



STUDY MATERIAL FOR B.A HISTORY
HISTORY OF EUROPE 1453 - 1789
SEMESTER - V, ACADEMIC YEAR 2020-21



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UNIT I BEGINNING OF MODERN AGE

Beginning of Modern Age

The history of Europe from the 15th century to the 18th century can be considered to be the beginning of the modern age. During this time, many major events caused Europe to change around the turn of the 16th century, starting with the Fall of Constantinople in 1453, the fall of Muslim Spain and the discovery of the Americas in 1492, and Martin Luther's Protestant Reformation in 1517.

Renaissance

The term 'Renaissance' is borrowed from French and means 'rebirth'. It was used to describe the cultural movement that began in Italy in the fourteenth century and spread across Europe by the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries. The movement was characterized by a revival of the classical sources in the sphere of learning.

Meaning of the Renaissance

Renaissance means rebirth or renewal. As an intellectual and cultural revival, it altered the history of Europe. And while, all spheres of everyday life from religion to politics, science and literature witnessed change, it was most expressly manifest in the artistic sphere.

Causes of Renaissance

1. Turkey's capture of Constantinople:

Constantinople was of vital importance as it was the centre of classical learning in the eastern Roman Empire. In 1453, when the Turks seized control of Constantinople, there was a shift in the seat of classical learning.

2. Flourished in Italy:

Greek scholars carried along with them rare manuscripts to the new centre of learning- Italy. Therefore, classical learning now flourished in Italy.

3. Decline of feudalism:

With the emergence of monarchy in England, France and Spain and the birth of nation states, feudalism as perpetrated by the church through imposition of taxes was fast losing ground. These rulers kept the forces of feudalism in check and around AD 1300 feudalism was on its way out.

Renaissance in Italy

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

Renaissance in Literature

Literature underwent a transformation with Renaissance. Humanist writers engaged with classical literature which in turn gave shape to a whole new corpus of work. New European



languages gained prominence as writers like Dante and Petrarch transformed the literary scene. Dante's *Divine Comedy*, an Italian epic about a journey in to the other world and Petrarch's *Sonnets to Laura* gave humanism a new direction. Other writers of the age were Ariosto who composed *Orlando Furioso* and famous for his work *Jerusalem Deliver*.

Renaissance in Art

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

Renaissance in Science

Roger Bacon (AD 1214–1294), who discovered uses of gunpowder and magnifying lenses. He also anticipated an improvement in ships with them becoming oarless and carriage that need not be horse drawn.

Copernicus (AD 1473–1543), a Polish priest who faced much flak for suggesting that the sun and not the earth was the Centre of the universe and that the earth and other heavenly bodies revolved around it.

Galileo (AD 1564–1642) apart from being the inventor of telescope and studying the movement of heavenly bodies also proved the Copernican theory correct through his experiments and mathematical calculations.

Johannes Kepler (AD 1571–1630) discovered that the earth and the planets revolve around the sun in elliptical orbit and not in a circular one as earlier believed. Newton, a British scientist, is famous for his theory of gravitation and laws of motion.

Renaissance in Politics

To Petrarch, a civilized individual was trained in the *studia humanitatis*: grammar, rhetoric, poetry, history, and moral philosophy. Petrarch's writings were personal and self-reflecting; in no way pursuing a political purpose. As a cleric and an envoy for the Church, he travelled extensively, allowing him to collect classical texts. Petrarch was the founding father of Italian Humanism, and his writings and poems "would later be used to help create the modern Italian language.

Results of Renaissance

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

The geographical discoveries

The beginning of the Renaissance was an era that embodied the spirit of discovery.



America was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492, the continent getting its name from Amerigo Vespucci, another explorer who was meant to perform this feat. In 1498, Portuguese sailor, Vasco da Gama, discovered an all new sea route to India via the Cape of Good Hope and reached Calicut.

Important of discoveries

Vasco Da Gama

Vasco da Gama (1460–1524) started his journey eastwards from Lisbon in Portugal on July 8, 1497. Having circumnavigated the Cape of Good Hope of Africa on November 22, he stayed on course his voyage to India. He overcame hardships on the way, in the form of Muslim traders who did not want him to interfere with their established trade routes and finally reached Calicut on the Indian shore on May 20, 1498. He was subjected to high taxation and asked to leave all his goods in India. He finally set sail for Portugal on August 29, 1498 accompanied by Indian hostages apart from his goods, and reached there in 1499. He received great honour for his achievement and was sent on another expedition to India in 1502- 03 by King Manuel I of Portugal.

Ferdinand Magellan

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

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UNIT - II

THE REFORMATION MOVEMENT

The Reformation Movement

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

Meaning of Reformation

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

The Causes of the Reformation

1. Influence of the Renaissance:

The Renaissance had brought about remarkable changes in the European society. With the intellectual awakening, cultural changes, rise of humanism and generation of spirit of enquiry, there was irreverence for authority and meaningless dogmas that were upheld by the church. The scientific and geographical advancements, the crusades, the emergence of printing press and educational reforms all brought about a change in the perception of people.

2. Corruption in the church:

Classical studies were not banished by the Catholic Church. The Church was aware of all richness and value that these texts contained that would help men transcend their own mental boundaries. Origen, St. Clement of Alexandria, St. Gregory of Nazianzen, St. Basil, and St. Jerome were among a few of the Catholics who encouraged their followers to engage with classical texts leading to the early efforts to bring together the religious and the secular, i.e., classical culture and Christian beliefs. His disciple, Boccaccio (1313–1375), too reverted to the classics and had even acquired knowledge of Greek but unlike Petrarch he chose paganism over Christianity.

3. Influence of economic changes:

The flourishing trade and commerce changed the outlook of the people during Renaissance. The educated middle class began to question the authority that the church exercised over the common man. New trade routes were discovered, and as exports grew, the wealth of the mercantile class increased manifold. If this was not enough, Beccadelli went a step ahead and entirely devoted himself in the production of distasteful work against the Church.

4. Efforts of intellectuals:

The spirit of enquiry had its first victim in the form of the church. Guided by empiricism and scientific ideas, people no longer adhered to the blind faith that religion required. Reformation initially targeted the weeding out the corruption in the Catholic Church. The sale of clerical offices, simony, was evidence enough of the malpractices of the church. The



ecclesiastical hierarchy with Pope at the apex was full of wrongdoings according to them. The successors of Martin Luther, John Wycliffe and Janhus were also involved in the reforms.

Martin Luther

The Reformation of the sixteenth century was not exceptional. There were many reformers in the medieval church like the St. Francis of Assisi, Valdes, Janhus, and John Wycliffe who had raised concern over the changing role of church prior to the year 1517. During the sixteenth century great humanist scholar, Erasmus of Rotterdam was among the main supporter of liberal Catholic reforms. This clearly establishes the fact that many had tried to renew the church prior to Luther's post titled as Ninety-five Theses on October 31, 1517. It was posted on the door of the Castle Church, Wittenberg, Germany; this was also evening before the All Saints' Day. The date is regarded as the official date for starting of the Reformation. Martin Luther felt that he was different from other reformers since he wanted to resolve the problem at the root levels of the theory of the church rather than just end the prevailing corruption that had become a part of the church life. With the help of his theses he condemned the indulgence system, asserting that the pope was not an authority above the purgatory and he also felt that the doctrine of the merits of the saints was baseless in the gospel. In 1521 Luther was expelled; what started as an in-house reform movement had soon turned into a splintering in western Christendom.

The Spread of Reformation

Germany

The Reformation movement spread fast in Germany, and various reform instincts rose unconventionally of Luther. In Zürich, Huldrych Zwingli constructed a Christian theocracy, the church and state merged for servicing of the God. Zwingli was in agreement with Luther about the uniqueness of the doctrine of justification by faith, but at the same time he also promoted an altered interpretation of the Holy Communion.

Austria

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

Czech Lands

The prominent representative of the Bohemian Reformation was Czech reformer and university professor Jan Hus. He is also regarded among the pioneers of the Protestant Reformation. In 1415, Jan Hus was confirmed as heretic and was killed at the Council of Constance while he was freely defending his teachings.

Switzerland

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

Reformation in Zürich

Along with the activity in Germany, the Swiss Confederation witnessed its own movement with Huldrych Zwingli at the helm of it. Zwingli relocated to Zurich in 1518, a year after Martin Luther started Reformation in Germany. There were a lot of similarities between



the two reformers and their movement Zwinglianism seems to have a strange semblance to Lutheranism.

Reformation in Republic of Geneva

One of the leading personalities for Reformation in Geneva was John Calvin; his legacy is visible in modern day churches as well. After the throwing out of Luther and Pope's condemnation of the Reformation, the effort and literatures of John Calvin were effective in formulation of an informal agreement between different groups in Switzerland, Scotland, Hungary, Germany and in various other places.

The Counter Reformation

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

Results of Reformation

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



UNIT - III

RISE OF SPAIN

Rise of Spain

The history of Spain dates back to the Middle Ages. In 1516, Habsburg Spain unified a number of disparate predecessor kingdoms; its modern form of a constitutional monarchy was introduced in 1813, and the current democratic constitution dates to 1978. After the completion of the Reconquista, the Crown of Castile began to explore across the Atlantic Ocean in 1492, expanding into the New World and marking the beginning of the Golden Age under the Spanish Empire. The kingdoms of Spain were united under Habsburg rule in 1516, that unified the Crown of Castile, the Crown of Aragon and smaller kingdoms under the same rule. Until the 1650s, Habsburg Spain was among the most powerful states in the world.

Charles V

He was the son of Philip the Handsome and Joanna the Mad of Castile. His maternal grandparents were Ferdinand II of Aragon and Isabella I of Castile, whose marriage had first united Spain. His paternal grandparents were Emperor Maximilian I and Mary of Burgundy. His aunt was Catherine of Aragon, Queen of England and first wife of Henry VIII, his cousin was Mary I of England who married his son Philip.

Heritage and Early life

Charles was born in the Flemish city of Ghent and brought up in Mechelen by his aunt Margaret until 1517. The culture and courtly life of the Burgundian Low Countries was the prime influence in his early life. He was brought up to speak French and Flemish, but also added Spanish and some German. Indeed, he was said to speak "Spanish to God, Italian to women, French to men, and German to his horse". He could not speak Spanish very well, as it was not his primary language.

Wars with the Turks and France

The Turks attacked in the Mediterranean, as well as in Hungary. These attacks were particularly dangerous, as they were supported by the wide-ranging corsairs, or pirates of the Barbary States of North Africa, whose rulers acknowledged themselves vassals to the Turkish sultan. In 1535, Charles commanded his most successful campaign against the Barbary States, conquering Tunis; but in 1541 he failed against Algiers. Charles's most persistent enemy, however, was France, whose Valois kings fought the emperor for the leadership of Europe in general and for the domination of Italy in particular. As early as 1522, Charles made an alliance with Henry VIII of England to attack and partition France. The plan failed, but the French never forgave Charles nor fully trusted him again. In 1525, Charles's army defeated and captured Francis I of France at the Battle of Pavia in Italy. But when Francis was released after a compromise peace, the so-called Italian Wars were resumed. The Spaniards finally acquired (1535) Milan and confirmed their domination of Italy, but Charles failed either to break French power or to win over Francis I by the offer of Milan to a French prince.

Schmalkaldic War

In 1546-47, Charles was temporarily free to turn against the German Protestant princes, who had allied against him in the Schmalkaldic League. He defeated and captured one of their leaders, John Frederick I, elector of Saxony, at the Battle of Mühlberg (1547), after which the other, Philip of Hesse, surrendered; but other German princes would not accept the religious settlement he tried to impose in the Augsburg Interim (1548). In alliance with France, they renewed the war in 1551 and forced the emperor to flee from Germany. Charles's brother,



Ferdinand, eventually negotiated the Peace of Augsburg in 1555. This gave the German princes, but not their subjects, the right to choose either Catholicism or Lutheranism.

Abdication

In 1555-56, Charles V voluntarily abdicated in several stages. He left the Holy Roman Empire to Ferdinand and all his other dominions to his son, Philip II of Spain. Many historians have seen Charles V's reign as a failure. His contemporaries, however, did not, especially as Philip's marriage (1554) with Queen Mary I of England seemed to open up dazzling new prospects for the house of Habsburg. No one could know that Mary would die young and childless. Charles retired to a comfortable villa built next to the monastery of San Yuste in Spain. There he lived the life he had always wished to live. He spent much time in religious devotions but was also surrounded by his fine collection of paintings by Titian and other Renaissance art and architecture. He listened to music, dismantled and assembled mechanical clocks, ate gluttonously, and, not least important, still meddled in European political affairs. Charles died on Sept. 21, 1558.

Philip II

Philip II (1527–1598) was the King of Spain (1556–98), King of Portugal (1581–98), the King of Naples and Sicily (both from 1554), and the King of England and Ireland (due to his marriage to Queen Mary I from 1554–58). During his reign, Spain was at its zenith of influence and power. That is why it is often called the Spanish Golden Age.

Internal and foreign policies during the reign of Philip II of Spain

In 1540, Philip II acquired the Dukedom of Milan from Charles V and after entering into matrimony with Mary of England in 1554, he also received the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. On October 25, 1555, Charles handed over the Netherlands to Philip II and by January 16, 1556, the empires of Spain and all overseas dominions were also controlled by him. He soon acquired the Franche-Comté as well.

Method of Internal Administration

Philip II worked very hard in order to get rid of the defects existing in the administrative system. He became popular amongst his successors for the way he functioned, as it tremendously slowed the system that was already famous for its dilatoriness. All communication was carried out in a written manner, in form of formal memoranda or reports. The state of internal administration, also in some way led to the rebellions of the Moriscos of Granada in 1568 and Aragonese in 1591, lasting for almost a year. In countries, where Protestantism prevailed, he was considered as a true Catholic, who was willing to go to any length for the service of the God. His reign is often referred to as the golden era of Spain.

Foreign Policy of Philip II

His foreign policy affected most parts of Europe. He had many liabilities and lacked adequate financial resources in order to manage his foreign relations well. His foreign policy gained outstanding victories, like conquering the Turks at Lepanto, but also shameful downfalls, which occurred in 1588 with the let-down of the Spanish Armada.

Philip II and relations with Turks

The Turks were Spain's primary enemy in the Mediterranean. Muslims had posed a threat to the security of Spain for many centuries and many rulers had tried to defeat them and attempted to win over the praise of their subjects. Several battles in the sea had taken place



between the Tunis and Sicily. During the 1550s, Philip II assumed a cautious policy towards the Muslims in the Mediterranean, after the Knights of St. John were debarred from Tripoli and a Turkish army had managed to enter Minorca. Philip II needed a barricade in the central Mediterranean in order to wedge out the Turks and for this Tripoli had to be acquired back. The two-fold policy was diplomatic as well as intimidating. Philip II had full support of the noblemen of power. With the death of Henry in 1580, the path was clear for Philip II and thus, in December after defeating Dom Antonio, he took over Lisbon.

Philip II and relations with France

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

Philip II and relations with England

Marriage between Philip II and Mary was a political alliance and aimed at strengthening the two nations, to control the French power. The Habsburg- Valois Wars were on the verge of being finished and the relations with England would further strengthen the position of Spain during peace agreements. In spite of all his efforts, Philip was not able to win over the hearts of the English, which agitated him into calling them cold and unfriendly. Philip II had managed to persuade the Vatican from excommunicating Elizabeth as he was afraid of sparking rebellion among the Catholics. In case such a rebellion broke out, the French would not stop themselves from taking advantage of the situation. The harmony between the two continued in spite of the increasing Dutch revolt. Philip II.

The Dutch War of Independence

It is also referred to as Eighty Years War. It is the struggle of the small Dutch Republic for getting freedom from the Spanish Kingdom.

Causes

The War for independence started due to the efforts of Prince William I of Orange, who wanted to get the control of the Dutch provinces in order to safeguard the region from the attempts of King Philip II to eradicate Protestantism.

He began to fund missionary attacks, two of which, took place in 1568 and 1572; none of them was a success. In 1573, the Geuzen attacks helped in gaining control of the Spanish areas in the Dutch land. Philip II with his huge financial resources, due to his Spanish inheritance, began to launch massive efforts so that the spread of Protestantism can be stopped.

An enormous army was funded by him and dispatched to the Low Lands and the Great Armada in order to take over England in 1588. The Armada was going to transport the Spanish army under the command of Alessandro Farnese, the Duke of Parma, so that England could be attacked. The Armada was not a success, but then Parma managed to regain the control in the southern Low Countries (the present day, Flanders in Belgium) for the Spanish empire and equipped the army to attack the new Northern Dutch Republic.



The Dutch managed to face the Spanish army to some extent as during this time, Philip II was at war with England and France as well. During that time, the Dutch had adequate armed capacity along with a well-equipped fleet. Dutch were able to secure their borders.

Course of the war

The war started again in 1621; it was a part of the Thirty Years War. The Spanish were able to again control over vital territories. However, Prince Frederick Henry of Orange also was able to gain few important victories for the Dutch in the years after 1625. An alliance with France became a turning point in the Dutch conflict. This alliance subsequently, not only helped in attaining freedom from the Spanish control, but was instrumental in separating northern and southern Netherlands. The French were able to take control of the Walloon provinces under the Spanish control and marched into Flanders.

By this time, the growing power of the French was becoming a concern for not just Spain, but also the Dutch, who were getting insecure. In order to control the growing power of French, the two countries decided to call a truce in 1648. The truce became official with the

Peace of Westphalia. Under the terms, Spain not only acknowledged the United Provinces of the Netherlands as the Dutch Republic, but also recognised their independence.

Results of the war

There are many factors contributing to the decline of the Spanish kingdom. During the seventeenth century, Spain began to have severe financial issues. The colonies of Spain in the Netherlands began to revolt, since the rulers of the empire did not show interest in their problems, forget about trying to resolve them. Moreover, the numbers of Calvinist increased in the region. Since the Spanish rulers were devout Catholic and were not able to tolerate the spread of Calvinism, they became even harsher in their treatment towards those, who were not willing to accept Catholic faith. The war once again began to deplete the finances of the Spanish rulers and they werenot able to maintain their military strength. To their misfortune the French began to support the Dutch. Spain and France had been on logger heads for centuries and French were financially more powerful than Spain at that time.



UNIT - IV **RISE OF FRANCE**

Rise of France

In the late 18th century the monarchy and associated institutions were overthrown in the French Revolution. The country was governed for a period as a Republic, until the French Empire was declared by Napoleon Bonaparte. Following Napoleon's defeat in the Napoleonic Wars, France went through several further regime changes, being ruled as a monarchy, then briefly as a second republic, and then as a second empire, until a more lasting French third republic was established in 1870. France was one of the Triple Entente powers in World War I, fighting alongside the United Kingdom, Russia, Italy, and Japan, the United States and smaller states against Germany and the central powers.

Henry IV

Henry IV, born on 13 December, 1553, is often referred to as Good King Henry or Henry the Great. In 1572, at the age of nineteen, he was crowned as the King of Navarre (as Henry IV) and became the King of France from 1589 to 1610. He, in the beginning, maintained the Protestant faith; being the only king in French history to do such a thing. Due to his faith, he had to struggle against the Catholic League, as they believed that with Protestant faith, he should not be allowed to become the French King. After four years of standoff, he was able to attain his kingdom. He found it practical to avoid the Calvinist faith. Some of the measures taken by him, which exhibited his tolerance, include the promulgation of Edict of Nantes in 1598. This safeguarded the liberties of Protestants in religious matters and also helped in bring an end to the Wars of Religion. He was referred to as the 'Good King Henry' because of his kindness and his generous nature, which constantly reflected in his deeds towards his subjects. He was actively involved in the matter of his kingdom. During his reign the state finances were regularized, agriculture was promoted, all people were encouraged to be educated, and several steps were taken to end corruption. During his reign, the French colonization of the Americas started in the real sense and the colony of the Acadia and its capital, Port-Royal, became one of the foundations.

REFORMS IN FRANCE UNDER THE REIGN OF HENRY IV

Henry IV carried out his duties with the help of his loyal and trusted minister, Maximilien de Bethune, Duke of Sully. The two worked vigorously so that the following areas could be reformed: The finances of the state could be properly regularized. Steps were taken to promote agriculture,

- Measures for the drainage of swamps,
- Several public works were undertaken
- Education was given a boost
- Attempts were made to end corruption

He established, the College Royal Henri-le-Grand in La Fleche. Along with his minister, he developed plans to prevent the devastation of the forest, which included the construction of highways with trees outlining the roads. As an attempt to promote agriculture, several canals and bridges were constructed. Henry IV was instrumental in the construction of Place Royale, now called the Place des Vosges. The Grande Galerie was added to the Louvre Palace. The army in France was modernized, the soldiers were assured of a pay hike, facilities for the training of cadets were established, the artillery service was reconstructed, and security on the



borders was increased. Henry IV did not adopt an aggressive foreign policy towards Spain, but he ensured that Spanish influence continued to lessen in Europe. He compelled Savoy to sign the Treaty of Lyons in 1601, due to which, he was able to acquire Bresse, Bugey, and other parts of territory towards the eastern borders of France. He also signed agreements with the Protestant princes of Germany, Lorraine as well as with the Swiss.

Thirty years war

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

Causes

In German history, the Peace of Augsburg (1555) could bring about only a temporary settlement of the conflict between Catholics and Lutherans in the Holy Roman Empire. The rise of Protestantism rocked Europe significantly. The Holy Roman Empire, a compilation of various principalities, was under constant civil war between the German states that embraced Protestantism and those who adhered loyally to the Catholic faith.

England also became embroiled with the Protestant Reformation after King Henry VIII declared himself leader of Church of England after his request for divorce was denied. France was embroiled also into a religious civil war that was made worst with the events during St. Bartholomew Day in 1572.

Peace seemed apparent but not for long. By the start of the 17th century, the Holy Roman Empire began to be divided once again. Tensions between the Catholics and the Protestants started to rise once more. It rose further with the creation of groupings among the factions. In 1609, the Protestants under the leadership of Frederick V of Palatine formed the Evangelical Union. On the same year, the Catholics under the leadership of Maximilian of Bavaria.

The division developed into a full scale conflict in 1618. A year before, a member of the Hapsburg family was elected to succeed the childless Holy Roman Emperor Matthias as King of Bohemia. As Matthias was already old and feeble, he began to exercise his power. A staunch Catholic, he sent to officials to the capital of Bohemia, Prague. These two Catholic officials clamped down against activities of the Protestants in the city. Furious, the Protestants assembled and barged to the Prague Castle and threw the Catholic officials outside the window. The event known as the Prague Defenestration came unpunished and started the Bohemian revolt and known officially as the start of the Thirty Years' War. The following year, in 1619, Emperor Matthias passed away and things began to complicate. As part of the retaliation of the Protestants against King Ferdinand, in August 22, 1619, they removed him as King of Bohemia and replaced him with someone who was a Protestant. In August 26, they chose Frederick V of Palatine and founder of the Evangelical Union to become the new King of Bohemia. However, in August 28, Ferdinand became Ferdinand II, Holy Roman Emperor. As he assumed power, he revoked the toleration of the Protestants and invalidated the Peace of Augsburg. The new Holy Roman Emperor was also keen in retaking Bohemia from the Protestants. He also received support from the Catholic states of Saxony and Bavaria and the Kingdom of Spain. He ordered his commander, Johan Tserclaes, the Count of Tilly, to lead the attack.

The Bohemian conflict seemed to be over, if it wasn't thanks to France that escalated



it into a continental conflict. France felt weary of the victory and the aggression of the Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II. For over a century, France tried to avoid an encirclement by the Hapsburg. By the time of the hostilities in 1618, Spain and the Holy Roman Empire were both under the Hapsburg Family – Ferdinand II in the Holy Roman Empire and King Philip III and King Philip IV in Spain. Cardinal Richelieu, France's chief minister became nervous of the potential of the Holy Roman Empire and Spain isolating France. And so in 1624, he supported financially the Dutch in their fight against the Spanish that began once more after the end of the Twelve Years' Truce in 1621. In 1625, he formed an alliance with Denmark, which sought to increase its influence in Northern Germany under the guise of supporting the Evangelical Union, and England, which was Spain's arch-nemesis for the control of the sea. The two countries received financial aides from France in order to fight the Hapsburgs. Sweden entered in 1630 with King GustavusAdolphus landing Pomerania.

Finally, in 1635, France decided to officially enter the war on the side of the Protestants. Because of political and diplomatic reasons, France entered to a war against the Holy Roman Empire, turning the Bohemian Revolt into a thirty years long conflict.

As a conclusion, the Thirty Years War was caused by religious divide and magnified by political and diplomatic reasons. A German dispute between the Catholics and Protestants in the Holy Roman Empire sparked the religious divide throughout Europe. Adding political significance, the war dragged the major powers of Europe to fight each other for thirty years, ending only with the Peace of Westphalia.

Course of the war

The Thirty Years' War began with the Bohemian revolt in 1618 and ended with the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. The war passed through four main phases which may be distinguished as:

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

The Bohemian Period (1618–23)

As a matter of fact, Frederick's acceptance of the Bohemian crown was followed by the withdrawal from his side of both Charles Emmanuel and Bethlen Gabor. On the other hand, it brought to the cause of the emperor the powerful aid of: (i) Catholic League under Maximilian of Bavaria and Count Tilly; (ii) Spain (from the Netherlands and Franche Comte); and (iii) John George, the Lutheran elector of Saxony, who played during all these proceedings a part at once disgraceful and disastrous.

The basic consequences of these formidable developments were as follows:

- i. The Palatinate was overrun by the Spaniards
- ii. Bohemia was invaded by the army of the Catholic League, which on 8 November 1620 completely crushed the forces of Frederick in the battle of the White Mountain outside Prague (iii) The winter king fled to Holland, and he remained a wandering exile for the rest of his life. His electorate was transferred to the victorious Maximilian of Bavaria
- iii. The Calvinistic Union was dissolved (1621)



- iv. Desultory fighting continued for two more years

The Danish Period (1624–29)

The decisive triumph of the Catholic League and the rehabilitation of Ferdinand seriously alarmed the Lutherans of Northern Germany; as they realized that their possession of the secularized ecclesiastical lands was threatened. James I of England, moreover, was moved to demand the restoration of his son-in-law, Frederick to the Palatinate. Richelieu had just taken over in Paris, and was determined to abase the Hapsburgs, and at this stage Christian IV of Denmark was marked out as his agent. Christian of Denmark, a Lutheran, was, as Duke of Holstein, also a German prince, a member of the Lower Saxon Circle. He possessed the two important secularized bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which he was anxious not to lose. Richelieu easily preyed upon his fears; he also encouraged his hopes of securing ascendancy in the Baltic. Simultaneously, Tilly and the forces of the Catholic League, after their victory at Lutter, overran Holstein and actually invaded Denmark, until finally they were brought to a halt at Gluckstadt, which they failed to take. By 1629, Christian IV of Denmark had more than enough of the war. He had been beaten in battle; his lands had been ravaged by relentless foes; the English subsidies had remained largely unpaid. He had come off badly. Hence, taking advantage of the successful resistance of Stralsund and Gluckstadt, Christian IV sued for peace, and secured the not unfavorable Treaty of Lubeck (May 1629). He was to withdraw from the war, and not to meddle in it again; he was to surrender all his secularized ecclesiastical lands; but he was to recover his hereditary dominions. Thus the Danish period of the war came to an end.

The Swedish Period (1629–35)

On 24 June 1630, Gustavus landed at Usedom on the Baltic coast at the head of 13,000 men. They were veterans; for the Swedish king—a military genius of the first order—who had already waged successful wars against Denmark (1611–13), Russia (1614–17) and Poland (1617–29). The crucial battle was fought at Breitenfeld on 17 September 1631. It resulted in the total defeat of the South German army, which was driven in a rout that never ceased until the Danube was reached. North Germany was finally recovered for Protestantism. In 1632, Gustavus and his allies undertook the conquest of South Germany. For a time they carried all before them.

During the summer of 1632, the two masters of war played the great game against one another. Gustavus, deep in hostile country, strove to bring his opponent to early battle. Wallenstein, with time on his side, did all in his power to delay the inevitable clash until he had an overwhelming superiority of force. Finally, Gustavus ran Wallenstein down at Lutzen in Saxony (16 November). The beginning of a settlement along these lines was made by the Treaty of Prague, concluded on 30 May 1635, between the chastened emperor and the oscillating elector of Saxony—Lutheranism was recognized; the Edict of Restitution dropped; and ecclesiastical lands left as in 1627. Most of the Protestant princes and many towns accepted pacification on similar terms.

The French Period (1635–48)

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



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

- i. the Swedish victory at Wittstock 1636;
- ii. the victory of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar at Rheinfelden in 1638;
- iii. Conde's crushing defeat of the Spaniards in the Netherlands at
- iv. Rocroi in 1643—a victory invaluable as confirming Mazarin in power; and
- v. the joint invasion of Bavaria in 1648 by the French under Turenne and
- vi. the Swedes under Wrangel, culminating in the battle of Zusmarshausen. The savage devastation of Southern Germany subsequent to this victory of Turenne compelled the reluctant Catholics to accept a dictated peace.

Result of the war

The Peace of Westphalia did not end the Franco-Spanish war which had begun in 1635. In 1657, Mazarin, at last free and supreme, made an alliance with England, and the combined forces of the two countries, operating in the Spanish Netherlands, soon compelled Spain to accept defeat. One of Mazarin's last important acts was to conclude the Treaty of the Pyrenees (7 November 1659) with Spain.

The terms of this extremely important settlement are as follows:

1. France was to acquire Roussillon and Cerdagne, Artois and portions of Hainault and Luxemburg.
2. The young Louis XIV was to marry Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip IV—a fateful marriage.
3. The principle 'cuius regio, eius religio' was to be maintained.
4. Calvinists were to enjoy the same rights as Lutherans.
5. Ecclesiastical lands were to remain as on 1 January 1624.
6. The Elector-Palatinate to recover the Lower Palatinate and to receive a new electoral hat.
7. Max of Bavaria to keep the Upper Palatinate with the old electorate.
8. The Elector of Saxony to receive Lusatia and part of Magdeburg.
9. The independence of the city of Bremen was clarified.

Cardinal Richelieu

Early life

He was born in Paris, Armand du Plessis was the fourth of five children and the last of three sons: he was delicate from childhood, and suffered frequent bouts of ill-health throughout his life. His family was somewhat prominent, belonging to the lesser nobility of Poitou his father, François du Plessis, seigneur de Richelieu, was a soldier and courtier who served as the Grand Provost of France.

His Career

In 1614, the clergymen of Poitou asked Richelieu to be one of their representatives to the States-General. He was the most prominent clergyman to support the adoption of the decrees of the Council of Trent throughout France. In 1616, Richelieu was made Secretary of State, and was given responsibility for foreign affairs. Like Concini, the Bishop was one of the closest advisors of Louis XIII's mother, Marie de Médicis. The Queen had become Regent of France when the nine-year-old Louis ascended the throne; although her son reached the legal age of majority in 1614, she remained the effective ruler of the realm.



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In 1621, Richelieu began to rise to power quickly. The year after, the King nominated Richelieu for a cardinalate, which Pope Gregory XV accordingly granted in September 1622. Crises in France, including a rebellion of the Huguenots, rendered Richelieu a nearly indispensable advisor to the King. After he was appointed to the royal council of ministers on 29 April 1624, he intrigued against the chief minister, Charles, duc de La Vieuville. On 12 August of the same year, La Vieuville was arrested on charges of corruption, and Cardinal Richelieu took his place as the King's principal minister the following day, although the Cardinal de la Rochefoucauld nominally remained president of the council (Richelieu was officially appointed president in November 1629). In 1629, Emperor Ferdinand II subjugated many of his Protestant opponents in Germany.

Richelieu, alarmed by Ferdinand's growing influence, incited Sweden to intervene, providing money. In the meantime, France and Spain remained hostile due to Spain's ambitions in northern Italy. At that time northern Italy was a major strategic region in Europe's balance of power, serving as a link between the Habsburgs in the Empire and in Spain. Had the imperial armies dominated this region, France would have been threatened by Habsburg encirclement. Spain was meanwhile seeking papal approval for a universal monarchy. When in 1630 French diplomats in Regensburg agreed to make peace with Spain, Richelieu refused to support them. The agreement would have prohibited French interference in Germany. Therefore, Richelieu advised Louis XIII to refuse to ratify the treaty. In 1631, he allied France to Sweden, who had just invaded the empire, in the Treaty of Bärwalde. Military expenses placed a considerable strain on royal revenues. In response, Richelieu raised the gabelle (salt tax) and the taille (land tax). The taille was enforced to provide funds to raise armies and wage war. The clergy, nobility, and high bourgeoisie were either exempt or could easily avoid payment, so the burden fell on the poorest segment of the nation. To collect taxes more efficiently, and to keep corruption to a minimum, Richelieu bypassed local tax officials, replacing them with intendants (officials in the direct service of the Crown). Richelieu's tenure was a crucial period of reform for France. Earlier, the nation's political structure was largely feudal, with powerful nobles and a wide variety of laws in different regions. Parts of the nobility periodically conspired against the King, raised private armies, and allied themselves with foreign powers. This system gave way to centralized power under Richelieu. Local and even religious interests were subordinated to those of the whole nation, and of the embodiment of the nation — the King. Equally critical for France was Richelieu's foreign policy, which helped restrain Habsburg influence in Europe. Richelieu did not survive to the end of the Thirty Years' War. However, the conflict ended in 1648, with France emerging in a far better position than any other power, and the Holy Roman Empire entering a period of decline.

Richelieu's successes were extremely important to Louis XIII's successor, King Louis XIV. He continued Richelieu's work of creating an absolute monarchy; in the same vein as the Cardinal, he enacted policies that further suppressed the once-mighty aristocracy, and utterly destroyed all remnants of Huguenot political power with the Edict of Fontainebleau. Moreover, Louis took advantage of his nation's success during the Thirty Years' War to establish French hegemony in continental Europe. Thus, Richelieu's policies were the requisite prelude to Louis XIV becoming the most powerful monarch, and France the most powerful nation, in all of Europe during the late seventeenth century.

Estimate

Richelieu is also notable for the authoritarian measures he employed to maintain power. He censored the press, established a large network of internal spies, forbade the discussion of



political matters in public assemblies such as the Parlement de Paris (a court of justice), and had those who dared to conspire against him prosecuted and executed.

Cardinal Mazarin

Cardinal Jules Mazarin, né Giulio Raimondo Mazzarino (1602-1661) was an Italian-born cardinal, French diplomat, and art collector. He was born into a noble Italian family, was educated in both Rome and Spain, and eventually found his way into the employ of Pope Urban VIII. During his time of service to the Pope, Mazarin met and made a strong impression on French Cardinal Richelieu. Richelieu brought him to Paris, where he quickly gained prominence in the courts of Louis XIII and XIV of France, deriving much of his power through the favor of Richelieu and Queen Anne. He became Chief Minister of France upon Richelieu's death in 1642. Mazarin's policies also added Alsace (though not Strasbourg) to France.

He settled Protestant princes in secularized bishoprics and abbeys in reward for their political opposition to the Habsburgs, building a network of French influence as a buffer in the western part of the Empire. In 1657, he made an attempt to get Louis XIV elected as Holy Roman Emperor. In 1658 he formed the League of the Rhine, which was designed to check the House of Austria in central Germany. In 1659 he made peace with Habsburg Spain in the Peace of the Pyrenees, which added to French territory Roussillon and northern Cerdanya—as French Cerdagne—in the far south as well as part of the Low Countries.

Towards Protestantism at home, Mazarin pursued a policy of promises and calculated delay to defuse the armed insurrection of the Ardèche (1653), for example, and to keep the Huguenots disarmed: for six years they believed themselves to be on the eve of recovering the protections of the Edict of Nantes, but in the end they obtained nothing. There was constant friction with the pontificate of the Spanish Cardinal Pamphilj, elected Pope on 15 September 1644 as Innocent X. Mazarin protected the Barberini cardinals, nephews of the late Pope, and the Bull against them was voted by the Parlement of Paris "null and abusive"; France made a show of preparing to take Avignon by force, and Innocent backed down. Mazarin was more consistently an enemy of Jansenism, in particular during the formulary controversy, more for its political implications than out of theology. On his deathbed he warned young Louis "not to tolerate the Jansenist sect, not even their name." After his death, Louis XIV did not appoint a new principal minister and instead governed himself, marking the beginning of a new era of centralized government in France.



UNIT - V AGE OF ENLIGHTENMENT

Age of Enlightenment

The **Age of Enlightenment** also known as the **Age of Reason** or simply the **Enlightenment**) was an intellectual and philosophical movement that dominated the world of ideas in Europe during the 18th century, the "Century of Philosophy. French historians traditionally date the Enlightenment from 1715 to 1789, from the beginning of the reign of Louis XV until the French Revolution. Most end it with the turn of the 19th century. Philosophers and scientists of the period widely circulated their ideas through meetings at scientific academies, Masonic lodges, literary salons, coffeehouses and in printed books, journals, and pamphlets. The ideas of the Enlightenment undermined the authority of the monarchy and the Church and paved the way for the political revolutions of the 18th and 19th centuries. A variety of 19th-century movements, including liberalism and neoclassicism, trace their intellectual heritage to the Enlightenment.

Louis XIV

Louis XIV, also known as Louis the Great, was the French monarch from 1643 until his death in 1715. His reign of 72 years is the longest reign of any monarch in European history. Louis XIV was a strong believer in the divine rights of kings, and continued his predecessor's policy of centralization and absolutism by suppressing the power of the feudal lords and clamping down on rebellions. During Louis XIV's reign, France was the leading European power. Warfare defined Louis XIV's foreign policy, and his personality shaped his approach. Impelled 'by a mix of commerce, revenge, and pique', the French monarch sensed that warfare was the best way to enhance his glory. Under his reign, France was involved in three major wars, that is, the Franco-Dutch War, the War of the League of Augsburg, and the War of the Spanish Succession.

Reforms of Louis XIV

Political

1. Political of high-ranking positions and used middle class employees so that the government wouldn't be influenced used advisors such as Cardinal Richelieu and Cardinal Mazarin
2. Took nobles out by upper class's battle for power and influence

Military

1. Reformed the military to create more organization
2. Everyone highly trained
3. Increased size by 200,000 and create standing army
4. Created better uniforms and equipment

Economic

1. Taxes imposed on upper classes for the first time
2. John Baptiste Colbert reform economy by reforming tax collection system so that over 85% percent of taxes get to government instead of only 15%



3. Use 10% of funds to build palace of Versailles 30 miles from Paris
4. At the end of his reign the national debt had been decreased from 60 million livres to 10 million livres

Social

Tried to end feudal ties by using Intendants, or government officials to travel the country. They tried to connect cities and towns to the government instead of local lords and reported back to Louis XIV on what was happening in the country.

Foreign policy of Louis XIV

1. Energy of Louis's bureaucrats was expended on the collection of taxes, necessary above all in order to finance the large standing army on which France's ambitious foreign policy depended.
2. During Louis XIV's reign, France was the leading European power. Warfare defined Louis XIV's foreign policy, and his personality shaped his approach. Impelled 'by a mix of commerce, revenge, and pique', the French monarch sensed that warfare was the best way to enhance his glory.
3. Louis was equally determined, for reasons of state and of personal conscience, to impose religious unity upon the French. That task proved to be difficult and time-consuming.
4. A notable aspect of Louis XIV's reign was the revival of his alliance with the Ottoman Empire. The alliance had been established in 1536 between the king of France Francis I and the Turkish sultan of the Ottoman Empire Suleiman the Magnificent. It was the first ever alliance between a Christian and a Muslim Kingdom and thus had become the subject of scandal. It eventually became one of the most important alliances for France.
5. Tariffs imposed by Colbert as mercantilist in 1668 were designed to discourage the importation of foreign goods into France. He invested in the improvement of France's roads and waterways. And he used state money to promote the growth of national industry, and in particular the manufacture of goods such as silk, lace, tapestries, and glass, which had long been imported

Peter, the Great

Introduction

Peter the Great got authoritarianism into Russia and reigned over Russia for around 43 years from 1682 till his death in 1725. He played an important role in transporting his country into the European state system. Russia during his period was considered as the world's biggest country, its boundaries stretched from the Pacific Ocean till the Baltic Sea.

The initial military efforts made by Peter were focused against the Ottoman Turks. He wanted to create a foothold for Russia on the Black Sea by capturing the town of Azov. After this he turned his attention towards the north. Peter had only managed to secure the seaport at Archangel on the White Sea; he had nothing in the north. And even Archangel was not of much use as it remained in a frozen. State for about nine months each year.

In 1721 the war finally concluded and a shattered Sweden indicted for peace with Russia. Peter attained four provinces located in the south and east of the Gulf of in 1703, he had by now created the city that was to be the new capital of Russia, Saint Petersburg; this new



city was to replace Moscow.

Peter modernized his government centered on the up-to-date Western models, molding Russia into an absolutist state. The old boyar Duma (council of nobles) was replaced by him and in its place he appointed a senate consisting of nine members, under a supreme council of state.

In 1722, Peter publicized the most talked about Table of ranks. The Orthodox Church was partly merged into the administrative structure of the country this was mainly done in order to reform the government. This merging gave the opportunity to the state to use the Church as a tool in its favour.

Peter did not waste time and began the Russo-Persian War (1722-1723), called as 'The Persian Expedition of Peter the Great' by the historians of Russia. He became the pioneer Emperor who managed to spread the influence of Russia in the regions of Caucasus and Caspian Sea.

Conclusion

In 1725, Peter the Great died and Catherine I was the second wife of Peter I, he was succeeded by her and she merely acted as a rubberstamp and the actual power was in the hands of high ranked officials. She was succeeded by Peter I's minor grandchild, Peter II and then his niece Anna; she was the daughter of Tsar Ivan V.

Catherine II(1762-1796)

Introduction

The Russian throne was deprived of an ambitious ruler like Peter the Great for over forty years. Catherine II took over the throne in 1762 and continued to reign till 1796; she was a German princess who got into matrimony with the German heir to the Russian crown. She soon realized that he was not capable of ruling the vast empire and quietly assented to his assassination and as a result she was crowned in 1762.

Her Foreign Policy

She supported the arts, science and learning. She backed the revival of the Russian nobility that had started years following the demise of Peter the Great. Catherine publicized the Charter to the Gentry confirming the rights and liberty of the nobles in Russia; she banned the forceful state service.

The foreign policy was aimed towards expansion and for this purpose Catherine allocated adequate funds. During her time Russian political control was extended on the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, she supported the Targowica Confederation.

In 1773, a massive peasant revolt broke out as a reaction towards the oppression faced by the serfs in the hands of their landlords and also the expenses of all her campaigns was very high and the burden had to be borne by the commoners.

The rebellions planned to take over Moscow but they were crushed soon before that stage by Catherine. Like all other European enlightened despots she asserted her powers and created an agreement with the nobles of Russia.

Her war Activities



Catherine effectively conducted war over the declining Ottoman Empire and stretched the Russian boundaries in the south up to the Black Sea. She managed to incorporate the territories of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth after forming alliances with rulers of Austria and Prussia, now the Russian boundaries stretched up to Central parts of Western Europe.

Catherine conducted a war against Persia in 1796 once they attacked Georgia for a second time and had established their rule in 1795 after expelling the Russian garrisons appointed in the Caucasus.

Conclusion

Gustav Adolph felt distressed to agree the fact that Alexandra was not going to convert to Lutheranism, and although he was fond of the lady but at the last minute he returned back to Stockholm without attending the ball. This caused a lot of stress for Catherine and her health began to suffer. She left the incident aside and in November 1796 began the planning of a ceremony where she was going to appoint her much-loved grandson to take over the throne superseding her problematic son. However prior to the announcement she died of a stroke.

Frederick, the Great of Prussia

Introduction

In 1640, at the age of twenty, Frederick William took over the reign from his father. He was dynamic and enjoyed riding, shooting and fencing. He was well cultured; he was able to speak many languages such as Latin, Dutch, French and Polish. At fourteen, the prince had been sent to the University of Leyden in Holland at the age of fourteen in order to gain his college education.

Loss for Austria

The Queen in Vienna encouraged the army and their efforts. She appealed to them to safeguard the honour of Austria. She also made speeches for the pride of the nobles in Hungary. Austrians and Hungarians united and the following spring an attempt was made by the army to get back Silesia. The Austrian army made a furious attack close to the village of Chotusitz, breaking the Prussian line they landed into the camp of the enemy and started to crush it.

Building the Army

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

Building a Strong Prussia

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



Conflict with Hapsburgs-Seven Years' War

Frederick had lost many of his old friends from Berlin; even most of his able generals were dead after the wars. The seven year war had completely wrecked his country. Frederick swore 'never to enjoy happiness while everybody suffers,' and he began to channelize all his efforts towards rebuilding Prussia. He focused individually on every single governmental department. Peasants were given handsome amounts in order to rebuild their farm lands; the nobles were also given cattle, horses, seeds and timber to reconstruct ruined properties. Labourers searched rivers, cleaned forests and drained swamps.

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

Prussia: Great European Power

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

Conclusion

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

Maria Theresa of Austria

Introduction

Maria Theresa was born on 13 May and became the first and last female monarch of the Habsburg territories, in 1740. She was the head of Austria, Hungary, Croatia, Bohemia, Transylvania, Mantua, Milan, Lodomeria and Galicia, the Austrian Netherlands and Parma. By matrimony, she became the Duchess of Lorraine, Grand Duchess of Tuscany and Holy Roman Empress. Theresa's forty years long reign started after the death of her father, Emperor Charles VI, in October 1740.

The state was in a bad condition because of the War of the Polish Succession and the Russo-Turkish War (1735–1739). Furthermore, after his demise all the participants of the agreement did not adhere to the terms. Frederick II of Prussia, who remained one of the queen's strongest enemies, wasted no time after the king's death and he attacked the wealthiest province of Habsburg, Silesia during the seven-year conflict also called the War of the Austrian Succession. The queen succeeded in securing the significant alliance of the Hungarians.

The Seven Years' War.

Maria Theresa and her husband, Francis I, Holy Roman Emperor, were blessed with eleven daughters, they came to be the Queen of France, the Queen of Naples and Sicily, the Duchess of Parma, and they also had five sons, two of them were Holy Roman Emperors, Joseph II and Leopold II. Of the total sixteen children, only ten lived up to adulthood. Although



it was expected that the Queen would cede power to Francis and Joseph, both were legitimately her co-rulers in Austria and Bohemia, Maria Theresa was a supreme ruler who reigned with the advice of her counsellors.

Maria Theresa disseminated many reforms such as institutional, financial and educational with the support and help of Wenzel Anton of Kaunitz-Rietberg, Count Friedrich Wilhelm von Haugwitz and Gerard van Swieten. She gave an impetus to commerce and agriculture as well; steps were taken to restructure and increase the shattered military forces of Austria. Strengthening the military would help in improving the international position of

Austria. But, she loathed the Jews and the Protestants, and there were a few instances when she gave orders for them to be expelled to remote areas of the world.

Reforms under Maria Theresa

(a) Institutional reforms

Count Friedrich Wilhelm von Haugwitz was appointed by the Queen to remodel the empire by building a standing army of 108,000 men, paid with a handsome sum of 14 million gulden taken from every crown-land. The responsibility of the army was given to the central government. There was also a scheme to tax the upper classes. Furthermore, after Haugwitz's appointment as the head of the new central administrative agency styled the Directory (Directorium in publicis et cameralibus) in 1749, he started a thorough centralism of state institutions up till the level of the District Office (Kreisamt).

(b) Reforms in the field of medicine

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

(c) Reforms in the field of law

The Queen was exceedingly ambitious and hoped to develop the House of Austria to be more glorious than ever before for this ambition to be fulfilled a number of reforms in the system were put in place. The centralism in the Habsburg government demanded that an integrated legal system should be developed. Earlier each region had their individual laws.

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



In 1776, Austria banned torture, mainly at the directive of Joseph II. Maria was not in favour of this ban and she was supported by several religious establishments.

In 1749, the Queen also established the Supreme Judiciary and this was to be the court of final appeal for all inherited lands.

(d) Reforms in the field of education

Although the Queen could not adjust to the ideas of the Enlightenment because of her upbringing but as observed by the Austrian historian Karl Vocelka, her educational reforms were surely based on their ideas. Even though personally she wanted that the schools need to inculcate the Catholic orthodoxy to the students, nonetheless, the curriculum gave focus on teaching the importance of social accountability, self-restraint in society, work ethics and rationality. Maria Theresa allowed non-Catholics to attend the university and permitted the institution of secular subjects like law, which had an influence on the weakening of theology as the chief foundation of university education. In 1746, Theresianum was established in Vienna, it was meant to educate the sons of nobility; in 1751, the Theresian Military Academy was started in Wiener Neustadt and in 1754 an Oriental Academy was established for training future diplomats.

(e) Reforms to promote censorship

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

(f) Reforms for developing the economy

Maria Theresa strived to improve the standard of life of her people; she wanted the peasants also enjoy a decent standard as she realized that there was a direct link between productivity and revenue of the state. The government intervened in the industrial sector so that the sector could be strengthened. She was not very keen to intervene in such matters, for this the bureaucrats were appointed. The need to intervene became necessary with the increasing unrest among the peasants due to the famine in 1770s and the impact of continuous wars. The nobility's abuse of the rights of the labourers was another cause which compelled the queen to intervene. Between 1771 to 1778, a succession of 'Robot Patents' were given out by Maria Theresa, and under them the labourers were restricted to the German and Bohemian parts of the kingdom

Joseph II

Introduction

Joseph II was born on 13 March 1741. He was crowned as the Holy Roman Emperor in August 1765 and in 1780, November, he became the exclusive ruler of the Habsburg lands and

continued to rule till he died in 1790. He was the firstborn of Empress Maria Theresa and her husband, Emperor Francis I. He was therefore the initial monarch in the Austrian territories of the House of Lorraine, designed Habsburg-Lorraine.

Administrative Policies under Joseph II



After the death of his mother, Queen Maria Theresa, Joseph began to issue edicts. He issued more than six thousand edicts along with about eleven thousand laws. These edicts and laws were meant to standardize and rearrange all aspects of life in the kingdom. In spirit, Josephinism was generous and caring. He wished for his people to be happy, but the happiness was according to his terms. Joseph started to build a rational, central and uniform governmental system for his vast empire, he was the supreme authority and all were under his rule. The officials in the government were expected to abide the same standards and spirit towards servicing the state. The officials were appointed in a fair manner irrespective of their class and promotions were also based only on merit. The Hungarian Assembly did not enjoy any privileges and they were not called together as well.

Legal Reforms under Joseph II

Complete legal liberty was allotted to the serfs in 1781–82. Actually, the resistance by the landlords in Hungary and Transylvania was very severe and the reforms could not be fully imposed. The number of land barons in Hungary was very high. The emperor was able to act after 1784-85 when many nobles had lost their lives in the peasant revolt of 1773-75, though the movement was not a success. Joseph's Imperial Patent of 1785 eliminated serfdom but the peasants were still not given the ownership of the land or independence from payments owing to the nobles who were landowners. Feudalism was finally abolished in 1848. To even out the rate of taxation, land assessments were carried out by Joseph so equality of taxes could be maintained in the empire.

Reforms in Education and Medicine

Elementary education was made compulsory for all irrespective of class, creed and gender. Joseph wanted his population to be educated and this could be achieved by making sure that all attended school at the primary level. Higher education was provided for those who were capable. Joseph generated scholarships for brilliant students who were poor and could not afford higher education. He even permitted scope of being a multilingual empire, he instructed that the language of instructions in education should be German and not Latin.

Reforms in Religion under Joseph II

Catholic Church had many ancient traditions and it had also helped in the establishment of the protector of Catholicism and hit at the power of the pope in a vigorous manner. He wanted the Church to be independent of Rome. Clerics were deprived of the taxes and instructed to study in universities in the supervision. Consequently, he repressed a large majority of monasteries; more than seven hundred were shut down and the number of monks and nuns were reduced to 27,000 which at one time were 65,000. The ecclesiastical tribunals of the Church were abolished and marriage was determined as a civil contract out of the dominion of the Church. Observance of holy days in the empire was also cut in large numbers and he also instructed for reduction of the decorations done in the churches. His reforms were condemned by his opponents and they felt that he had a strong inclination towards Protestantism. In 1789, he delivered an agreement of religious toleration for the Jews of Galicia. The agreement obliterated communal autonomy due to which the Jews were able to control their internal matters; it endorsed Germanization and the non-Jewish attire could be worn.

Foreign policy of Joseph II

The war policy of the Habsburg Empire was focused on extension, colonization and trade. Austria was friendly with Russia but it completely opposed Prussia and Turkey. Many



historians have regarded Joseph to be an extremely aggressive imperialist leader; he wanted the monarchy of Habsburg to be Europe's greatest power. His primary aim was to attain control over Bavaria and for that he was willing to let go of the Austrian territory in the Netherlands, however, twice his plans were crushed by the Prussian King Frederick II, once in 1778 and then in 1785. He was fearful of the ruler since he had the support of some of the German princes as well. Due to the friendship with the Russians, Joseph had to get involved in a useless and costly war with the Turks during 1787-1791.

Austria had nothing to gain from the conflict but was compelled and in spite of winning a few of the battles they ultimately gained nothing. Both mother and son reflected Cameralism in their policy towards the Balkan as endorsed by Prince Kaunitz; stress was given on consolidating the bordering areas with the help of military power. The prevalent theory of colonization was based on 'Populationistik', it calculated success in relation with labour.

Economic development was given full stress by Joseph II. The influence of Habsburg was an essential factor in the growth of the Balkan during the latter half of the eighteenth century, particularly in the development of the Serbs and Croats.

His taxation policy was extensively opposed by the nobles; they were very unsatisfied because of his attempts at equality of taxes. He was opposed for his attempts to undo the regional authority in Austrian Netherlands and Hungary since he wanted to put everything under his personal control in Vienna. Even the common man was dissatisfied with his rule; they did not appreciate his over involvement in small matters of their routine lives.

Causes for his failure

He endeavored to get rid of the Barrier Treaty, which debarred his Flemish subjects from the navigation of the Scheldt. When he was opposed by France, he turned to other schemes of alliance with the Russian Empire for the partition of the Ottoman Empire and the Republic of Venice. These plans also had to be given up in the face of the opposition of neighbours, and in particular of France

In Belgium and Hungary everyone resented the way he tried to do away with all regional government, and to subordinate everything to his own personal rule in Vienna. The ordinary people were not happy.

In Lombardy (in northern Italy) the cautious reforms of Maria Theresa enjoyed support from local reformers. Joseph II, however, by creating a powerful imperial official dom directed from Vienna, undercut the dominant position of the Milanese principate and the traditions of jurisdiction and administration. In the place of provincial autonomy he established an unlimited centralism, which reduced Lombardy politically and economically to a fringe area of the Empire. By this basis appeared the beginnings of the later Lombard liberalism.

In 1784 Joseph II attempted to make German an official language in Hungary after he had renamed the Burgtheater in Vienna in German National Theatre in 1776.

All emeinesbürgerlichesGesetzbuch also called Joseph inischesGesetzbuch the predecessor of the AllgemeinesbürgerlichesGesetzbuch the Civil Code of Austria, which applies to all citizens equally, was published on 1 November 1786 after 10 years work on it since 1776. It is a clear distinction between the rights of subjects and the duties of the territorial prince, and not vice versa. The Crown was brought back to Hungary in 1790, on this occasion the



people celebrated a great meeting. One reason for his resignation to be crowned with the Holy Crown of Hungary might have been, that Alcuin had written in a letter to Charlemagne in 1790.

By 1790 rebellions had broken out in protest against Joseph's reforms in Belgium (the Brabantian Revolution) and Hungary, and his other dominions were restive under the burdens of his war with the Ottomans. His empire was threatened with dissolution, and he was forced to sacrifice some of his reform projects. His health shattered by disease, alone, and unpopular in all his lands, the bitter emperor died 20 February 1790. He was not yet forty-nine. Joseph II rode roughshod over age-old aristocratic privileges, liberties, and prejudices, thereby creating for himself many enemies, and they triumphed in the end. Joseph's attempt to reform the Hungarian lands illustrates the weakness of absolutism in the face of well-defended feudal liberties.

Conclusion

His people were threatening to shut down the empire as a result, he withdrew a few of the projects of reforms and on 30 January 1790, he officially removed most of the reforms in Hungary. Joseph came back to Vienna in November 1788, his health was not good and he was completely left alone. He had no visitors and even his brother Leopold continued to stay in Florence. He realized that he had no supporters left and there was no one to promote his reforms. On February 20, 1790 he breathed his last breath. He was succeeded by his brother. His grave is situated at the Imperial Crypt in Vienna and its epitaph reads some of his last words: "Here lies Joseph II, who failed in all he undertook."

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