dictatorship)
    ▪ Puritans tried to regulate lives of the people: illegalized drinking, theater and dancing
  o Creation of “Great Britain”
    ▪ Cromwell invaded Ireland to suppress Catholic opposition; conquered Scotland

• **The Restoration** (1660-1688)
  o Parliament in 1660 reelected according to the old voting system: Anglicans back in power
  o **Charles II** “The Merry Monarch” (1660-1685): Stuarts restored to the throne
    ▪ Declaration of Breda: Charles agreed to abide by Parliament’s demands
    ▪ The Clarendon Code, 1661: Anglicans excluded Puritans from politics
    ▪ Declaration of Indulgence, 1673: Charles II granted free worship to Catholics
    ▪ **Test Act of 1673:** all officeholders must take communion in Anglican Church
    ▪ **Habeas Corpus Act** (1679): no arbitrary arrest and speedy trial
    ▪ Parliament was split and fragmented into two political parties
      ❖ **Tories:** king’s supporters, nobles
      ❖ **Whigs:** middle-class and merchants; also high aristocracy
    ▪ Scotland gained its independence in 1660 as result of the Restoration
      ▪ Charles II attempted to impose Anglicanism in Scotland and a war resulted
  o **James II** (1685-1688): sought to re-Catholicize England; Parliament forced him to abdicate

➔**Glorious Revolution (1688)**
• Final act in the struggle for political sovereignty in England
• **William III (William of Orange)** and **Mary** were declared joint sovereigns by Parliament
  o **Act of Toleration**, 1689: granted religious freedom (except to Catholics, Jews, and Unitarians)
    ▪ **Bill of Rights (1689):** created a constitutional monarchy
  o **British Constitution:** consisted of **habeas corpus act**, petition of right, and bill of rights
  o **Provisions:**
    ▪ The monarch could not be Roman Catholic
    ▪ Laws could only be made with the consent of Parliament
    ▪ Parliament had right of free speech
    ▪ A standing army in peacetime was not legal without parliamentary approval
    ▪ Taxation was illegal without parliamentary approval

• **John Locke** (1632-1704), **Second Treatise – natural rights:** life, liberty and property
  o Philosophical justification for the supremacy of Parliament in the “Glorious Revolution”

• **Act of Settlement** (1701): only Anglican could succeed to the throne
• **Queen Anne** (1702-1714): last of the Stuart monarchs
  o **Act of Union** (1707) – English and Scottish Parliaments merged = Great Britain
  o Royal veto used for last time

➔**Cabinet System** of preparing laws for Parliament developed during early 18th century
• System evolved during reign of the **Hanoverian Kings:** George I, George II, George III
• Prime minister became leader of the cabinet and responsible to majority party in the House of Commons.
  o **Robert Walpole** (1721-1742) became first **prime minister**
• Weaknesses of British democracy (c. 1800): limited suffrage, unfair representation (“rotten boroughs”), open voting, religious-property requirements for office, hereditary House of Lords
United Provinces of the Netherlands: 1st half of 17th century = “Golden Age of the Netherlands”

- Government dominated by Calvinist bourgeoisie (burghers)
  - Organization – confederation of 7 provinces (each led by a stadtholder)
  - Limited interference from the central government
- Religious toleration
  - Factions: Calvinist (majority) vs. Arminianism (Calvinism without belief of predestination)
  - Catholics and Jews enjoyed religious toleration but had fewer rights
  - Fostered a cosmopolitan society that promoted trade
- Commerce
  - Netherlands were the wealthiest and most civilized country in Europe
  - Amsterdam became the banking and commercial center in Europe (replaced Antwerp)
  - Did not have government controls or monopolies that interfered with free enterprise
  - Mercantilist economic system
  - Fishing and shipping were the most important
  - Dutch East India Co.; Dutch West India Co.: cooperative ventures with the state
- Foreign policy
  - Netherlands gained independence from the Holy Roman Empire in the Treaty of Westphalia.
  - Impacted negatively by England’s Navigation Laws that sought to reduce Dutch trade in the Atlantic
  - War with France & England in 1670s hurt the economy
  - Treaty of Utrecht (1713): beginning of the end of the Dutch as a dominant economic force

Sweden:
- Gustavus Adolphus reorganized the gov’t
- Nobles dominated the army & bureaucracy
- The Riksdag, an assembly of nobles, clergy, townsmen, and peasants, theoretically had the highest legislative authority, but not in reality

ABSOLUTISM IN EASTERN EUROPE

Three aging empires (“HOP”) gave way to new empires of Russia, Austria, & Prussia (“RAP”)

- Holy Roman Empire: religious divisions and war in 16th and 17th century
- Ottoman Empire: could not maintain possessions in eastern Europe and the Balkans
- Poland: liberum veto – voting in Polish parliament had to be unanimous (= weak gov’t)

- Differences between absolutism in eastern Europe and western Europe
  - Eastern Europe had a powerful nobility, small weak middle class, and serfdom among the peasantry; Western Europe (esp. in France) controlled the nobility, had a stronger middle-class and little to no serfdom.
- Constant threat of war European and Asian invaders were important motivations for eastern European monarchs’ drive to consolidate power.
  - Reduced the power of the nobility but nobles gained more power over the peasantry in return
  - Absolutism reached its height in eastern Europe under the reign of Peter the Great of Russia
- serfdom: beginning in 16th century and continuing into 18th century, mass of peasantry became serfs
  - robot: non-serf peasants owed lord 3 to 4 days a week of forced labor
Austrian Empire
- Multinational empire developed in 17th century: Austrian, Hungarian, & Bohemian kingdoms
  - No single constitutional system or administration existed in the empire as each region had a different legal relationship to the Emperor.
  - Empire had a cosmopolitan aristocracy with the institution of serfdom
- Leopold I (1658-1705): successfully repelled Turks
  - Turkish threat: relatively religiously tolerant empire
    - Suleiman the Magnificent (d. 1566): nearly conquered Austria in 1529, captured Belgrade (Serbia), nearly 1/2 of Eastern Europe including all Balkan territories, most of Hungary, and part of southern Russia.
    - Highly talented Christian children from the conquered provinces were incorporated into the Ottoman Empire’s bureaucracy
    - “Janissary corps”: Christian children not selected for the bureaucracy were dedicated fully to the Ottoman military
    - Siege of Vienna, 1683: last attempt by Turks to take Central Europe
- Pragmatic Sanction (1713) issued by Charles VI: Europe’s major powers agreed that Hapsburg territories were indivisible; all Hapsburg lands would transfer to future Hapsburg rulers (e.g. Maria Teresa)

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

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

⇒ **Peter the Great** (1682-1725)
  o 1698, put down revolt by strelski (Moscow Guards)
  o Promoted westernization (modernization): mostly for military purposes
  o State-regulated monopolies created; industrial serfdom
  o **Table of Ranks**: educational training for new civil service (mostly of nobles)
  o **St. Petersburg** begun in 1703 on Baltic; largest city in Northern Europe by his death.
    ▪ “Winter Palace” sought to emulate Versailles.
  o **Great Northern War** (1700-1721)
    ▪ Russia defeated Sweden and gained Baltic states, Russia’s “**window to the West**”

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**SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION**

• The Scientific Revolution became the major cause of the new world view in the 17th and 18th centuries

• 16th century
  o **Nicolaus Copernicus** (1473-1543)
    ▪ **heliocentric view** (refutes the Medieval geocentric view): earth revolves around the sun
    ▪ By the early 16th century, the Catholic Church viewed Copernicus’ theory as heretical
  o **Tycho Brahe** (1546-1601) – Built best observatory in Europe and compiled a mass of scientific data from observations of the heavens
    ▪ Data used later by Kepler, Galileo and others
  o **Johann Kepler** (1571-1630) – 3 laws of planetary motion: orbits are elliptical

• Medicine: Scientists began challenging Greco-Roman medical authority (esp. Galen-2nd c. AD)
  o **Andreas Vesalius** (1514-64) *The Structure of the Human Body* (1543): renewed and modernized study of anatomy
  o **William Harvey** (1578-1657): *On the Movement of the Heart and Blood* (1628)-- blood circulation
  o **Anton van Leeuwenhoek** (1632-1723): developed powerful microscopes
    ▪ First to see and write about bacteria, yeast plants, living organisms in a drop of water and the circulation of blood corpuscles in capillaries.

• 17th century
  o **Galileo Galilei** (1564-1642) – used the **telescope** to prove Copernicus’s heliocentric theory
    ▪ Forced by the Roman Inquisition to retract his support of the Copernican theory
    ▪ Also developed laws of motion
  o **Scientific Method**
    ▪ **Francis Bacon** (1561-1626)
      ▪ **empiricism**: first-hand study of scientific subjects
      ▪ **inductive method**: scientific conclusion is reached after much observation
    ▪ **Rene Descartes** (1596-1650)
      ▪ **deductive method**: conclusion is reached by logic
        ▪ **“I think, therefore I am”** (*cognito ergo sum*)
      ▪ Cartesian dualism: divided all existence into the spiritual and the material
Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1747): *Principia* – law of universal gravitation
- Incorporated the astronomy of Copernicus and Kepler with the physics of Galileo into an overarching theory explaining order and design to the universe.
- This view came to be the foundation of the Enlightenment view of God: deism

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

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THE ENLIGHTENMENT

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

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

The French Philosophes
- Characteristics
  - Committed to fundamental reform in society
  - Significant in popularizing Enlightenment ideas to the masses
  - Believed in progress through discovering the natural laws governing nature and human existence
  - Radically optimistic about how people should live and govern themselves
- **Voltaire** (1694-1778): perhaps most influential of all Enlightenment philosophes
  - Advocated religious toleration and blasted the Church’s oppression – “**Crush the infamous thing**” (meaning religious intolerance)
  - Advocated “enlightened despotism” (his ideas were somewhat similar to Thomas Hobbes)
  - **Candide** (1759): satire on the evils of society
Baron de Montesquieu (1689-1755): *Spirit of the Laws* (1748): advocated separation of powers in government via three branches to provide for checks and balances

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-78):
- *Social Contract* (1762): general will (the majority) should govern the nation
- Believed that man in a simpler state of nature was good—a “noble savage”—and was corrupted by the materialism of civilization.
- *Emile* (1762): encouraged progressive education and self-expression; “learning by doing”;
- Rousseau can be seen as a transitional figure between the Enlightenment and the Romanticism

Denis Diderot (1713-1784). *Encyclopedia* (1751-72): compendium of the greatest and most representative intellectual achievements of the philosophes

Marquis di Beccaria (1738-94): sought to humanize the criminal law based on Enlightenment concepts of reason and equality before the law; criticized torture
- Influenced the “Enlightened despots”: Frederick the Great, Catharine the Great, Joseph II

Economic theory
- Francois Quesnay (1694-1774) – “physiocrats”: opposed to mercantilist economic theory advocated reform of the agrarian order; too much land ownership by nobles stifled agricultural production
  - The “Bible” of capitalism; laissez faire  
  - Believed the economy is governed by the natural laws of supply and demand

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

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

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

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

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

**ENLIGHTENED DESPOTISM** – some monarchs adopted certain Enlightenment ideas
- Overview: In sum, reforms were made but very modest improvements occurred and life of the peasantry remained hard in the 18th century.
- Progressive reforms included toleration of religious minorities, simplified legal codes, and promotion of practical education.
- Yet, Absolutists more vigorously sought reforms to strengthen the state and allow them to compete militarily with their neighbors.
- In essence, continued state building of their predecessors.
- **Frederick the Great** (Frederick II: 1740-1786) of Prussia
- At war for first half of his reign
  - **War of Austrian Succession** (1740-1748)
    - Prussia, France, Bavaria & Spain vs. Austria and Russia
    - Took Silesia from Austria; Prussia now most powerful German state: “Great Power”
    - Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle (1748): legitimized Frederick’s conquest.
Seven Years War (1756-1763)
- Prussia alone in fighting France, Russia & Austria (outnumbered 15-1)
- "Diplomatic Revolution of 1756": Britain allied with Prussia (but of little value) while France allied with the Austrian Hapsburgs
- Peter III of Russia let Prussia off the hook at a critical moment
- Treaty of Paris (1763): Prussia retained Silesia; remained a “Great Power”

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

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

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

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

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

ECONOMIC EXPANSION IN THE 18TH CENTURY
- Economic and demographic changes  
  - 1700, 80% of western Europeans were farmers; higher % in eastern Europe  
  - Most people lived in poverty  
  - Dramatic population growth until 1650; slows down until 1750 and then explodes
- Open-field system: greatest accomplishment of Medieval agriculture  
  - Village agriculture; 1/3 to ½ of fields lay fallow  
  - Serfs in eastern Europe were the worst off; many were sold with lands (like slavery)

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

- **Enclosure movement** (England)
  - Began in 16th century; intensified in 18th century
    - End to common lands and open-field system
    - Enabled almost all land to be cultivated
  - Resulted in commercialization of agriculture; investment of capital
    - Increased number of large and middle-sized farms
    - Greater economic prosperity = more investment in technology (machinery, breeding, cultivation methods).
  - Parliament legalized the movement
    - 1819, **Corn Laws** passed to benefit landowners
  - Impact on the peasantry
    - Many peasants became impoverished farm laborers
    - Many moved to towns looking for work in factories or joined workhouses (poorhouses)
    - Women had no way to raise animals on common lands for extra money
    - **Game laws** in England prohibited peasants from hunting game caused considerable friction in the countryside in 17th and 18th centuries
  - A strict hierarchical society replaced the peasantry
    - A few large landowners
    - A large mass of landless cottagers as wage earners
    - Small, independent peasant farmers who owned land
    - Strong, prosperous tenant farmers who rented land
  - Freed men from farming to pursue other opportunities (e.g. cottage industry)
  - Struggles between landlords and villagers (e.g. game laws)
  - Traditional view of enclosure (Marx): poor people driven off the land
  - Recent scholarship: negative impact of enclosure has been exaggerated
    - As much as 50% of lands enclosed already by 1750 (much by mutual consent)
    - 1700: ratio of landless farmer to landowner = 2:1; not much greater in 1800

- New crops from the New World (e.g. corn, potato) (see Columbian Exchange above)
**Population Explosion** after 1750
- Limits to population growth before 1700: famine, disease, war
- Reasons for population growth:
  - Disappearance of plague
  - Improved sanitation
  - Improved transportation for food distribution (canal and road building in western Europe)
  - Increased food supply due to agricultural revolution (esp. potato),

**Cottage Industry**: first and foremost a family enterprise (also called the “putting-out” system)
- Occurred during and as a response to the Agricultural Revolution
- **Putting-out system**: city manufacturers took advantage of cheaper labor in the countryside
  - The growing rural population was eager to supplement its agricultural income.
  - Began to challenge urban craft industry
- Inventions during proto-industrialization
  - 1733, John Kay: flying shuttle for faster weaving
  - 1764, James Hargreaves: spinning jenny for thread spinning
  - 1769, Richard Arkwright: water frame, which improved thread spinning.
  - 1779, Samuel Crompton invented the spinning mule which combined the best features of the spinning jenny and the water frame.

**Atlantic Economy in the 17th and 18th Centuries**
- Characteristics
  - World trade became fundamental
    - Sugar was most important
    - Slave trade was enormous
  - Spain and Portugal revitalized their empires and began drawing more wealth from renewed development.
  - Netherlands, Britain, and France benefited most; Great Britain was the leading maritime power.
- Characteristics of mercantilism
  - Main goal: economic self-sufficiency for a nation
  - A country or empire sought to create a favorable transfer of trade by exporting more than it imported
    - Tariffs (customs duties) were placed on imports
  - Bullionism: countries sought to build up large reserves of gold and silver and prevent the flow of these precious metals out of their country
  - Colonies were acquired to provide raw materials (and markets) for the mother country
  - States granted monopolies to large companies (e.g. British East India Co., Dutch East India Co.)
  - Encouraged development of domestic industries so that a country would not have to buy a finished product from a rival country

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

- British empire based on **mercantilism**
  - **Navigation Laws:** aimed to reduce Dutch trade in the Atlantic (1st in 1651 under Cromwell)
  - Colonies existed solely for the benefit of mother country
  - The **Bank of England** (1694) provided an important source of capital for economic development
  - The **Act of Union** (1707) unified England and Scotland; the Scots sought the benefits of trade within the English empire.
  - British mercantilism differed from France in that gov’t economic regulations often served the private interest of individuals and groups as well as public needs of the state.
- North American colonies were the most valuable to Britain – tobacco, fish, lumber, grain
  - Huge market for British goods: 2.5 million people by 1775
  - The **Triangular Trade**
    - Revolved around the West Indies in the Caribbean and included North America and Africa.

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

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

**Colonial Wars: Britain vs. France**

- **Treaty of Utrecht** (1713) ended the **War of Spanish Succession** (1701-1713)
  - Britain received asiento (slave trade) from Spain
  - Britain allowed to send one ship of merchandise annually into Panama.
- **Treaty of Paris** (1763) ended the **Seven Years War** (1756-1763)
  - Britain gained all French territory in North America
  - Britain controlled more of northeastern India (Bengal)
  - France got back islands in West Indies and some territories in India

Spain’s Latin American colonies: helped revitalize the Spanish empire in the 18th century

- Gold and silver mining recovered
- Significant trade between Spain’s colonies and the mother country
- Creoles elite came to rival top Spanish authorities (about 10% of population)
- Mestizos increased to about 20% of population
- Black slavery existed in Cuba and Puerto Rico

Portuguese Brazil: about 50% of population was African by the early 19th c.

- More successful in blending races than in Spanish colonies or United States
CHANGING SOCIETY IN THE 18TH CENTURY

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

- Increased life-expectancy
  - Increase from age 25 to age 35 in the 18th century
  - Development of public health techniques important breakthrough of 2nd half of 18th century.
    - Improved practices in sanitation.
    - Mass vaccinations such as the small-pox vaccine developed by Edward Jenner
  - Better clothing (due to proto-industrialization)
  - Improvements in developing warm dry housing.
  - Adequate food (due to the agricultural revolution)
  - Humanitarianism led to hospital reform
→ **American Revolution**
- Strong classical liberalism ideals
- Declaration of Independence: huge impact of Locke and the Enlightenment (e.g. natural rights)
- French aid to the U.S. was important in defeating the British army
- American Revolution became a world war
  - Spain joined France hoping to drive Britain from Gibraltar
  - Netherlands joined in against Britain; sought increased trade with U.S.
  - **League of Armed Neutrality**: Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, Ottoman Empire
    - Formed to protect their commerce from British blockade
- **Impact on Europe**:
  - Inspired liberals to seek republicanism (especially during the French Revolution)
  - The war overburdened the French treasury and was a direct cause of the French Revolution

### FRENCH REVOLUTION

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

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

Short-term cause: bankruptcy of the government and enormous debt
- King Louis XVI (1774-1792), financial mismanagement; ½ of budget went to pay interest
  - Jacques Necker: finance minister who tried to raise taxes; privileged classes refused
    - Parlement of Paris blocked tax increases
  - cahiers de doléances: Each estate expected to compile list of suggestions and grievances and present them to the king during upcoming Estates General
  - Estates General, May 1789: 1st time meeting since 1614
    - Parlement of Paris ruled voting would be done by estate (3 total votes)
    - 3rd Estate furious that vote would not be proportional to population
      - Abbé Sieyès: What is the Third Estate? Answer: everything!
      - Rousseau’s Social Contract: the "general will" should prevail (3rd Estate)
    - 3rd Estate prevailed in voting method argument after 6 weeks

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

**Legislative Assembly, 1791-1792**
- New factions emerged:
  - Jacobins: political club that dominated Legislative Assembly
  - Girondins: radical Jacobins who were advanced party of the revolution and brought the country to war
- **Declaration of Pillnitz**, August, 1791: issued by Prussia and Austria in August, 1791
  - Émigrès: French nobles who fled France sought support of foreign countries.
  - Emperor Leopold declared he would restore gov’t of France if the other powers joined him; it was really only a bluff
  - French revolutionaries took Leopold at his word and prepared for war.
- **War of the First Coalition**
  - Legislative Assembly declared war in April, 1792
  - Austrian armies defeated French armies but divisions over eastern Europe saved France
  - **Brunswick Manifesto**: Prussia & Austria threatened to destroy Paris if royal family harmed
  - In response, King stormed at Tuleries, Swiss Guards killed; king taken prisoner
    - Revolutionary sentiment led by Robespierre, Danton, and Marat
    - Marked beginning of “2nd French Revolution”
- **Paris Commune**: Revolutionary municipal gov’t set up in Paris, which usurped powers of the Legislative Assembly
  - Legislative Assembly suspended 1791 constitution
  - **September Massacres** (led by Paris Commune)
    - Rumors of aristocratic and clerical conspiracy with foreign invaders led to massacre of over 1,000 priests, bourgeoisie, and aristocrats

**National Convention, 1792-1795 – “Age of Rousseau”**
- France proclaimed a republic, September 17, 1792
  - Monarchy was abolished.
  - New gov’t based on ideals of equality, liberty, fraternity
- Two factions emerged:
  - The Mountain: radical republicans; urban class (Danton, Robespierre, Marat)
  - Girondins: more moderate faction; represented countryside
- The sans-culottes became extremely influential (not part of National Convention)
  - working-class; extremely radical
  - Kept revolution moving forward: stormed Bastille, march to Versailles, drove king from the Tuleries, September Massacres
- **Louis XVI beheaded** January, 1793
- In February 1793, National Convention declared war on Britain, Holland and Spain, in addition to its war with Austria and Prussia—**First Coalition**
- Mountain ousts Girondins, May 1793: urged to do so by sans-culottes who feared Girondins might ally with conservatives and royalists to maintain power.
Committee of Public Safety, formed in Summer 1793 as emergency gov’t
- Led by Maximilien Robespierre; also Louis Saint-Just
- Carnot Lazare: in charge of universal military conscription (levee en masse)
- Law of Maximum: a planned economy to respond to food shortages and other economic problems; foreshadowed socialism
- Slavery abolished in French West Indies
- Reign of Terror (1793-94): most notorious event of French Revolution
  - Law of Suspects: Created Revolutionary Tribunals at the local level to hear cases of accused enemies brought to “justice”
  - guillotine: created as an instrument of mercy.
  - Queen Marie Antoinette beheaded
  - Girondins executed in September
  - Vendée: region in western France that opposed revolution saw thousands executed
  - Danton and followers executed in 1794
- Cult of the Supreme Being: deistic naturalist religion; Catholics now opposed to the revolution
  - Notre Dame Cathedral was turned into the Temple of Reason

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

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

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<td>King and queen executed</td>
<td>Napoleon became emperor with absolute power</td>
<td>Constitutional monarchy; Bourbons were restored</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Clergy       | • Civil Constitution of the Clergy made Church a dep’t of the gov’t  
• Clergy members required to take an oath to the gov’t  
• Church lands confiscated                  | • Revolutionary Calendar replaced the Christian calendar  
• The Cult of the Supreme Being further undermined the Catholic Church | • Concordat of 1801 restored relations with the Catholic Church  
• “Refactory clergy” reinstated while clergy loyal to the Revolution were removed  
• Church was far weaker than in 1789 |
| Nobility     | • Political influence eclipsed by the bourgeoisie  
• Feudalism (seigneurialism) abolished      | • Imprisoned or fled the country as émigrés between 1791-95  
• Later influence undermined the Directory  
• In rural areas, patriotic nobles remained most politically and economically powerful group | • Many émigrés returned to France  
• Increased influence in Napoleon’s imperial nobility | • Significant influence politically (though not as much as before 1789)  
• Feudalism abolished since 1789  
• Nobles continued to dominate rural areas |
| Middle Class (Bourgeoisie) | • Took control of France in July, 1789  
• Noble privileges abolished  
• Declaration of the Rights of Man resulted in codification of political, social and civil rights  
• Reforms in higher education | • Lost influence between 1792-95 as a result of the San culottes and the Reign of Terror  
• Back in control during the Directory but under attack from the right and the left | • Constitution of 1799 did not guarantee human rights or liberty  
• Political freedoms of bourgeoisie wiped away  
• Some gained noble titles & served in Napoleon’s gov’t | • Reduced influence until the Revolution of 1830 |

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<th>Social Class</th>
<th>The “Age of Montesquieu” (Constitutional Monarchy) 1789-1792</th>
<th>The “Age of Rousseau” (Republic) 1792-1799</th>
<th>The “Age of Voltaire” (Napoleon) 1799-1815</th>
<th>Post-Napoleon</th>
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</table>
| Urban Working Class | • Saw increased influence in Paris (e.g. storming of the Bastille)  
• Guilds dissolved providing more job opportunities for artisans.  
• Le Chapelier Law (1791) outlawed strikes, workers coalitions and assemblies  
• Bread was more affordable | • San-culottes enjoyed major influence from 1791-95  
• Ban on trade unions continued  
• Workers were restricted in their travel  
• Established reasonable prices for bread & flour | • Guilds remained illegal  
• Little influence until after 1830  
• Increased socialist influence during Revolution of 1848 |
| Peasantry | • “Great Fear” resulted in some gains for the peasantry  
• Feudalism abolished  
• Wealthy peasants bought confiscated church lands | • Land gains remained but lords continued to hold the most political and economic power in rural areas  
• Heavily taxed by the Republic | • Napoleon supported the ban on feudalism  
• Indirect taxation was as bad as during the Old Regime | • Wealthier peasants were only group to improve between 1799 and 1815  
• Rural poor gained little from the Revolution |
| Women | • Women influential in March on Versailles and in San-Culottes  
• Gained equal right to divorce as men in 1792  
• Workshops in cities employed more poor women | • Women’s political clubs closed by Jacobins by 1793-94  
• Reign of Terror also targeted certain women (e.g. Olympe de Gouges)  
• Directory in 1795 disbanded women’s workshops and urged women to tend to their homes | • Divorce laws rewritten to favor husbands  
• Gains in inheritance and property rights were removed | Women essentially gained little from the Revolution (although their actions did inspire future reformers) |
NAPOLEONIC ERA (1799-1815) – “Age of Voltaire”

**Consulate Period:** 1799-1804 (Enlightened Reform)

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

**Napoleonic Wars**

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

**Empire Period**, 1804-1814

- Napoleon crowned himself Emperor
- **Grand Empire**: consisted of an enlarged France and satellite kingdoms
- **War of the Third Coalition**: (1805-1807)
  - **Battle of Trafalgar** (1805), Horatio Nelson of Britain destroyed French navy
    - Established supremacy of British navy for over a century
    - Napoleon forced to cancel invasion of Britain
  - **Battle of Austerlitz** (Dec. 1805): Napoleon smashed Austrian army and gained more territory
    - Third Coalition collapsed leaving Napoleon the master over much of Europe
Treaty of Tilsit (1807): symbolized height of Napoleon’s success
- Prussia lost half its population.
- Russia accepted Napoleon’s reorganization of western and central Europe.
- Russia also agreed to accept Napoleon’s Continental System.

Germany reorganized by Napoleon
- Consolidation of 300 states into 38
- Confederation of the Rhine: 15 German states minus Prussia, Austria, and Saxony
  - Napoleon became “Protector” of the Confederation
  - Holy Roman Empire abolished
  - Feudalism abolished

Continental System: aimed to isolate Britain and promote Napoleon’s mastery over Europe
- Berlin Decree, 1806: British ships not allowed in European ports
- Milan Decree, 1807: Napoleon proclaimed any ship stopping in Britain would be seized when it entered the Continent.
- Continental System a major failure: failed to hurt Britain; European countries grew tired of it

The Peninsular War (1808-1814) in Spain: first great revolt against Napoleon’s power
- Guerrilla war against France aided by Britain and led by Duke of Wellington

Russian Campaign (1812):
- Battle of Borodino (1812): ended in draw but Napoleon overextended himself
- French troops invaded all the way to Moscow but eventually driven back and destroyed

War of the Fourth Coalition (1813-1814): Britain, Prussia, Austria, Russia
- Battle of Leipzig (“Battle of Nations”), 1813: Most of Napoleon’s Grand Army destroyed
- Napoleon abdicates April, 1814; Bourbons restored to throne

King Louis XVIII creates Charter of 1814: constitutional monarchy; bicameral legislature
- “first” Treaty of Paris (1814)
  - France surrendered all lands gained since 1792
  - Allies imposed no indemnity or reparations

Congress of Vienna (1814-1815)
- Klemens Von Metternich (1773-1859): dominant figure at the Congress; conservative
- Principles of Settlement: Legitimacy, Compensation, Balance of Power
- “Hundred Days” (March 20-June 22, 1815): Napoleon returns from exile and organizes new army
  - Capitalized on stalled talks at Congress of Vienna
  - Battle of Waterloo, June 1815: Napoleon defeated by Duke of Wellington
  - Napoleon exiled to St. Helena

“2nd” Treaty of Paris: dealt more harshly w/ France; large indemnity, some minor territories
BALANCE OF POWER: 1789-1815 ("2nd Hundred Years’ War")

- France vs. Britain during this period can be seen as a “2nd 100 years War”
- Wars of Louis XIV: coalition of countries kept France from dominating Europe
  - War of the League of Augsburg: France vs. Britain, Netherlands, HRE, Spain, Sweden, Bavaria, Saxony
    - Dutch Stadholder William of Orange became King William of England and led England into the war against France
- War of Austrian Succession (1740-1748):
  - Prussia under Frederick the Great threatened the balance of power in Eastern Europe
    - Gained Silesia from Austria
  - France and Britain fought over territories in North America
- Seven Years’ War (1756-1763):
  - Austria and Russia (with support from France) sought to destroy Prussia
  - “Diplomatic Revolution of 1756”: France sided with Austria against Britain and Prussia.
  - Prussia was outnumbered severely by Russia and Austria but still managed to survive the war.
  - Treaty of Paris (1763): France lost its North American possessions to Britain
- American Revolution: France helped U.S. win its independence from Britain
- French Revolution
  - War of the First Coalition: France vs. Britain, Austria, Prussia
- Napoleonic Wars: France vs. Britain, Prussia, Austria, Russia
  - Waterloo, 1815
  - Congress of Vienna, 1815: balance of power, legitimacy, and compensation

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

- Roots of the Industrial Revolution
  - Commercial Revolution (1500-1700)
  - Rise in capitalism (laissez-faire): bourgeoisie at the forefront
  - Mercantilism: economic self-sufficiency; “bullionism”
  - Overseas colonization: esp. Atlantic economy
  - Scientific revolution: new inventions and experimentation in better agricultural practices
  - Rise in population: between 1750 & 1850 pop. nearly doubled to 266 million

- Proto-industrialization (cottage industry)
  - Flourished first in England
  - Inventions (due to growing worldwide demand for textiles)
    - 1733, John Kay: flying shuttle
    - 1764, James Hargreaves: spinning jenny
    - 1769, Richard Arkwright: water frame--improved thread spinning.
    - 1779, Samuel Crompton combines spinning-jenny & water frame into the mule.
**Reasons favorable to England:**

- Economic and social factors
  - Geographic isolation from the Continent offered protection
  - Good supply of iron and coal
  - Excellent waterways for transportation
- Agricultural revolution
  - Resulted in population growth and abundance of cheap available labor
- Large amount of capital (e.g. Bank of England, 1694)
- Entrepreneurs
  - Inventive and technologically skilled managers, stable gov’t supportive of industry
  - Many were driven by “Protestant work ethic”
- Colonial empire
  - Strong Atlantic economy & navy
  - Gave Britain access to raw materials
- Stable and supportive gov’t policies
  - Rise of the world’s first great textile factories
    - Made production of textiles cheaper, faster and more profitable
  - 1780s, Arkwright: first to use **steam engine** to power looms; factory production of textiles.
  - 1784, Edmund Cartwright (1753-1823) invents loom powered by horses, water, or steam.
  - Metallurgical industries flourished as they provided the machinery
- Steam engines and coal
  - 1769, **James Watt** (1736-1819) invented and patented the first efficient steam engine.
    - Industrial Revolution’s most fundamental advance in technology
  - Iron industry radically transformed by the steam engine
    - Heavy industry: manufacture of machinery and materials used in production
- Transportation Revolution
  - Duke of Bridgewater: developed canal system (with use of steam power)
  - John McAdam (1756-1836): hard-surfaced roads in England
  - 1807, Robert Fulton, *Clermont*: first useful steamship; went up the Hudson River (U.S.)
  - Railroad’s impact:
    - Revolutionized travel overland; fast, cheap, and in any terrain
    - Growing regional and national market
    - 1825, **George Stephenson’s** (*The Rocket*) made railway locomotive commercially successful.
- Britain’s economy by 1850:
  - Produced 2/3 of world’s coal.
  - Produced more than 1/2 of world’s iron.
  - Produced more than 1/2 of world’s cotton cloth.
  - GNP rose 350% between 1801 and 1850; 100% growth between 1780 and 1800.
  - Population increased from 9 million in 1780 to almost 21 million in 1851.
  - Per capita income increased almost 100% between 1801 and 1851.
  - The **Crystal Palace**, built in 1851, symbolized Britain’s economic might
→ **Continental Europe industrializes after 1815**
  - Napoleonic Wars retarded growth of the Continental economy until after 1815
  - Continental countries eventually borrowed (or stole) British technology
  - Industrialization differed in each country after 1815
    - Belgium, Holland, France began in 2nd decade of 19th century.
    - Germany, Austria, and Italy in mid-19th century; Germany eclipsed Britain by 1890s
    - Eastern Europe and Russia at end of the 19th century.
  - Strong sovereign central governments and banking systems to promote native industry
    - **Credit Mobilier** in France: financed major industrial projects
    - Tariff policies used to protect native industries: **Zollverein** in Germany
    - Significance: increased production and availability of manufactured goods.

→ **Social Implications from Industrial Revolution:**
  - New social order replaced traditional stratification (clergy, nobility and masses)
  - **Rise of the middle-class**: **bourgeoisie**
    - Upper bourgeoisie: great bankers, merchants and industrialists
    - “**Petit bourgeoisie**”: small industrialists, merchants and professionals who demanded security and stability from the government.
  - **Proletariat**: new wage-earning class of factory workers
    - During the first century of the industrial revolution a surplus of labor resulted in poor conditions for workers
    - Poorhouses emerged to provide work for those who were unemployed
    - **Friedrich Engels** (1820-1895): lashed out at middle-class abuse of wage-earners
    - **Luddites**: attacked factories, broke machinery; believed factories taking their jobs
    - After 1850, industrial revolution more favorable to workers than negative.
  - **Struggle between labor and capital**
    - Union movement: workers began to organize to improve wages & working conditions
    - **Combination Acts** (1799): Parliament fearful of radicalism of French Revolution, made unions illegal; largely ignored by workers; repealed in 1824
    - **Robert Owen** (1771-1858): in 1834, founded Grand National Consolidated Trades Union
      - Movement failed; after 1851 unions were moving toward craft unions
    - **Chartists**: sought political democracy for all men
    - Union action combined with general prosperity and a developing social conscience, to improve working conditions, wages, and hours first of skilled labor, and later of unskilled labor.
  - **Changes in working conditions**
    - Factory work: more discipline required; increased loss of personal freedom
    - Exploitation of children
    - **Facto...
• Working class injustices, gender exploitation and standard-of-living issues became the 19th century’s great social and political dilemmas
  
  • Family structure: productive work taken out of the home to the factory
    o Gender issues: women’s work now seen as less valuable; increasingly associated with domestic duties.
    o Men separated from wives and children: leaving home to go work or working in different factory
  
  • The “dismal science”: economics
    o David Ricardo (1772-1823): “iron law” of wages -- argued that the high pressure of population would cause wages to always be low.
    o Thomas Malthus (1766-1834): late 18th century economist who believed food supply could not keep up with population growth (pop. growth exponential; food production increased geometrically)
  
  • Historical debate on Industrial Revolution:
    o Capitalists view it as a positive step toward fulfilling human wants and needs
    o Socialists and communists view it as the further exploitation of the have-nots by the haves

### 19TH CENTURY POLITICS: 1815-1848

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• Congress of Vienna (1814-15) met to end the Napoleonic wars and to keep France in check.
  
  • Represented a temporary triumph for the old conservative order
    o Worked to suppress liberal and nationalist impulses throughout Europe
  
  • Klemens von Metternich – Austria; most important leader of the Congress
  
  • Principles: Legitimacy, Compensation, Balance of Power
    o Legitimacy: Bourbons restored to power in France; Papal States returned to the pope; dynasties restored in Netherlands, Sardinia, Tuscany and Modena
    o Compensation: victors were rewarded with territory
      ▪ England received naval bases
      ▪ Austria awarded some provinces in northern Italy, Poland and the Balkans
      ▪ Russia gained most of Poland, Finland and modern-day Moldova and western Ukraine
      ▪ Prussia awarded the Rhineland, 3/5 of Saxony and part of Poland
    o Balance of Power
      ▪ Encirclement of France achieved through a stronger Netherlands, Prussian control of the Rhineland and perpetual Swiss neutrality
• End of Holy Roman Empire  
  o **German Confederation (Bund)** consisted of 39 states—reduced from the original 300—with Austria as leader of the Diet  
• Only Britain emerged as a growing power after the Napoleonic wars  
• Congress of Vienna evaluated  
  o Successfully restored the balance of power in Europe; no world wars occurred between 1815 and 1914  
  o Viewed by liberals and nationalists as repressive and anti-progressive

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

• **John Stuart Mill**: *On Liberty* (1859): classic statement on liberty of the individual.
  o Argued for “absolute freedom of opinion” to be protected from both gov’t censorship and tyranny of the majority.
  o Later argued for women’s rights: *On the Subjection of Women* (1867)

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

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

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

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

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

• **France: July Revolution** (1830):
  o A radical revolt in Paris forced the reactionary King Charles X to abdicate his throne.
  o **Louis Philippe** (r. 1830-1848) of Orleans family became new king under a constitutional monarchy; known as the “Bourgeoisie King”
    ▪ France now controlled by upper-middle class Bourgeoisie bankers and businessmen (in effect, a return to narrow liberalism of 1815)
  o Impact of July Revolution: sparked a wave of revolutions throughout Europe.
• **Italy** (1831-32)
  o Northern Italy—Modena, Parma, and Papal States—saw outbreaks of liberal discontent.
  o Italian nationalists called unification.
    ▪ **Giuseppe Mazzini** (1805-72) and his secret revolutionary society—**Young Italy**.
    ▪ The **Carbonari**: secret nationalist societies advocated force to achieve national unification.
  o Austrian troops under Metternich’s enforcement of the Concert of Europe’s philosophy crushed the disorganized revolutionaries.
  o Italian **Risorgimento** (“resurgence” of the Italian spirit) continued—Mazzini’s dream.
• **Germany** (1830-1833)
  o **Carlsbad Decrees** of 1819 had effectively restricted freedom throughout Germany.
  o The July Revolution inspired German university students and professors to lead street demonstrations that forced temporary granting of constitutions in several minor states.
  o Yet, liberal and nationalistic desires for German unification were easily crushed by Metternich’s domination of the German Confederation (Bund), and his influence over Prussia.
• **Prussia**
  o Established economic union of 17 German states—the **Zollverein**—which eliminated internal tariffs and set the tone for greater union.
• **Belgium** (1830)
  o Belgium had been merged with Holland in 1815, the upper classes of Belgium had never reconciled themselves to rule by the Dutch.
  o July Revolution inspired a revolt against Dutch rule in Brussels, led by students and workers.
  o A national Congress wrote a liberal Belgian Constitution.
• **Poland** (1830-31)
  o Nicholas I crushed a nationalist uprising that challenged Russia’s historic domination of Poland. Warsaw to demonstrate his extreme conservatism in foreign policy.
  o The Organic Statute of 1832 declared Poland to be an integral part of the Russian empire.

→ Reform in England
• Young reform-minded Tories **George Canning** and **Robert Peel** gained influence (1820s)
  o Abandoned Congress System, reformed prisons and criminal code, allowed membership in labor unions, established efficient metropolitan police force (“Bobbies”)
  o Religious Reform:
    ▪ 1673 Test Act was repealed (had banned non-Anglicans from office)
    ▪ Catholic Emancipation Act (1829) granted full civil rights to Roman Catholics.
• **Earl Grey**, leader of **Whigs** asked by new king George IV to form a new government (1830)
  o **Whigs** were heavily supported by middle class
  o **Reform Bill of 1832** (spurred by cholera epidemic)
    ▪ Sought to increase number of voters from 6% of population to 12%.
    ▪ Sought to eliminate underpopulated electoral districts (“rotten boroughs”) and replace them with representation from new manufacturing districts and cities
  o Labor Reform:
    ▪ **Factory Act of 1831**: forbade child labor under age of nine
    ▪ Slavery abolished in British West Indies, 1833
    ▪ **Poor Law, 1834**: required healthy unemployed workers to live in workhouses.
    ▪ **10 Hour Act, 1847**: limited work hours for women and children to 10 hours per day
Chartists: sought universal suffrage
- **The People’s Charter** (The Great Charter): also demanded secret balloting, no property qualifications for members of Parliament, salaries for member of Parliament, equal electoral districts (end to “rotten boroughs”), annual elections for Parliament.
  - Significance: although movement failed all its ideas adopted in late 19th and early 20th c.
- Corn Laws repealed, 1846
  - **Anti-Corn Law League** led by Richard Cobden and John Bright who argued for lower food prices.
- Navigation Laws repealed in 1849

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

**France**
- **“February Revolution”**
  - Working class and liberals unhappy with King Louis Philippe, especially his minister Francois Guizot (who opposed electoral reform); King forced to abdicate
  - **Second French Republic**: led by liberal Alphonse Lamartine (allied w/ bourgeoisie)
  - **Louis Blanc**: socialist thinker emerged as a leader among the working classes.
  - **National workshops**: created to provide work for the unemployed
  - Reforms: abolished slavery in the empire, 10-hr workday in Paris, abolished death penalty
  - April elections for new Constituent Assembly resulted in conflict between liberal capitalists and socialists
    - Workers attempted to create a revolutionary republic after Blanc was dropped from assembly.
- **“June Days” Revolution**
  - Cause: gov’t closed national workshops
  - Marked beginning of class warfare in France
  - Workers sought war against poverty and redistribution of income.
  - Barricades put up in streets to oppose gov’t forces (Hugo’s *Les Miserables* based on this)
  - **General Cavaignac**: assumed dictatorial powers & crushed revolt (10,000 dead)
  - Victory for conservatives
- **Election of 1848: Louis Napoleon** defeated Cavaignac
  - 1852: Louis Napoleon consolidates power and becomes **Emperor Napoleon III**
  - Gains: Universal manhood suffrage in 1848
• Italy
  o Italian nationalists and liberals seek to end foreign domination of Italy
    ▪ Milan, Lombardy and Venetia expel Austrian rulers
    ▪ Bourbon rulers in Sicily and Naples defeated (Kingdom of Two Sicilies)
    ▪ Sardinia-Piedmont declared war on Austria
    ▪ Giuseppe Mazzini established Roman Republic in 1849; protected by Giuseppe Garibaldi
    ▪ Pope Pius IX forced to flee
  o Failure of revolutions in Italy result in conservative victory:
    ▪ Austrian General Radetsky crushed Sardinia-Piedmont; regained Lombardy and Venetia
    ▪ French troops took back Papal States
    ▪ Causes for failure:
      ❖ Rural people did not support revolutions
      ❖ Revolutionaries not united (as was also the case in Germany)
      ❖ Fear of radicals among moderates

• Austria
  o Habsburg empire was vulnerable to revolutionary challenge
    ▪ Ethnic minorities sought nationalistic goals: Hungarians, Slavs, Czechs, Italians, Serbs, Croats, and others. (More non-Germans than Germans lived in the empire)
    ▪ Austrian govt was reactionary; liberal institutions were non-existent.
    ▪ Social reliance on serfdom doomed masses of people to a life without hope.
    ▪ “February Days” in France sparked rebellion for liberal reforms.
  o Hungarian war against Austria (Vienna)
    ▪ Louis Kossuth (1802-1894) Hungarian (Magyar) leader demanded independence
    ▪ Czechs and three northern Italian provinces declared autonomy.
    ▪ Hungarian armies drove within sight of Vienna
    ▪ Austrian empire collapsed; Metternich fled
    ▪ Serfdom abolished
    ▪ Revolutionary govt failed to govern effectively
    ▪ Habsburgs restored royal absolutism by defeating Kossuth and the Hungarians
      ❖ Slavic minorities resisted Magyar invasion and the Hungarian army withdrew
      ❖ Austrian and Russian armies defeated the Hungarian army.
      ❖ Hungary would have to wait until 1867 for political autonomy
  o Bohemia
    ▪ Prague Conference developed notion of Austroslavism: constitution and autonomy within Habsburg empire.
      ❖ Pan-Slav Congress failed to unite Slavic peoples in the empire.
      ❖ Austrian military ultimately occupied Bohemia and crushed rebellion

• German States
  o Revolutions inspired by 1848 revolutions in France
    ▪ Liberals demanded a constitutional government and union or federation of German states.
    ▪ Frederick William IV rejected the liberal constitution; imposed a conservative one that guaranteed royal control of gov’t (lasted until 1918).
Frankfurt Parliament (May, 1848)
- Liberal, romantic, & nationalist leaders called for elections to a constituent assembly, from all states in the German Bund, for the purpose of unifying the German states.
- Sought war with Denmark to annex Schleswig & Holstein; Prussia declared war on Denmark
- Presented constitution for a united German federation
  - Selected Prussian King Frederick William IV as emperor; he declined claiming “divine right of kings”
  - Failure of Prussia and Austria to support unification movement resulted in its collapse
- Frederick William’s attempt to unify Germany ended in failure
  - Austria demanded Prussian allegiance to the Bund (that Austria dominated)
  - “Humiliation of Olmutz”: Prussia dropped plan to unify Germany, leaving Austria as the dominant German state in the Bund.
  - Prussia would seek revenge in 1866 (Austro-Prussian War)

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

Impact of socialism on European politics became profound by late 19th century (see below)

**ROMANTICISM: (1800-1850)**
- Characteristics:
  - Emotion over reason
  - Emphasized beauty and tempestuousness of nature
  - Supported popular revolutions for liberty and nationalism
  - Rejected the Enlightenment view of nature as a precise harmonious whole as well as deism
  - Rejected Enlightenment view of the past which was counter-progressive to human history
  - Encouraged personal freedom and flexibility
  - Humanitarian movements were created to fight slavery, poverty and industrial evils.
- Forerunners of romanticism
  - Rousseau: most important (**Social Contract**, 1762); believed society and materialism corrupted human nature; humans in a state of nature were a “noble savage”
  - Kant: Accepted rationalism of the Enlightenment while preserving belief in human freedom, immortality, & existence of God.
  - Romanticism inspired by French Revolution
  - Sturm und Drang (“Storm and Stress”): used by German romantics in 1770s and 80s conveying emotional intensity.
- Romantic Poetry
  - Romantics saw poetry as supreme over all other literary forms—an expression of one’s soul
  - William Wordsworth (1771-1855)
  - Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772-1834)
  - Sir Walter Scott (1771-1832)
  - Lord Byron (1788-1824)
  - Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792-1822)
• Romantic Literature
  o **George Sand** (1804-76) female writer: Themes of romantic love of nature and moral idealism
  o **Johann Wolfgang von Goethe** (1749-1832)
  o **Victor Hugo** (1802-1885): *Hunchback of Notre Dame; Les Misérables*
  o **Alexander Dumas** (1802-70): *Three Musketeers*
  o Grimm’s *Fairy Tales*: Popularity of German stories reflected growing German nationalism

• Romantic Art
  o **Caspar David Friedrich** (1774-1840), *Wanders above the Mist*
  o **Eugene Delacroix** (1796-1863), *Liberty Leading the People; Massacre at Chios*
  o **Theodore Gericault** (1791-1824), *Raft of the Medusa*
  o **J. M. W. Turner** (1775-1855), depicted nature’s power and terror
  o **John Constable** (1776-1837), depicted English rural landscapes

• Music
  o Music often conveyed human emotion or nationalistic feelings
  o **Ludwig van Beethoven** (1770-1826): one of first composers to convey inner emotion through music
  o Hector Berlioz (1803-1869): works conveyed moods and actions via instrumental music
  o Frédéric Chopin (1810-49): piano works highlighted Polish folk songs and dances
  o Franz Liszt (1811-1886): some works conveyed folk music of his native Hungary; greatest piano virtuosos of the 19th century.
  o Antonín Dvořák (1841-1904): works utilized folk music of his native Bohemia
  o Giuseppi Verdi: greatest Italian opera composer; nationalist themes
  o Richard Wagner (1813-1883): German opera composer who emphasized German myths and legends
  o Peter Tchaikovsky (1840-1893): often used Russian folk songs in his symphonies and ballets

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

**URBANIZATION IN THE LATE 19TH CENTURY**

• By 1900 much of Europe had become urban and industrial (most important result of the industrial revolution)
  o First Industrial Revolution: 1780-1850 – textiles, coal, iron, railroads
  ➤**Second Industrial Revolution:** last half 19th century

• Four major aspects
  o Steel production: steel rails, skyscrapers
  o Oil: lighting, internal combustion engine for factory machines
  o electricity: increasingly powered cities
  o chemicals: Germany led in photo processing and other areas

• By 1890s Germany became most powerful industrial economy in Europe (surpassing Britain)

• Expansion of industry and technology created growing demand for experts with specialized knowledge.
  o Professionals: Engineering, architecture, chemistry, accounting and surveying.
  o Management of large public and private institutions also emerged as a profession

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Urbanization:
- The industrial revolution attracted huge numbers of workers into the cities
  - Britain the first large country to experience urban growth (over 50% of population in 1891)
  - Certain Continental countries followed
- Poor living conditions
  - Parks and open spaces almost nonexistent
  - Many people lived in extremely overcrowded attics or cellars (as many as 10 per room)
  - Open drains and sewers flowed along streets with garbage and excrement
  - Total absence of public transportation
- Public health movement
  - Edwin Chadwick became most important reformer of living conditions in cities.
    - Influenced by Jeremy Bentham: idea of “greatest good for greatest number”
    - “Sanitary idea” most important: believed disease could be prevented by cleaning up the urban environment
    - Adequate supply of clean piped water to carry off excrement of communal outhouses.
  - Britain, Germany and France adopted Chadwick’s ideas in light of the cholera epidemic in 1840s.
  - Significance progress occurred in many European cities by the 1860s and 1870s
- Urban planning & public transportation
  - France took the lead during reign of Napoleon III
    - Baron von Haussman redeveloped Paris: wide boulevards (partially to prevent barricades), better middle-class housing on outskirts, demolition of slums, creation of parks and open spaces.
    - New system of aqueducts doubled fresh water supply and sewer systems were modernized.
    - Cities such as Vienna, Cologne followed Paris’ lead.
  - Mass transportation:
    - By 1890s the electric streetcar had revolutionized city transportation; created suburbs on outskirts
    - By 1900, only 9% of Britain’s urban population overcrowded (more than 2 per room)
- Changes in social structure as a result of industrial revolution
  - Increase in standard of living eventually resulted from industrialization
    - Gap between wealthy and working class still remained enormous
    - Industrial and urban development made society more diverse and less unified.
  - Diversity within middle class
    - Upper middle class: bankers, industrial leaders, large-scale commerce
    - Diversified middle class: businessmen, professionals, merchants, doctors and lawyers
    - Lower middle class: independent shopkeepers and small traders
  - Working class: about 80% of population
    - Many were peasants and hired hands (especially in Eastern Europe)
    - Less unified and homogenous compared to middle classes
    - Highly skilled workers were at the top of working class (about 15% of pop.)
    - Semi-skilled workers: carpentry, bricklaying, successful factory workers
    - Unskilled workers and domestic servants were at the bottom.
Changing family
- Romantic love became the most important reason for marriage by 1850
- High rate of illegitimacy reversed after 1850; much premarital sex but more people married
- Prostitution: middle and upper class men most active customers (married late)
- After 1850 the work of most wives was increasingly distinct and separate from their husbands.
- Middle-class women begin to organize and resist their second-class status to husbands
- Child rearing became more child-centered with the wife dominating the home domain.

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

Scientific advances
- Scientific ideas and methods gained huge popularity; some saw it almost as a religion
- Bacterial Revolution
  - Louis Pasteur (1822-1895) developed germ theory of disease
    - pasteurization: fermentation caused by growth of living organisms and the activity of these organisms could be suppressed by heating the beverage.
  - Joseph Lister developed “antiseptic principle” in performing surgeries.
  - Diseases such as typhoid, typhus, cholera, and yellow fever were now under control.
- Dmitri Mendeleev (1834-1907): codified rules of chemistry in the periodic law and the periodic table in 1869.
- August Comte (1798-1857): father of “sociology”
  - Positivism: All intellectual activity progresses through predictable stages; thus humans would soon discover the eternal laws of human relations through the study of sociology.
- Charles Darwin: On the Origin of Species by the Means of Natural Selection, 1859
  - Theory of evolution: All life had gradually evolved from a common ancestral origin in an unending “struggle for survival;” species most able to adapt survived
  - Thomas Huxley became Darwin’s biggest supporter (“Darwin’s Bulldog”)
  - Darwin’s theory refuted literal interpretation of the Bible; created a crisis in some churches
- Social Darwinism: Herbert Spencer applied Darwin’s ideas to human society -- “survival of the fittest”; natural laws dictated why certain people were successful and others were not.
→ **Sigmund Freud** (1856-1939)
  o Saw humans as irrational creatures (this was in stark contrast to the rationalism of the enlightenment)
  o Founder of psychoanalysis

→ **The New Physics**
  o **Marie Curie** (1867-1934): discovered the first radioactive element in 1910 (radium)
  o **Ernest Rutherford** (1871-1937): split the atom in 1919
  o **Max Planck** (1858-1947): studied sub-atomic energy which shook the foundations of the Newtonian view of the universe
  o **Albert Einstein** (1879-1955): Theory of relativity in time and space challenge the traditional ideas of Newtonian physics.
    ▪ United an apparently infinite universe with an incredibly small and fast-moving sub-atomic universe.

→ **Realism**: belief that literature and art should depict life as it really was.
  * Largely a reaction to the failed Revolutions of 1848-49 and subsequent loss of idealism
  * Literature
    o France (beginning of realist movement)
      ▪ **Honoré de Balzac** (1799-1850): *The Human Comedy* -- depicts urban society as a struggle, amoral and brutal, characterized by a Darwinian struggle for wealth and power
      ▪ **Gustave Flaubert** (1821-1880): *Madame Bovary* -- portrays the provincial middle class as petty, smug, and hypocritical
      ▪ **Thomas Hardy**: *Tess of the d'Urbervilles*; portrayed a woman who was ostracized for having pre-marital sex
      ▪ **Émile Zola** (1840-1902): The giant of realist literature
        ❖ Portrayed gritty, animalistic view of working-class life
    o England: **George Eliot** (Mary Ann Evans) (1819-1880)--examined ways in which people are shaped by their social class as well as their own inner strivings, conflicts, and moral choices.
    o Russia: **Leo Tolstoy** (1828-1910) – greatest Russian realist
      ▪ *War and Peace*: story of Russian society during the Napoleonic wars
    o Scandinavia: **Henrik Ibsen** (1828-1906) – “father of modern drama”; realism in his plays
  * Realism in Art
    o Did not promote idealized works; ordinary people were the subject of numerous paintings.
    o Gustav Courbet (1819-1877): coined the term “realism”
    o François Millet (1814-1875): *The Gleaners* portrays farm women gleaning their fields after the harvest
    o Honore Daumier (1808-1979): *Third-Class Carriage* depicts a poor family traveling on a train
    o **Edgar Degas** (1834-1917) – French realist: *Women Ironing* accurately captures the hard work and fatigue of unskilled labor
    o **Édouard Manet** (1832-1883): considered by many as the first “modern” painter
      ▪ Bridged both the realist and impressionist movements
      ▪ *Le Déjeuner sur l’herbe (Luncheon on the Grass)* 1863, shocked audiences by portraying a female nude and two male clothed companions in an everyday park setting
      ▪ *Olympia*, (1863) seemed equally revolting to the Salon for its casual nude portrayal of a prostitute