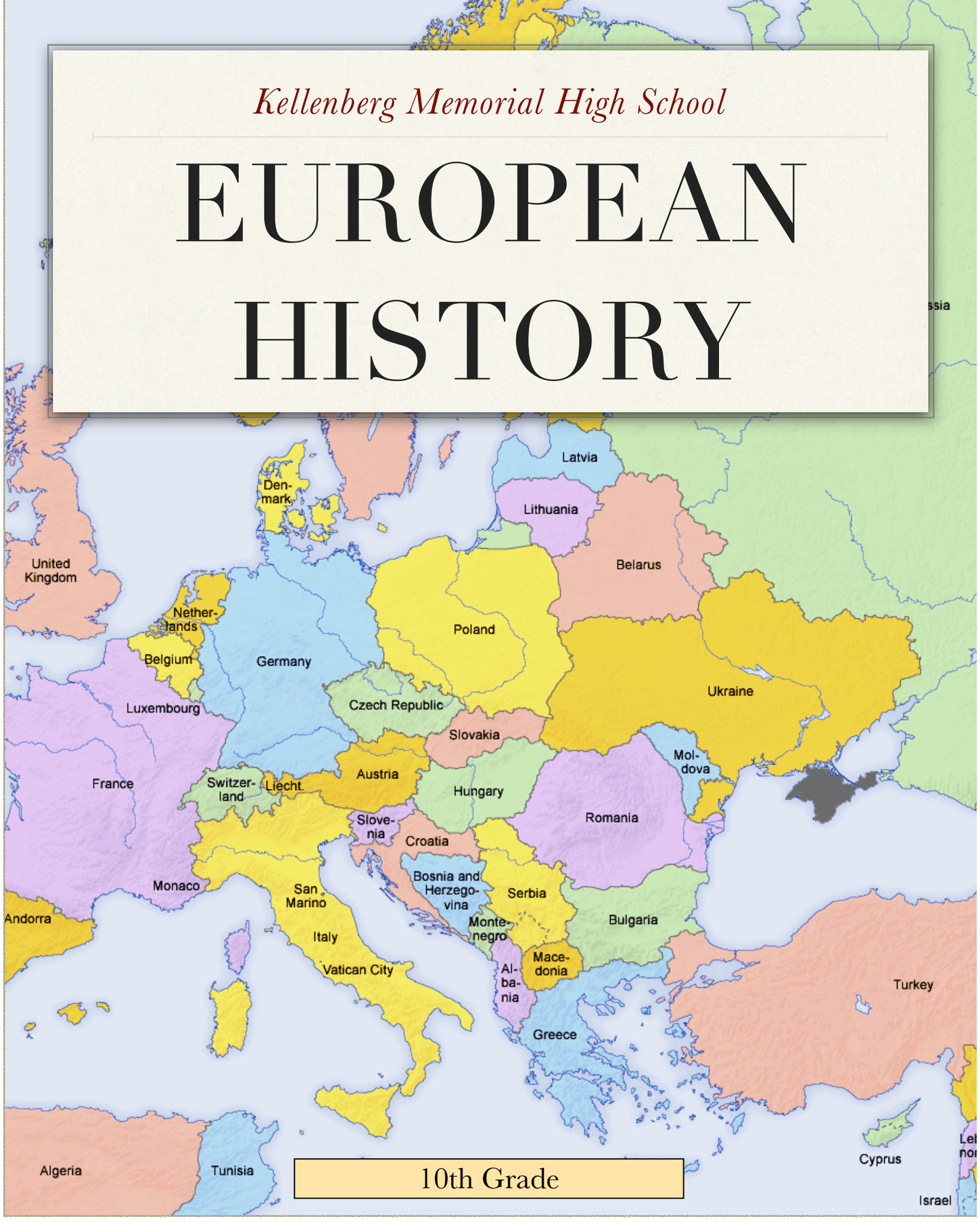
Kellenberg Memorial High School

EUROPEAN HISTORY



10th Grade

Chapter 1

GERMAN -ITALIAN UNIFICATION

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Picture Source:
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Germany%E2%80%93Italy_relations#mediaviewer/File:Germany_Italy_Locator.png

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unification_of_Germany#mediaviewer/File:Deutsches_Reich_1871-1918.png

SECTION 1

The Future of Europe

The French Revolution was over and Napoleon is gone. Europe was left in shambles. The world as they knew it was turned upside down. What was going to happen next?

In 1814 in Vienna, Austria a meeting (and other meetings every few years) was held to discuss the future of Europe. This Congress of Vienna would bring peace for the next 100 years. Napoleon had really messed up the balance of power in Europe. Borders had been changed and rulers had been overthrown. The states that would attend the Congress included Austria, Russia, Prussia, Great Britain and France. Other countries like Portugal and Spain attended but had little influence at the meetings. Those countries were distracted by large parties thrown by Austria.

The Congress was able to agree that France had caused so much turmoil that it must be taught a lesson, to the victor goes the spoils and that no country should get rewarded more than others. The most important thing developed was that Europe must be filled with countries that would become established and permanent. Overall, the Congress of Vienna was very conserva-

tive allowing France to return to its border pre-1789 and a restoration of the monarchy. France did have pay reparations and have foreign troops in its borders to keep the peace.

England was allowed to hold onto the lands that it had won throughout the years. Austria gave back the land it took from France and received some land near the coast of the Adriatic Sea. Russia wanted control Poland and Prussia wanted Saxony. Both countries got a smaller piece of land than what they asked for. Remember countries like England were worried about allowing countries on Continental Europe from becoming too powerful! Germany became a confederation of 39 states that were somewhat united and Netherlands became larger. Overall, the Congress of Vienna took a very conservative approach.

The Age of Isms

The Congress of Vienna renewed feelings throughout Europe. One of these feelings was **nationalism**. Nationalism is defined by the Merriam Webster dictionary as a feeling that people have of being loyal to and proud of their country often with the belief that it is better and more important than other countries. Things such as a common language, religion, customs and geography tend to unite a country. Unfortunately an extreme sense of nationalism would create a massive superiority complex. Nationalism sparked a movement to create new countries with a loyalty to the country and not the government.

Gallery 1.1 Who Attended the Congress of Vienna

Klemens Von Metternich: Austria's Chief Foreign Minister who dominated the negotiations at the Congress of Vienna

Klemens Von Metternich. Wikipedia. N.p., n.d. Web. 19 Jan. 2015. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Klemens_von_Metternich#mediaviewer/File:Metternich_(c._1835-40).jpg>

Another issue that arose was the issue of **liberalism**. The theories of liberty, equality and human rights began during the intellectual movement of the Enlightenment. These ideas were important to the revolutions in the United States and France. Most liberal ideologies wanted a government free of oppression and free of government involvement. A democracy would be preached by many (more specifically by the **radicals**).

Lastly, the movement of **conservatism** still prevailed throughout Europe. Many conservatives wanted to keep things as they were. You need to remember that conservatives supported the traditional monarchies and aristocracy that dominated Europe for so long. Conservatives were afraid of what liberalism (especially radicalism) and nationalism were all about. The bloodshed associated with the French Revolution was a scary thing for conservatives. This is why **Klemens Von Metternich** of Austria was so important during the Congress of Vienna. He was able to curtail liberalism and allow conservatism to stay in the limelight in Europe.

The Revolutions of 1830 and 1848 were sparked due to the conflicting goals of the French Revolution and the Congress of Vienna. **Click** on the two links below to read about these two revolutions.

The Revolution of 1830

The Revolution of 1848

Section 1 Review

1. What was the Congress of Vienna?
2. Why was the Congress of Vienna important?
3. Who was the most important member of the Congress of Vienna?
4. What was the main result of the Congress of Vienna?
5. What are the differences between nationalism, liberalism and conservatism?
6. Read the articles on the Revolutions of 1830 and 1848 and summarize their importance.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unification_of_Germany#mediaviewer/File:Deutsches_Reich_1871-1918.png

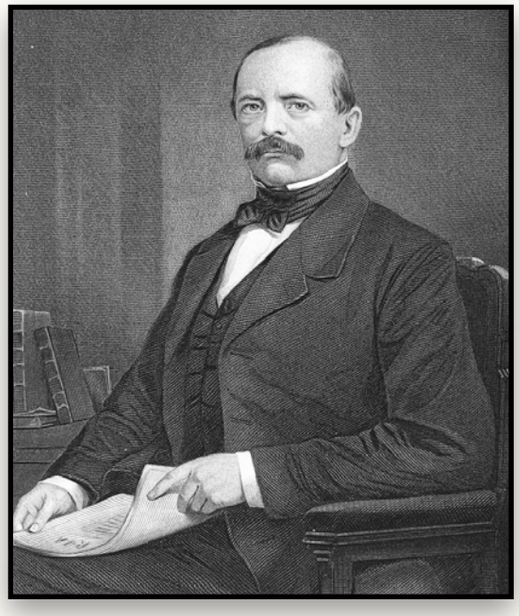
SECTION 2

German Unification

By the time the German states (led by Prussia) called the unification Germany was a loose confederation of 39 states. Remember this was decided at the Congress of Vienna. Before this "Germany" dated back to the era of Charlemagne and the 800s. This "Germany" had once been known as the Holy Roman Empire.

To understand the history by unification you must understand the development of **Prussia** versus the decline of **Austria**. Austria was ruled by the **Habsburg** dynasty, and Prussia was ruled by the **Hohenzollerns**. In the 1740s Prussia started to increase its military, its industry and acquire new lands. Austria on the other hand had lost a big ally in Russia in failing to support it during the Crimean War. Austria was also forced to cede some lands when it lost a war against the French and Italians. This weakening of Austria allowed Prussia to challenge Austria's dominance. What is also important to remember is that Prussia became the held of an economic alliance in 1834 called **Zollverein Customs Union**. It is important to understand that Austria was not included in the economic benefits of the this union.

After the Revolutions of 1848 (Remember Section 1) the time was right for German Unification. The man who was at the forefront of German Unification was **Otto Von Bismarck** He was the Prussian Chancellor who goal was to make Prussia stronger while weakening Austria. Bismarck was a master at **realpolitik.** This was the understanding of the situation currently in the German Confederation. Bismarck was about being practical and not idealistic. It is said that Bismarck remarked that **"blood and iron"**, not "speeches and resolutions" would get things done. Bismarck will be able to accomplish his goals with the support of **Kaiser Wilhelm I** Kaiser Wilhelm I was bent of increasing the army and increasing taxes to do so. However he met much resistance from the Prussian Parliament. He chose Bismarck as chancellor to help him accomplish his goals. The support of the **Junkers** allowed Bismarck to come to power. Click on the picture to read more about the junkers.



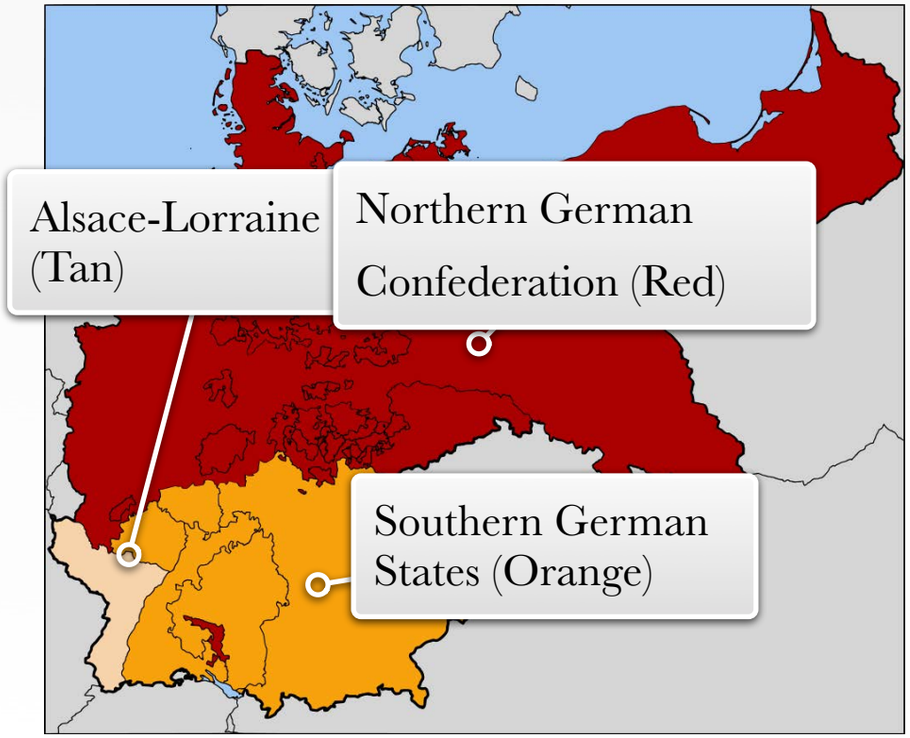
In 1862, Bismarck created an alliance with the Austrians to fight Denmark. Denmark had tried to annex the lands of Schleswig-Holstein. Denmark was easily defeated, but know Austria was surrounded by a Prussian empire. Bismarck used this opportunity to eliminate Austria as a threat. Over a simple border dispute Bismarck coaxed Austria into war, known as the **Austro Prussian or Seven Weeks War.**

After the war, Bismarck was able to push towards unification. However, the southern German states were somewhat skeptical of Bismarck chiefly due to religious differences. Northern Germany was predominately Protestant while Southern Germany was mainly Catholic. Bismarck decided to bring the southern states aboard by starting a war with the French. Bismarck doctored a document (**EMS Telegram**) about a negotiation between the French and Prussians that insulted all the parties involved. Once this document was released to the press the French declared war. In the end the Prussians soundly defeated the French and demanded the land of **Alsace-Lorraine**. With this victory Prussia was able to unite the German confederation and create what was known as the Second Reich in 1871. German unification was now complete.

Section 2 Review

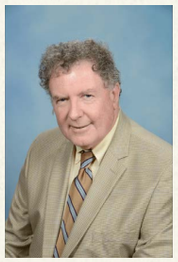
1. The leader of German Unification was?
2. Which country was Prussia's biggest threat to unification?
3. Which leader lead German unification?
4. Why was the German victory during the Franco Prussian War important? MAKE SURE TO READ THE LINK.

Interactive 1.1 Franco Prussian War



Based on map data of the IEG-Maps project (Andreas Kunz, B. Johnen and Joachim Robert Moeschl: University of Mainz) - http://www.ieg-maps.uni-mainz.de

Interactive 1.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom



Click on the picture of Mr. Buckley to learn more about German Unification.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_historic_states_of_Italy#mediaviewer/File:Italy_1494.svg

THEME

Nationalism contributed to the formation of two new nations and a new political order in Europe.

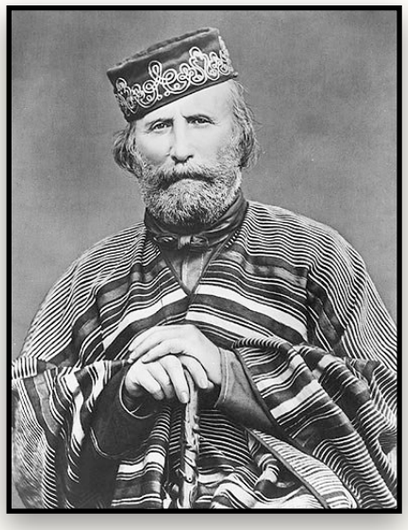
SECTION 3

Italian Unification

Since the downfall of the Roman Empire, Italy had been a loose confederation of states loosely connected together. Throughout their history they had been under the influence of major European countries, specifically the Spanish, French, Austrians and the Pope. With the rise of Napoleon in France led to a conquering of Italy by the French. This occupation by the French was important in many ways. Revolutionary and liberal ideas began to permeate in Italy. With the Congress of Vienna came another fragmentation of Italy. This division, politically and economically (the north was industrialized while south was agriculturally based) did not dissuade the call for unification. While there were many different theories to go about it one area led the way.

The idea of unification began early as 1831 with **Guiseppe Mazzini** and the **Risorgimento**. However the failures of revolutions in the 1840s prohibited a major push for unification. However, by 1848 the unification call reappeared with the kingdom of **Piedmont-Sardinia** at the forefront. This area was known for its wealth and embrace of liberalism. The king,

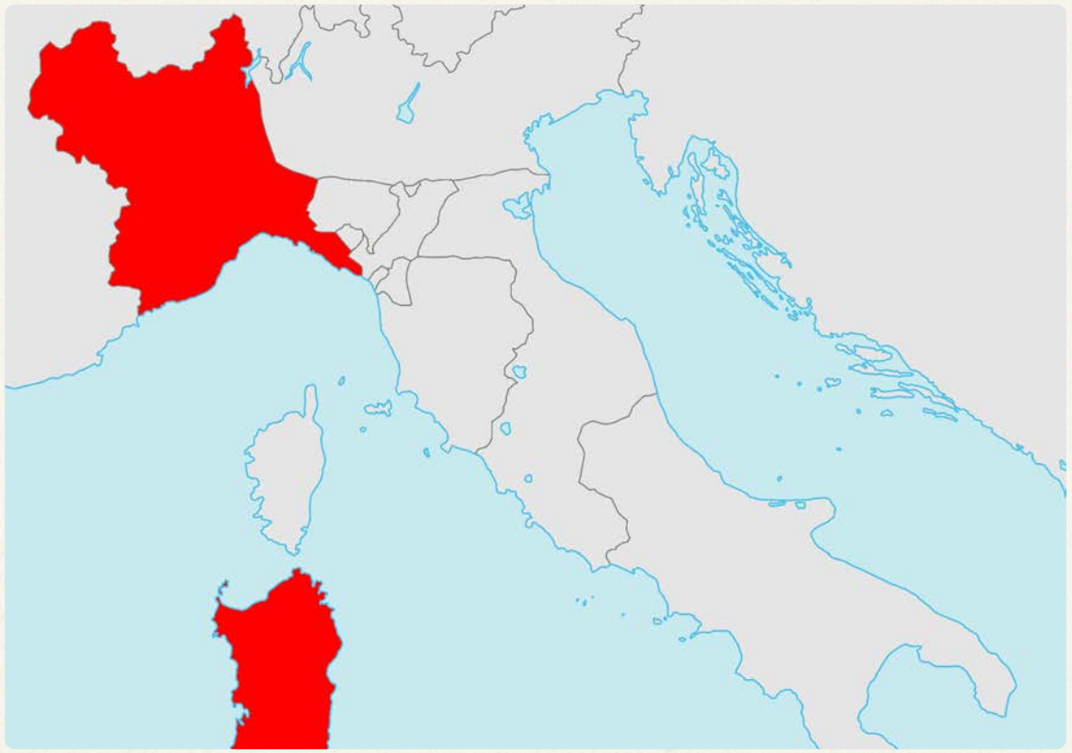
Victor Emmanuel II and its leading statesman **Count Camillo di Cavour** were the leaders of this new push for unification. Cavour was able to manipulate politics just like Bismarck was able to do in Germany. Cavour signed an alliance with the French to dispel the Austrians out of Italy. Their victory secured the area of **Lombardy** for the Italians. Cavour had wanted more and after the victory the French ended their alliance with the Italians. The Italians will "make up" with the French and create a unified Northern Italy.



This will spark revolution in the southern areas of Italy. One man **Guiseppe Garibaldi** and his **red shirts** will prove to be the most successful. Garabaldi moved throughout Southern Italy conquering areas such as Sicily and became a national hero. Garabaldi had been in exile in Latin America and learned a new style of fighting (guerrilla tactics). Cavour felt threatened by Garabaldi's movement as this would upset his goal of unification. While Cavour did prevent Garabaldi from invading the Papal States so as to not upset the Catholics, Garabaldi proved to be important for Cavour and unification. Garabaldi felt that Victor Emmanuel II was the most qualified leader for a unified Italy and handed over the reigns of unification to the former kingdom.

The major area of unification that was left was centered around Rome controlled by the **Pope Pius IX**. Thanks to the Franco Prussian War the French had to leave Rome and the Italian army was able to take the city of Rome

Gallery 1.2 Images of Italian Unification



The kingdom of Piedmont Sardinia

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kingdom_of_Sardinia#mediaviewer/File:Ita-sardinia.png

in 1870. Rome will become the new capital of the united Italian state.

Click here to access the sources used for this section.

Section 3 Review

1. Read about the life of Mazzini and explain why he is considered to be the brains of Italian Unification.
2. Why was the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinina important to Italian Unification?
3. Was Cavour a political genius? Why or why not?
4. Read about the life of Garabaldi. What are his major contributions to Italian Unification?

Chapter 2

WORLD WAR I

"The War to End All Wars"

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_War_I#mediaviewer/File:Royal_Irish_Rifles_ration_party_Somme_July_1916.jpg
Photo courtesy of Royal Engineers No 1 Printing Company, United Kingdom Government.

The Road to War

Interactive 2.1 World War I

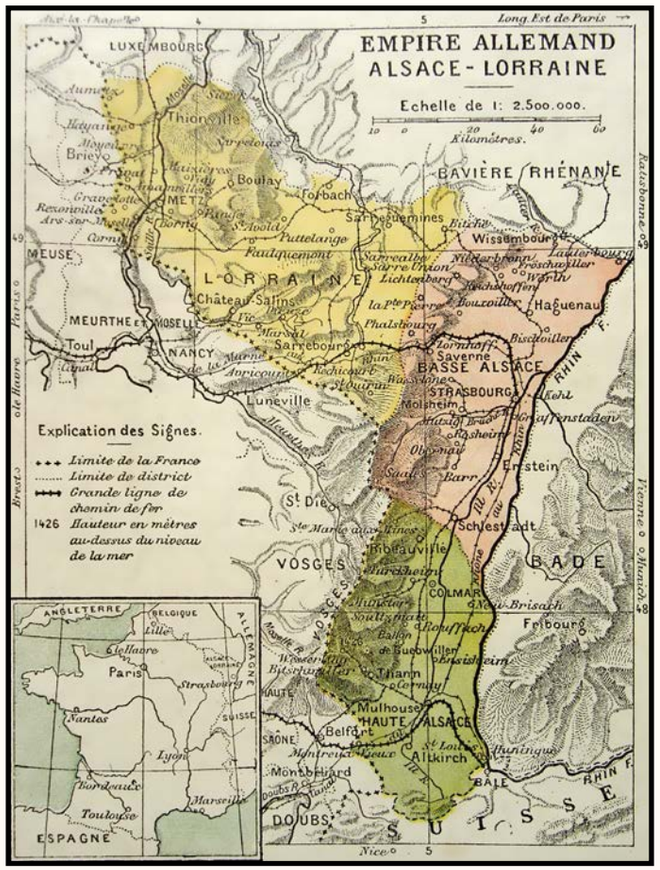
Click on the Image to Watch the World War I Trailer

Nationalism

There was certainly a general rise in nationalism in Europe, which played a major role in the start of the conflict. Nationalism, or a deep devotion to one's nation can serve as a unifying force within a country. However, it also can cause intense competition among nations seeking to overpower the other. As a result of German unity and increasing German nationalism, as well as various other causes, Germany began on what **Kaiser Wilhelm II** called a "new course" to earn its "place in the sun." After 1871, Germany's trade and industry increased vigorously, challenging and, in some areas, even exceeding that of Great Britain, until then the premier industrial nation of Europe. A many-sided rivalry developed between Germany and Britain, intensifying when the sometimes-bellicose Wilhelm II assumed power and began building a strong, ocean-going navy.Territorial disputes were another. Seeking to balance the rise of German power, Britain and France began to draw closer together diplomatically as the 20th century began. Germany, meanwhile, had allowed an implicit alliance with Tsarist Russia to lapse, and faced ongoing French resentment over the provinces of **Alsace and Lorraine** which Germany had annexed in 1871. The perceived

Photo courtesy of Imperial War Museums

danger of "encirclement" by hostile nations began to loom in the minds of German leaders. Austria-Hungary and Russia both tried to dominate a region in southeast Europe, the **Balkans**. Within this region there was an intense level of nationalism of Serbs, Bulgarians, Romanians, and other ethnic groups who demanded for independence.(1)



Imperialism

Another force that helped set the stage for war was imperialism, a policy of extending a country's power and influence through diplomacy or military force. European nations were competing fiercely for colonies in Africa and Asia. The quest for these colonies sometimes pushed European countries to develop mistrust for one another or even bring these countries to the brink of war. (2)

Militarism

Yet another developing concern throughout this time was the rise of a dangerous arms race. The nations of Europe believed that to be truly great, they needed to have a powerful military. By 1914, all of the great powers except for Great Britain had large standing armies. In addition, military leaders believed it was necessary for their militaries to be mobilized and ready for war. The belief or desire of a government or people that a country should maintain a strong military capability and be prepared to use it aggressively to defend or promote national interests is called militarism. (2)

The Alliance Systems

A major factor which helped to escalate the conflict was the alliance system of the late nineteenth century. Although there had always been alliances between different European nations, the diplomatic trend during the nineteenth century was to have secret alliances, committing states to defensive military action. These were encouraged by Bismarck who, in the process of unifying Germany, sought to pacify those surrounding states which might proved hostile. Although Germany had originally allied itself with the empires of Austria and Russia at this time, by the beginning of the twentieth century alliances had shifted. Germany found itself allied with Austria-Hungary and Italy, the so-called **"Central Powers;"** together the countries formed what was known as the **"Triple Alliance."** Meanwhile, France, desperate for allies after the Franco-Prussian war, had cultivated a friendship with Russia. Great Britain, too, felt isolated in the increasingly fictionalized European environment, and sought out an alliance with another of Europe's great powers. This led to the Entente Cordial with France, which was to develop into

the **"Triple Entente"** between Britain, France and Russia.(1) By 1914 most of the smaller European states had been drawn into this web of alliances. Serbia had allied itself with Russia whilst its enemy, Bulgaria, chose the patronage of Germany. A number of small states maintained their neutrality in this complicated network of alliances. Belgium, for instance, was a neutral state, its independence guaranteed by Britain, France, and Germany.

http://www.infobarrel.com/media/image/145144.jpg

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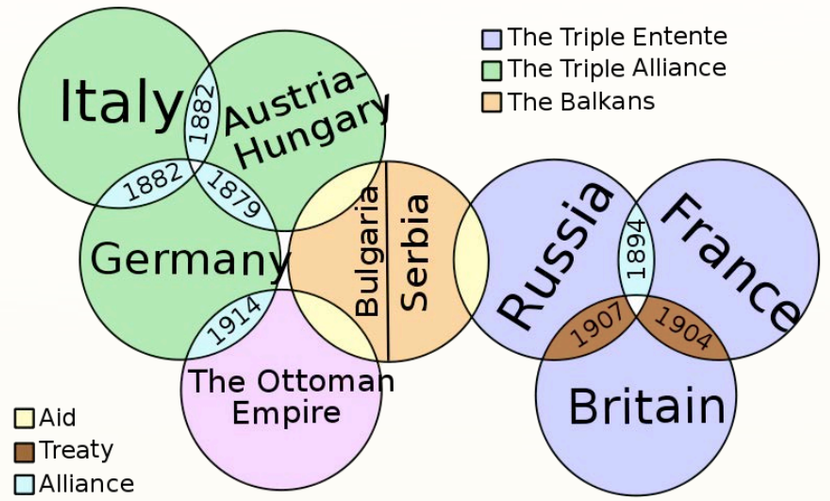


Crisis in the Balkans - "Powder Keg"

By the early 1900s, the **Ottoman Empire** (Sick Man Of Europe), which included the Balkan region, was in rapid decline. New nations including Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia have already succeeded in breaking away from their Turkish rulers. Nationalism was a powerful factor in this region. Serbia, for example, had a large Slavic population and hoped to absorb all the Slavs on the Balkan Peninsula. Russia, a mostly Slavic nation, supported Serbian nationalism. However, Austria-Hungary opposed such an effort. Austria feared that a creation of a Slavic state would stir rebellions among it Slavic population. Austria-Hungary precipitated the Bosnian crisis of 1908–1909 by officially annexing the former Ottoman territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which it had occupied since 1878. These were two Balkan areas with a large Slavic population, and Serbian leaders

http://gmt.soest.hawaii.edu/

who had sought to rule these provinces were outraged. The Serbs vowed to take Bosnia and Herzegovina away from Austria, and Austria-Hungary vowed to crush any Serbian effort to undermine its authority in the Balkans. What made this situation even worse was when the so-called "blank check" was created when Austro-Hungarian Emperor Franz Joseph sent a letter to German Kaiser Wilhelm II, asking for German support against Serbia. Theobald von Bethmann-Hollweg, Kaiser Wilhelm II's Imperial Chancellor, telegrammed back that Austria-Hungary could rely on Germany to support whatever action was necessary to deal with Serbia.(3)

Gallery 2.1 The Assassination

Protests in Sarajevo prior to the assassination

Into this hostile atmosphere of mutual dislike and mistrust stepped the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, **Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie**. On **June 28 1914**, the Archduke and his wife were shot dead in Sarajevo by **Gavrilo Princip,** one of a group of six assassins coordinated by a secret society called the **Black Hand**. The political objective of the assassination was to break off Austria-

Hungary's South Slav provinces so they could be combined into a Yugoslavia. The assassins' motives were consistent with the movement that later became known as Young Bosnia. The assassination led directly to the First World War when Austria-Hungary subsequently issued an ultimatum to the Kingdom of Serbia, which was partially rejected. Austria-Hungary then declared war on **July 28 1914**. Russia, an ally of Serbia, took action and mobilize troops towards the Austrian border. Leaders all over Europe suddenly took notice. The British foreign minister, the Italian government, and even Kaiser Wilhelm himself urged Austria and Russia to negotiate. But it was too late. The machinery of war had been set in motion. (4)

Section 1 Review

1. Define the following; nationalism, alliances, militarism, imperialism.
2. How did all of these factors contribute the beginnings of World War I?
3. What was the significance of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand?
4. Who was Gavrilo Princip?
5. Could World War I been avoided? Why or Why Not?

Europe Enters the War

Setting The Stage

On June 28, 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austria-Hungary throne, was assassinated in Sarajevo. As a result, Austria declared war on Serbia. Germany declared war on both Russia and France. On August 4, Germany invaded neutral Belgium before the French. This precipitated in Great Britain's declaration of war on Germany.(1)

The Great War Begins

By mid-August 1914, the line in the sand was drawn. On one side there was Germany and Austria-Hungary known as the Central Powers. Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire would later join in hopes to regain lost territories. The other side was Great Britian, France, and Russia. Together they were known as the Allies. Japan and Italy would join within weeks. In the late summer of 1914, millions of happy soldiers marched happily off to battle, convinced that the war would be short. xx

Western Front

Facing a two front war, Germany had developed a battle strategy known as the **Schlieffen Plan**.

The Schlieffen Plan was designed by Field Marshall Count **Alfred von Schlieffen**,who became Chief of the Great General Staff in 1891 and submitted his plan in 1905. Out of fear of a two front war, which Germany was nearly certain it could not win, it devised the plan to eliminate one of the fronts of the war before the other side could prepare. The plan called for a rapid German mobilization, sweeping through Holland, Luxembourg and Belgium into France. Schlieffen called for overwhelming numbers on the far right flank, the northernmost spearhead of the force with only minimum troops making up the arm and axis of the formation as well as a minimum force stationed on the Russian eastern front. Swift elimination of the French threat

would in theory allow Germany to better defend against a Russian, or a British force. However, the British involvement was not looked for under the Schlieffen plan, not at the commencement of action at least. In 1905 Count Schlieffen expected his overpowering right wing to move basically along the coast through Holland. He expected the Dutch to acquiesce and grant the army the right to cross their borders. Schlieffen knew that navigating around the Belgian fortress at Liege in this way would speed the advance while still defeating the fortress simply by encirclement. Schlieffen retired from his post in 1906 and was replaced by **Helmuth von Moltke**.In 1907-08 Moltke adjusted the plan, reducing the proportional distribution of the forces, lessening the crucial right wing in favor of a slightly more defensive strategy. Also, judging Holland as unlikely to grant permission to cross its borders the plan now called for a direct move through Belgium but expected the French force to officially invade neutral Belgium first in an attempt to take the advantageous position at Meuse. Moltke's variation called for an artillery assault on Liege, but with the rail lines and the unprecedented firepower the German army brought what he did not expect any significant defense of the fortress.(2)

The plan proved to be successful in the beginning of war. The end of August was marked by near-panic in northern France as the German offensive rolled south toward Paris, seemingly unstoppable. On the German side, however, a gap developed between the westernmost army corps, and the rapid advance was exhausting the troops. In the **First Battle of the Marne** , the French rushed reinforcements from Paris -- some in taxicabs -- to the front, and by the first week of September, amid heavy fighting, the Germans had been halted along the River Marne. This battle was perhaps the single most important event of the war. This marked the beginning of the static trench lines which would define the front in Western Europe for four years.

New Military Techniques and Technologies

World War I introduced the first time that total war was employed - that is, the full mobilization of society occurred in participant nations. In addition, it marked the end of war as a "glamorous occupation," showing how brutal and horrifying war could be when fought by industrial nations with mass production of weapons, and mass armies drawn from whole populations.

World War I introduced a number of new technologies and techniques. The outbreak of war took the world from the age of coal to an age where energy was largely derived from petroleum, a much higher-grade fuel source used in many new

fighting machines and transport systems on land and sea. The deadliest product of this new industry was chemical warfare, with countless fighting men suffering and dying in gas attacks. Submarines also were used with effect, leading to the advent of depth charges and sonar. Rudimentary tanks and mechanized warfare also entered the battlefield near the end of the war. Finally, the machine gun took its toll for the first time in World War I. All this was aimed at breakthrough in trench warfare, in which both sides would dig deep

Gallery 2.2 The New Technology of World War I

Vicker Machine Gun

Photo Courtesy of Imperial War Museums

trenches, and attempt to attack the other side across **"no man's land**," most often with little or no success.

Click Here to Watch a Video on Trench Warfare.

The front in France became the focus of mass attacks that cost huge numbers of lives, but gained very little. Britain became fully engaged in France, raising a large conscript army for the first time in its history. 1915 saw the first attacks with chlorine gas by the Germans, and soon the Allies responded in kind. During much of the year 1916, the longest battle of the war, the **Battle of Verdun,** a German offensive against France and Britain, was fought to a draw and resulted in an estimated one million casualties. Verdun became a symbol of French determination and self-sacrifice. On July 1 through November 18 1916, the **Battle of Somme**, a British and French offensive against the Germans, again resulted in approximately one million casualties but no breakthrough for either side. The opening of this offensive saw the British Army endure the bloodiest day in its history, suffering 57,470 casualties, including 19,24vicki0 dead, on the first day alone.(2)

Eastern Front

While the Western Front had reached stalemate, the war continued in East Europe. Initial Russian plans called for simultaneous invasions of Austrian Galicia and German East Prussia. Although Russia's initial advance into Galicia was largely successful, it was driven back from East Prussia by German high command General Paul von Hindenburg at **Tannen-**

berg and the Masurian Lakes in August and September 1914. Russia's less developed industrial base and ineffective military leadership was instrumental in the events that unfolded. By the spring of 1915, the Russians had retreated to Galicia, and, in May, the Central Powers achieved a remarkable breakthrough on Poland's southern frontiers. On August 5 1915, they captured Warsaw and forced the Russians to withdraw from Poland. The Central Powers secured all sea routes into Russia.

As the war raged on, fighting spread beyond Europe to Africa, as well as to Southwest and Southeast Asia. In the years after it began, the massive European conflict indeed became a world war. (3) (4)

Section 2 Review

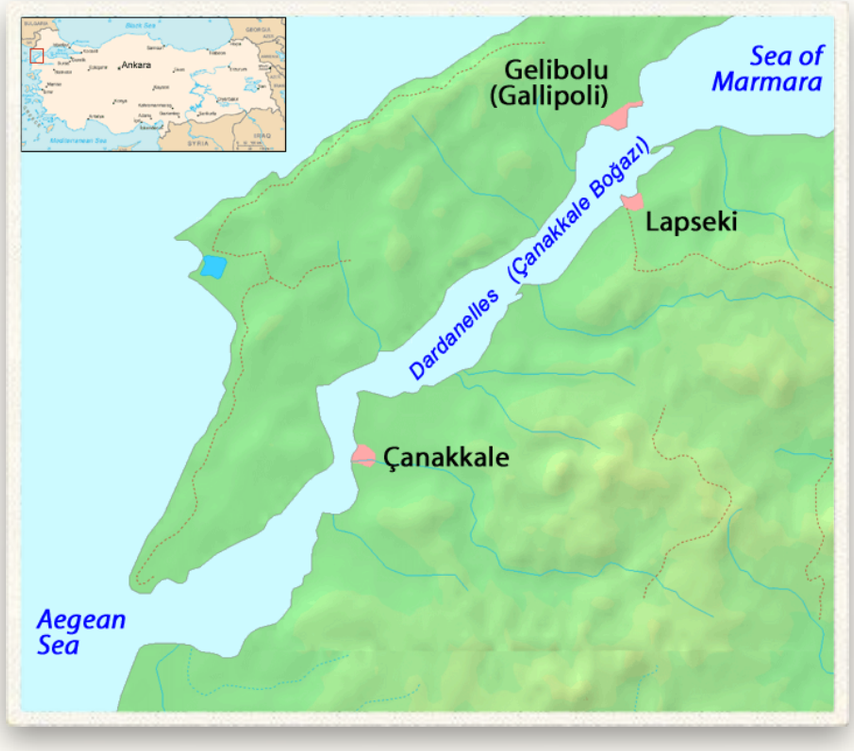
1. What was the strategy of the Scheifflen Plan?
2. Way this plan successful? Why or Why Not?
3. What were some of the new weapons introduced during WWI?
4. What was No Man's Land?
5. Click on the links for following battles and summarize:

   Marne, Verdun, Somme, Tannenberg

A True World War

War Affects the World

As the war dragged on, the main combatants looked beyond Europe for a way to end the stalemate. However, none of the alliances they formed or new battlefronts they opened did much to end the slow and grinding conflict.A promising strategy for the Allies seemed to be to attack a region in the Ottoman Empire known as the Dardanelles. By securing this region, the Allies believed that they could take the capital city Constantinople, defeat the Turks, and establish a supply line to Russia. The **Gallipoli Campaign** as the Allies called it, took place between April 25, 1915 and January 9, 1916. The peninsula forms the northern bank of the **Dardanelles,** a strait that provides a sea route to what was then the Russian Empire, one of the Allied powers during the war. Intending to secure it, Russia's allies Britain and France launched a naval attack followed by an amphibious landing on the peninsula with the eventual aim of capturing the Ottoman capital of **Constantinople** (modern-day Istanbul). The naval attack was repelled and, after eight months' fighting, with many casualties on both sides, the land campaign also failed and

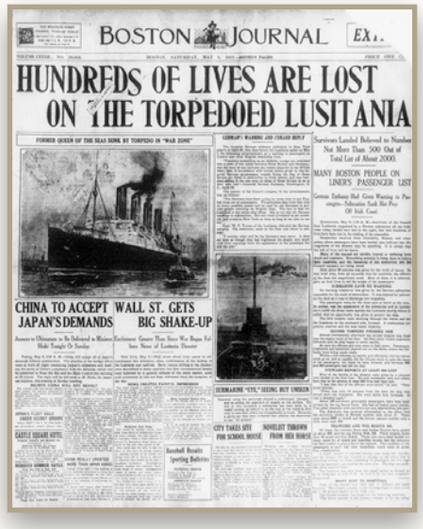


the invasion force was withdrawn to Egypt.(1)(2) The campaign was one of the greatest Ottoman victories during the war and a major Allied failure. In Turkey, it is regarded as a defining moment in the nation's history: a final surge in the defense of the motherland as the Ottoman Empire crumbled. The struggle formed the basis for the Turkish War of Independence and the founding of the Republic of Turkey eight years later under **Mustafa Kemal Atatürk**, who first rose to prominence as a commander

at Gallipoli. The campaign is often considered as marking the birth of national consciousness in Australia and New Zealand and the date of the landing, April 25, is known as **"Anzac Day"** which is the most significant commemoration of military casualties and veterans in those two countries, surpassing Remembrance Day (Armistice Day). (3) (4)

United States Enters the War

In 1917, the focus of the war shifted to the high seas. In January 1917, Germany declares unrestricted submarine warfare. The Germans believed that it was possible to defeat the British in six months through this, and assumed it would take at least one year for America to mobilize as a result of the actions. Thus, they banked on the hope that they could defeat Britain before America would enter the war.The Germans had tried this policy before. At the outbreak of the war, the United States pursued a policy of non-intervention, avoiding conflict while trying to broker a peace. When the German U-boat sank the British liner **RMS Lusitania** on May 7, 1915 with 128 Americans among the dead, President Woodrow Wilson insisted that "America is too proud to fight" but demanded an end to attacks on passenger ships. Germany complied. Wilson unsuccessfully tried to mediate a settlement. However, he also repeatedly warned that the United States would not tolerate unrestricted submarine warfare, in violation of international law. The Germans finally agreed to stop attacking neutral and passenger ships. (5) In January 1917, Germany resumed unrestricted submarine warfare, realizing it would mean American entry.


BOSTON JOURNAL Ex.

HUNDREDS OF LIVES ARE LOST ON THE TORPEDOED LUSITANIA

FORMER QUEEN OF THE SEAS SUNK BY TORPEDO IN "WAR ZONE"

GERARD'S WARNING AND GERARD HELP

Survivors Landed Believed to Number Not More Than 500 Out of Total List of About 2000.

MANY BOSTON PEOPLE ON LINER'S PASSENGER LIST

German Embassy Had Given Warning to Passengers—Submarine Sank Her Prey Off Irish Coast

CHINA TO ACCEPT JAPAN'S DEMANDS

WALL ST. GETS BIG SHAKE-UP

Answer to Ultimatum to Be Delivered to Minister Hioki Tonight Or Sunday.

Excitement Greater Than Since War Began Following News of Lusitania Disaster

SUBMARINE "U-53," SEEING BUT UNSEEN

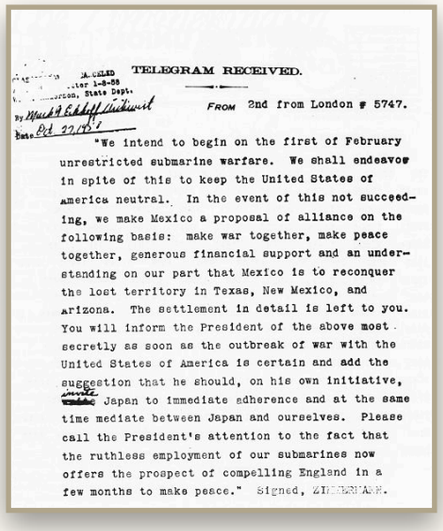
CITY TAKES SITE FOR SCHOOL HOUSE

ANARCHIST THROWN FROM HIS HORSE

CASTLE SQUARE HOTEL

Baseball Results Sporting Bulletins

The German Foreign Minister Arthur Zimmerman, in the **Zimmermann Telegram,** Mexico to join the war as Germany's ally against the United States. In return, the Germans would finance Mexico's war and help it recover the territories of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. The United Kingdom intercepted the message and presented it to the US embassy in the UK. From there it made its way to President Wilson who released the Zimmermann note to the public, and Americans saw it as an act or event that provokes or is used to justify war. Wilson called on antiwar elements to end all wars, by winning this one and eliminating militarism from the globe. He argued that the war was so important that the US had to have a voice in the peace conference. After the sinking of seven US merchant ships by submarines and the publication of the Zimmerman telegram, Wilson called for war on Germany, which the US Congress declared on **April 6, 1917.**(6) The United States was never for-


TELEGRAM RECEIVED.

FROM 2nd from London # 5747.

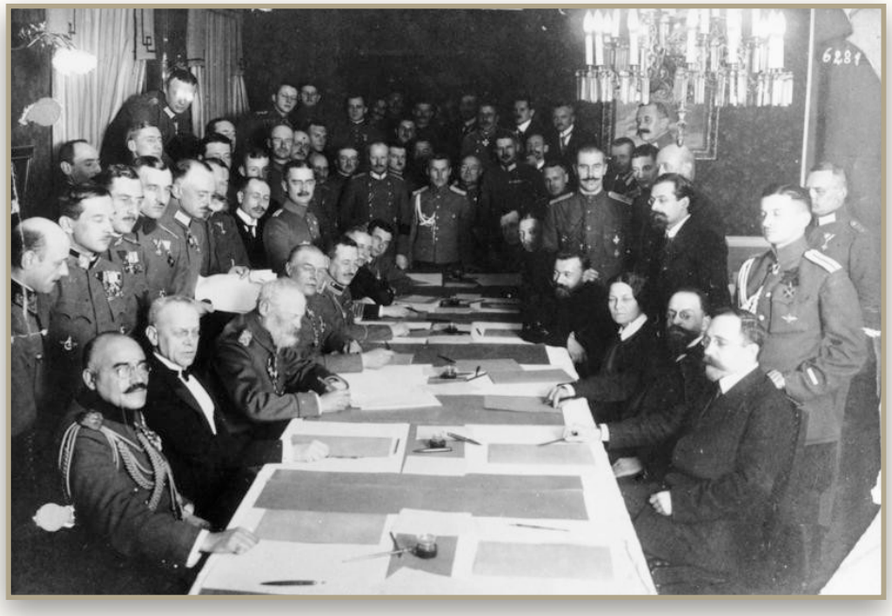
"We intend to begin on the first of February unrestricted submarine warfare. We shall endeavor in spite of this to keep the United States of America neutral. In the event of this not succeeding, we make Mexico a proposal of alliance on the following basis: make war together, make peace together, generous financial support and an understanding on our part that Mexico is to reconquer the lost territory in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. The settlement in detail is left to you. You will inform the President of the above most secretly as soon as the outbreak of war with the United States of America is certain and add the suggestion that he should, on his own initiative, invite Japan to immediate adherence and at the same time mediate between Japan and ourselves. Please call the President's attention to the fact that the ruthless employment of our submarines now offers the prospect of compelling England in a few months to make peace." Signed, ZIMMERMANN.

mally a member of the Allies but became a self-styled "Associated Power." The United States had a small army, but, after the passage of the Selective Service Act, it drafted 2.8 million men, and by summer 1918, was sending 10,000 fresh soldiers to France every day. Germany had miscalculated, believing it would be many more months before American soldiers would arrive and that their arrival could be stopped by U-boats. (7)

The Allies Win the War

In March 1917, civil unrest in Russia, due in large part to war-related shortages of food and fuel, forced Czar Nicholas to step down and the appointment of a weak Provisional Government was formed. This arrangement led to confusion and chaos both at the front and at home. The army became increasingly ineffective.

Discontent and the weaknesses of the Provisional Government led to a rise in the popularity of the Bolshevik Party, led by **Vladimir Lenin**, which demanded an immediate end to the war. The successful armed uprising by the Bolsheviks of November was followed in December by an armistice and negotiations with Germany. At first, the Bolsheviks refused the German terms, but when German troops began marching across the Ukraine unopposed, the new government acceded to the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** on March 3, 1918. The treaty ceded vast territories, including Finland, the Baltic provinces, parts of Poland and Ukraine to the Central Powers. With the adoption of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, the Entente no longer existed. (8) Russia's withdrawal from the war at last allowed Germany to send nearly all its forces to the



Western Front. German General Erich Ludendorff drew up plans (codenamed Operation Michael) for the 1918 offensive on the Western Front. The Spring Offensive sought to divide the British and French forces with a series of feints and advances. The German leadership hoped to end the war before significant US forces arrived. The operation commenced on March 21, 1918, with an attack on British forces near the French city of Amiens. The front moved to within 75 miles of Paris. Three heavy Krupp railway gun s fired 183 shells on the capital, causing many Parisians to flee. The initial offensive was so successful that Kaiser Wilhelm II declared March 24 a national holiday. Many Germans thought victory was near. **French General Ferdinand Foch** pressed to use the arriving American troops as individual replacements. These units were assigned to the depleted French and British Empire commands on March 28. A Supreme War Council of Allied forces was created at the Doullens Conference on Novem-

ber 5, 1917. General Foch was appointed as supreme commander of the Allied forces. (9) By this time, the German military had weakened. The effort to reach Paris had exhausted men and supplies alike. Sensing this weakness, the Allies led by General Foch, launched a counterattack in July 1918. The **Second Battle of the Marne** was the last major German Spring Offensive on the Western Front during the First World War. The German attack failed when an Allied counter attack led by French and American forces, including several hundred tanks, overwhelmed the Germans. On September 29, 1918, allied troops broke through the German fortifications at the Hindenburg line, and the end of the war came into view. On November 9, 1918, Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicated, and on November 10 the German Weimar Republic was founded. On **November 11, 1918**, at eleven o'clock on the eleventh day of the eleventh month of 1918, the war ended as Germany and the Allies signed an armistice agreement. (10)

Aftermath

No other war had changed the map of Europe so dramatically. Four empires disappeared: the German, Austro-Hungarian, Ottoman, and Russian. Numerous nations regained their former independence, and new ones created. Four dynasties, together with their ancillary aristocracies, all fell after the war: the Hohenzollerns, the Habsburgs, the Romanovs, and the Ottomans. Belgium and Serbia were badly damaged, as was France, with 1.4 million soldiers dead, not counting other casualties. Germany and Russia were similarly affected. The war also had a devastating economic impact on Europe. The great conflict drained the treasuries of European countries. One account put the total cost of the war at $338 billion, a staggering amount for that time. (10)

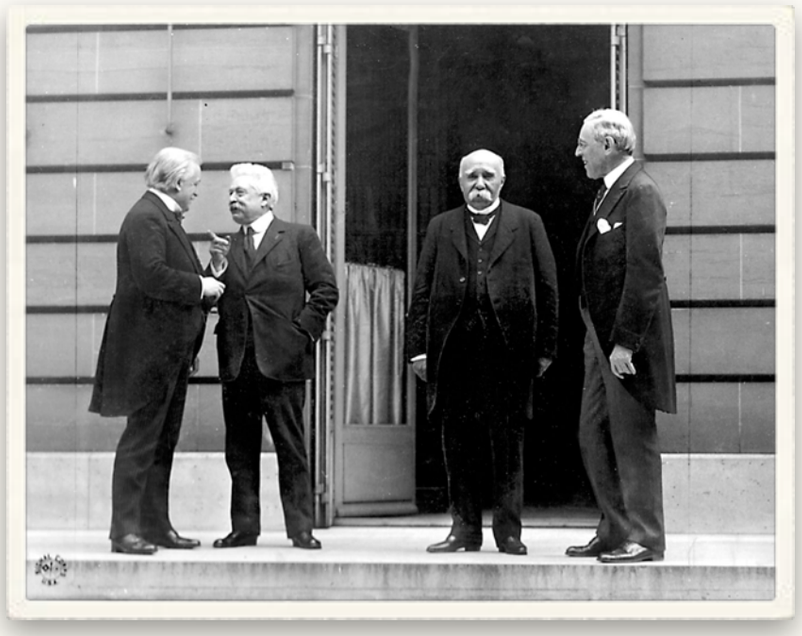
Section 3 Review

1. What was the purpose of the Gallipoli Campaign? Was it successful? Make sure to read the link to answer the question!
2. What two events brought the United States into World War I?
3. What was the Treaty of Brest-Litvosk?
4. What was the importance of the Second Battle of the Marne?
5. What was the importance of November 11, 1918?

Formal End of the War with the Quicksand Peace

The Allies Meet and Debate

Despite representatives from numerous countries, the meeting's major decisions were hammered out by a group known as the Big Four: **Georges Clemenceau of France, David Lloyd George of Great Britain, Woodrow Wilson of the United States, and Vittorio Orlando of Italy**. Russia, in the grip of civil war, was not represented. Neither were Germany and its allies.



A formal state of war between the two sides persisted for another seven months, until the signing of the **Treaty of Versailles** with Germany on June 28, 1919. The United States Senate did not ratify the treaty despite public support for it. The treaty dealt with Germany, and building on Wilson's 14th point, brought into being the **League of Nations** on June 28, 1919. The league was to be an international association whose goal would be to keep peace among nations. (1)

The treaty stripped Germany of 25,000 square miles of territory and 7,000,000 people. It also required Germany to give up the gains made via the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk and allow self-determination to the people of those nations. This meant allowing people to decide for themselves under what government they wished to live.

The treaty was comprehensive and complex in the restrictions imposed upon the post-war German armed forces. The provisions were intended to make Germany incapable of offensive action and to encourage international disarmament. Germany was to demobilize sufficient soldiers by March 31, 1920, to leave an army of no more than 100,000 men. The German navy was allowed only 15,000 men, a limited

amount of battleships, and was forbidden submarines. Article 198 prohibited Germany from having an air force, including naval air forces, and required Germany to hand over all aerial related materials. In conjunction, Germany was forbidden to manufacture or import aircraft or related material for a period of six months following the signing of the treaty. (2)

As tough as these provisions were, the harshest was **Article 231**. This article became known as War Guilt clause as the majority of Germans felt humiliated and resentful. It placed sole responsibility for the war on Germany's shoulders. As a result, Germany had to pay reparations to the Allies. The London Schedule of Payments, of May 5, 1921, established the full liability of the combined Central Powers at 132 billion gold marks. This required Germany to pay 132 billion gold marks (US $33 billion) in reparations to cover civilian damage caused during the war. However of this figure, Germany was only required to pay 50 billion gold marks (US $12.5 billion), a smaller amount than they had previously offered for terms of peace. Reparations were unpopular and strained the German economy but they were payable and from 1919–1931, when reparations ended, Germany paid fewer than 21 billion gold marks. (3)(4)

Some Allied powers, too, were embittered by the outcome. Both Japan and Italy, which had entered the war to gain territory, had gained less than they wanted. Lacking the support of the US and other world powers, the League of Nations was in no position to take action on these and other complaints. This peace was built on quicksand and eventually would give way. In a little more than two decades, the treaties' legacy of bitterness would help send the world into another catastrophic war. This was not a war to end of all wars.

Section 3 Review

1. Who were the Big Four?
2. Which countries were left out?
3. What was the League of Nations?
4. What was Article 231
5. Click on the link for the Treaty of Versailles. Read the full article and summarize.

Chapter 3

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File_talk:Flag_of_the_Soviet_Union.svg#mediaviewer/File:Hammer_and_Sickle_on_Flag_of_Soviet_Union.JPG

The Czar Resists Change

Interactive 3.1 *Russian Revolution*

Click on the image to watch the Russian Revolution Trailer

In 1881, due to the slow pace of political change, revolutionaries assassinated the reform-minded Czar Alexander II. Russia, being a firecracker with a long fuse, was heading towards a full-scale revolution. **Alexander III**, son of the assassination Czar, halted all reforms and clung to the principles of autocracy, a system of government by one person with absolute power.

Within these principles, Alexander III tried to wipe out these revolutionaries through imposing strict censorship codes on published material including private letters. His secret police watched both secondary schools and universities. Political prisoners were sent to Siberia, a remote region of eastern Russia.

To establish a uniform Russian culture, Alexander III oppressed other national groups within Russia. Through his reform called **Justification,** he made Russia the official language of the empire and forbade the use of minority languages, such as Polish, in schools. The Czar also made Jews the target of persecution. A wave of **pogroms**, organized violence against the Jews broke out in many parts of Russia.

When **Nicholas II** became Czar in 1894, he continued the tradition of Russian autocracy. Many sections of the country had reason to be dissatisfied with the existing autocracy. Nicholas II was a deeply conservative ruler and maintained a strict authoritarian system. Individuals and society in general were expected to show self-restraint, devotion to community, deference to the social hierarchy and a sense of duty to the country. Religious faith helped bind all of these tenets together as a source of comfort and reassurance in the face of difficult conditions and as a means of political authority exercised through the clergy. Perhaps more than any other modern monarch, Nicholas II attached his fate and the future of his dynasty to the notion of the ruler as a saintly and infallible father to his people. (1)

This idealized vision of the Romanov monarchy blinded him to the actual state of his country. With a firm belief that his power to rule was granted by Divine Right, Nicholas assumed that the Russian people were devoted to him with unquestioning loyalty. This ironclad belief rendered Nicholas unwilling to allow the progressive reforms that might have alleviated the suffering of the Russian people. Even after the 1905 revolution spurred the Czar to decree limited civil rights and democratic representation, he worked to limit even these liberties in order to preserve the ultimate authority of the crown. (2)

Economic and Social Changes

An elementary theory of property, believed by many peasants, was that land should belong to those who work on it. At the same time, peasant life and culture was changing constantly. Change was facilitated by the physical movement of growing numbers of peasant villagers who migrated to and from industrial and urban environments, but also by the introduction of city culture into the village through material goods, the press, and word of mouth.

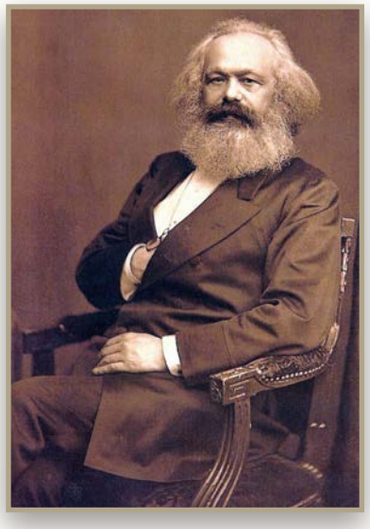
Workers also had good reasons for discontent: overcrowded housing with often deplorable sanitary conditions, long hours at work (on the eve of the war a 10-hour workday six days a week was the average and many were working 11–12 hours a day by 1916), constant risk of injury and death from poor safety and sanitary conditions, harsh discipline (not only rules and fines, but foremen's fists), and inadequate wages (made worse after 1914 by steep wartime increases in the cost of living). At the same time, urban industrial life was full of benefits, though these could be just as dangerous, from the point of view of social and political stability, as the hardships. There were many encouragements to expect more from life. Acquiring new skills gave many workers a sense of self-respect and confidence, heightening expectations and desires. Living in cities allowed workers to encounter material goods that they had never seen while living in the village. Most im-

portant, living in cities, they were exposed to new ideas about the social and political order. (3)

The social causes of the Russian Revolution mainly came from centuries of oppression of the lower classes by the Czarist regime, and Nicholas's failures in World War I. While rural agrarian peasants had been emancipated from serfdom in 1861, they still resented paying redemption payments to the state, and demanded communal tender of the land they worked. The problem was further compounded by the failure of Sergei Witte's land reforms of the early 20th century. Increasing peasant disturbances and sometimes actual revolts occurred, with the goal of securing ownership of the land they worked.

The rapid industrialization of Russia also resulted in urban overcrowding and poor conditions for urban industrial workers. Between 1890 and 1910, the population of the capital, Saint Petersburg, swelled from 1,033,600 to 1,905,600, with Moscow experiencing similar growth. This created a new 'proletariat' working class, which due to being crowded together in the cities, was much more likely to protest and go on strike than the peasantry had been in previous times. In one 1904 survey, it was found that an average of sixteen people shared each apartment in Saint Petersburg, with six people per room. There was also no running water, and piles of human waste were a threat to the health of the workers. The poor conditions only aggravated the situation, with the number of strikes and incidents of public disorder rapidly increasing in the years shortly before World War I. (4)

As a result of all of these factors, several revolutionary movements began to grow and compete for power. A group that followed the views of **Karl Marx**, a German philosopher, successfully established a following in Russia. The Marxist revolutionaries believed that the industrial class of workers would overthrow the Czar. In 1903, Russian Marxists split into two groups over revolutionary tactics. The more moderate **Mensheviks**, who wanted a broad base of popular support for the revolution and the radical Bolsheviks, willing to sacrifice everything for change. The major leader of the **Bolsheviks** was **Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov**. He adopted the name of **Lenin**. (5)



Interactive 3.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

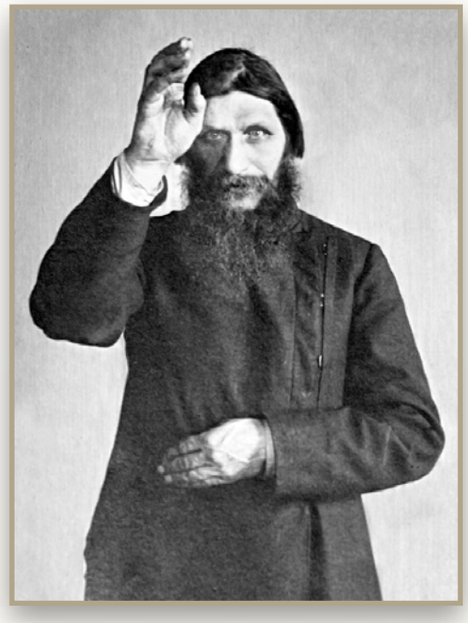
Click on the image to learn about Marxism

Crises at Home and Abroad

Dissatisfaction with Russian autocracy culminated in the huge national upheaval that followed the Bloody Sunday massacre of January 1905, in which hundreds of unarmed protesters were shot

by the Czar's troops. Workers responded to the massacre with a crippling general strike, forcing Nicholas to put forth the **October Manifesto**, which established a democratically elected parliament called the Duma. The Czar undermined this promise of reform but a year later with Article 87 of the 1906 Fundamental State Laws, and subsequently dismissed the first two Dumas when they proved uncooperative. Unfulfilled hopes of democracy fueled revolutionary ideas and violent outbursts targeted at the monarchy.

One of the Czar's principal rationales for risking war in 1914 was his desire to restore the prestige that Russia had lost amid the debacles of the **Russo-Japanese war**. Nicholas also sought to foster a greater sense of national unity with a war against a common and ancient enemy. The Russian Empire was an agglomeration of diverse ethnicities that had shown significant signs of disunity in the years before the First World War. Nicholas believed in part that the shared peril and tribulation of a foreign war would mitigate the social unrest over the persistent issues of poverty, inequality, and inhuman working conditions. Instead of restoring Russia's political and military standing, World War I led to the horrifying slaughter of Russian troops and military defeats that undermined both the monarchy and society in general to the point of collapse. In the autumn of 1915, Nicholas had taken direct command of the army, personally overseeing Russia's main theatre of war and leaving his ambitious but incapable wife Alexandra in charge of the government. Reports of corruption and incompetence in the Imperial government began to emerge, and the growing influence of **Grigori Rasputin** in the Imperial family was widely resented. In the eyes of many historians, Rasputin was a "fatal disease" to the Czarist regime. (6)



The March Revolution of 1917

The peasants were unhappy with the Czar as a result of losses from World War I, the lack of real representation and the Czar's dismissal of the Duma, the influence of Rasputin upon Alexandra, hunger, food shortages, and industrial working conditions.

As a result, on March 8, 1917, food riots broke out in St. Petersburg; however, the soldiers refused to fire upon the rioters. At this time, two forces were in competition for control of the revolution. Members of the Duma executive committee called for a moderate constitutional government, while Soviets, members of worker councils, pushed for revolution and industrial reform. On March 15, 1917, the Czar attempted to return to Russia by train, but was stopped by the troops and was forced to abdicate. From March through November, a provisional government was led by Alexander Kerensky, a socialist, and Prince Lvov. However, this government was destined to fail because it took no action in land distribution, continued to fight in World War I, and failed to fix food shortages. General Kornilov attempted a coup, but Kerensky used

the Soviets and Bolsheviks to put down the coup. However, this action showed the weakness of Kerensky.
The March Revolution marked the first time that the class struggle predicted by Karl Marx took place. Thus, the March Revolution was a true Marxist revolution based upon the theories of Marx in The Communist Manifesto. (7)

The November Revolution of 1917

Vladimir Lenin realized that the time had come to seize the revolution. He authored the "April Theses," in which he promised peace with the Central Powers, redistribution of the land, transfer of the factories to the owners, and the recognition of the Soviets as the supreme power in Russia. In this sense, the November Revolution was led by Lenin rather than being an overall coup by the workers, and thus the November revolution cannot be dubbed a true Marxist revolution. The Revolution may never have happened had not the Prime Minister of the Time, Alexander Kerensky, destroyed the power of authority within the Army and Navy by allowing the Bolshevik and Menshevik committee's greater powers. Kerensky effectively disarmed the Man who could have prevented the Revolution ever happening. The man in question, was the Commander-in-Chief, General Lavr Kornilov who attempted to bring to heel the populist Government of Kerensky and instill some authority back in to the state and the Army. Kerensky seized the opportunity to relieve Kornilov of his office and effectively gave the Bolsheviks, namely the Red Guard within the ranks of the Petrograd sailors, a Carte Blanc to take up arms in the so called defense of the Provisional Government. The Army lost its Commander and the streets were handed over to the Bolsheviks. (7)

Bolsheviks in Power

In March 1918 Lenin established the "dictatorship of the proletariat," adopted the name "Communist Party," and signed the treaty of Brest-Litovsk, withdrawing Russia from World War I. Civil war raged in Russia from 1918 until 1922, pitting the Reds (Bolsheviks led by Leon Trotsky) against the Whites, which consisted of czarists, liberals, the bourgeois, Mensheviks, the U.S., Britain, and France. The victorious Bolsheviks acted to eliminate their opposition using secret police groups such as the Cheka, the NKVD, and the KGB. Lenin attempted to maintain Marxism, hoping to reach Marx's state of a property less, classless utopia. However, the pursuit of communism generally failed and the economy declined. Accordingly, Lenin enacted the **New Economic Policy** in March 1921, which compromised many aspects of communism for capitalism's profits. (7)

Interactive 3.3 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the picture to learn about the rule of Lenin.

Stalin Becomes Dictator

Lenin suffered a stroke in 1922. He survived, but the incident set in motion competition for heading up the Communist Party. Two of the most notable men were **Leon Trotsky** and **Joseph Stalin**. Stalin began his climb to the head of the government between 1922 and 1927. In 1922, as general secretary of the Communist Party, he worked behind the scenes to move his supporters into positions of power. Lenin found Stalin to be a dangerous man. Lenin died in 1924 and by 1928 Stalin was in total control of the Communist Party. Trotsky, forced into exile in 1929, was no longer a threat. Stalin now stood poised to wield absolute power as a dictator. (8)

Section 1 Review

1. What were some of the biggest problems with the Romanov Czars?
2. What were the pogroms?
3. Summarize the major ideas of Marxism.
4. What is the significance of Rasputin?
5. Where were the March and November Revolutions?
6. What was Lenin's NEP?
7. Who was Leon Trotsky?
8. How did Stalin come to power?

The World According to Stalin

Stalinist Russia

At the 15th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in December 1927, Joseph Stalin attacked the left by expelling Leon Trotsky and his supporters from the party and then moving against the right by abandoning Vladimir Lenin's New Economic Policy which led to the creation of a totalitarian government. **Totalitarianism** is a concept used by some political scientists in which the state holds total authority over the society and seeks to control all aspects of public and private life wherever possible. Warning delegates of an impending capitalist encirclement, Stalin insisted that survival and development could only occur by pursuing the rapid development of heavy industry.

Industrial Revolution

The party under Stalin's direction established a state organization that would guide the socialist economy towards accelerating industrialization called **Gosplan.** This was the first step towards Stalin's system of government which made all economic decisions called a command economy. The new economic system put forward by the first **Five-Year Plan** involved a complicated series of planning arrangements. The first Five-Year plan focused on the mobilization of natural resources to build up the country's heavy industrial base by increasing output of coal, iron, and other vital resources. Based on these figures the Soviet government declared that Five Year Industrial Production Plan had been fulfilled by 93.7% in only four years, while parts devoted to heavy-industry part were fulfilled by 108%. Stalin in December 1932 declared the plan a success to the Central Committee, since increases in the output of coal and iron would fuel future development. Stalin, feeling that the first five-year plan was a success, declared a second five-year plan (1933–37), on the basis of the huge investment during the first plan, industry expanded extremely rapidly, and nearly reached the plan's targets. By 1937 coal output was 127 mil-

lion tons, iron 14.5 million tons, and there had been rapid development of the armaments industry. (1) (2)

While making a massive leap in industrial capacity, these Five Year Plans were extremely harsh on industrial workers; quotas were difficult to fulfill, requiring that miners put in 16 to 18-hour workdays. Failure to fulfill quotas could result in treason charges. Working conditions were poor, even hazardous.

Agricultural Revolution

In 1928, the government began to seize privately owned farms and combined them into large, government owned farms, called collective farms. By 1936, about 90% of Soviet agriculture had been collectivized. In many cases, peasants bitterly opposed this process and often slaughtered their animals rather than give them to collective farms, even though the Government only wanted the grain. **Kulaks**, prosperous peasants, were forcibly resettled to Siberia and the Russian Far North (a large portion of the kulaks served at forced labor camps). However, just about anyone opposing collectivization was deemed a "kulak." (3)

The Purges **(Click Here to Watch the Video)**

Stalin aimed to create a perfect Communist state in Russia. To realize his vision, Stalin planned to transform the Soviet Union into a totalitarian state. He began building his vision by destroying his enemies that were real and imagined. As this process unfolded, Stalin consolidated near-absolute power in 1934 by launching the Great Purges against his suspected political and ideological opponents, most notably the

old cadres and the rank and file of the Bolshevik Party. Ultimately, those supposedly involved in this and other conspiracies numbered in the tens of thousands with various Old Bolsheviks and senior party members blamed with conspiracy and sabotage which were used to explain industrial accidents, production shortfalls and other failures of Stalin's regime. The entire **Politburo** and most of the Central Committee were purged, along with foreign communists who were living in the Soviet Union, and numerous intellectuals, bureaucrats, and factory managers. Historians believed that an estimated 8 to 13 million people were killed during this time period. In 1936, the country adopted its first formal constitution, which on paper at least granted freedom of speech, religion, and assembly. Stalin successfully ushered in a period of total social control and rule by terror, rather than constitutional government.

Section 2 Review

1. Identify the following: Totalitarianism, Gosplan, Five Year Plans, Kulaks, Purges, Politburo.

Chapter 4

THE WORLD BETWEEN THE WARS 1919-1939

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Benito_Mussolini#mediaviewer/File:Mussolini_a_Berl%C3%ADn_1937.jpg

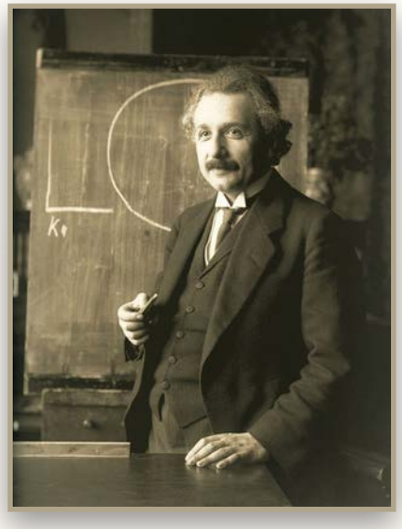
Uncertanity

Interactive 4.1 *World Between the Wars*

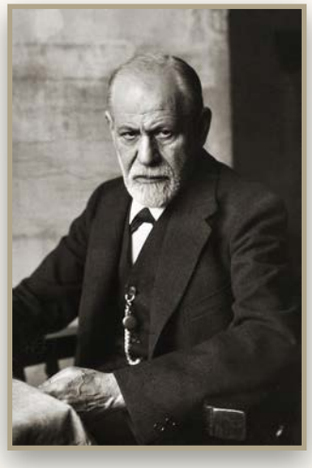
Click on the Image to View the Trailer

The horrors of World War I shattered the Enlightenment belief that progress would continue and reason would prevail. In the postwar period, people began questioning traditional beliefs. Answers were being found in many sectors of society.

Revolution in Science and Psychology



Albert Einstein was a German-born theoretical physicist and philosopher of science. He developed the general theory of relativity. Einstein theorized that while the speed of light is constant, other things that seem constant, such as space and time, are not. Speed and time can change when measured relative to an object moving near the speed of light. Einstein's idea had implications not only for science but also how people viewed the world.



Sigmund Freud was an Austrian neurologist, known as the father of psychoanalysis. From his experiences, he constructed a theory about the human mind. Freud believed

that most of human behavior is irrational, or beyond reason. He called the irrational part of the mind the unconscious. (1)

Thinkers React to Uncertainties

In people's search for meaning in an uncertain world, some thinkers turned to new philosophies. One of those philosophies is existentialism. **Existentialism** is a philosophical theory or approach that emphasizes the existence of the individual person as a free and responsible agent determining their own development through acts of the will. In other words, there is no universal meaning to life and each person creates his or her own meaning in life through choices made and actions taken.

Gallery 4.1 Exisentialists

Karl Jaspers

http://ro.wikipedia.org/wiki/Karl_Jaspers#mediaviewer/File:Karl_Jaspers.jpg

Some major leaders of this movement were **Jean Paul Sartre** of France and **Karl Jaspers** of Germany. Also from Germany who influenced this philosophy was **Friedrich Nietzsche**. In the 1880s, Nietzsche wrote that Western ideas such as democracy and progress had muted people's creativity and actions. He encouraged a return to ancient heroic values of pride and strength, seen in the ancient societies like Greece and Rome. (1)

Change in the Arts

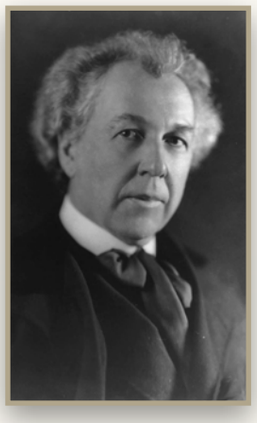
Artists rebelled against earlier realistic styles of painting. They wanted to depict the inner world through emotion and imagination rather than showing realistic representations of objects. An example of this change in artistic styles was Spanish artist **Pablo Picasso** and his style **Cubism**. This style transformed natural shapes into geometric forms. Objects were broken down into different parts with sharp angles and edges.

Inspired by Freud's ideas, **surrealism** was to resolve the previously contradictory conditions of dream and reality. Artists painted unnerving, illogical scenes with photographic precision, created strange creatures from everyday objects and developed painting techniques that allowed the unconscious to

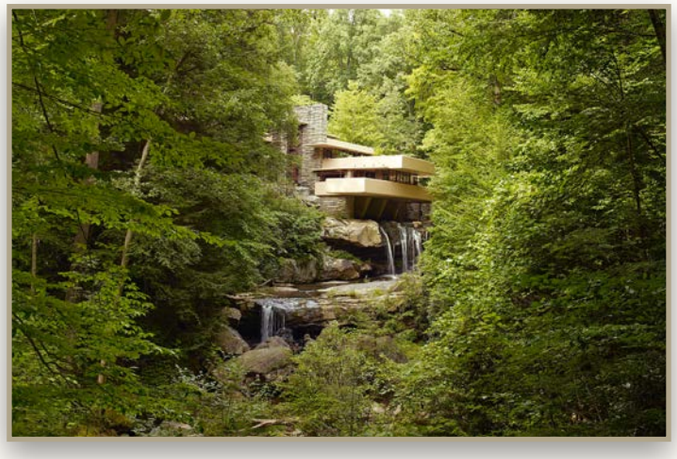
express itself and/or an idea/ concept. Surrealism developed out of the **Dada** activities during World War I and the most important center of the movement was Paris.

To quote Dona Budd's The Language of Art Knowledge, "Dada was born out of negative reaction to the horrors of World War I. This international movement was begun by a group of artists and poets associated with the Cabaret Voltaire in Zurich. Dada rejected reason and logic, prizing nonsense, irrationality and intuition. The origin of the name Dada is unclear; some believe that it is a nonsensical word. Others maintain that it originates from the Romanian artists Tristan Tzara's and Marcel Janco's frequent use of the words "da, da," meaning "yes, yes" in the Romanian language. Another theory says that the name "Dada" came during a meeting of the group when a paper knife stuck into a French-German dictionary happened to point to 'dada', a French word for 'hobbyhorse'." (2)

Other ways artists rebelled and expressed themselves was through architectural design and music. An American architect, **Frank Lloyd Wright** was responsible in designing over 1,000 structures and completed 532 during his lifetime. What made him so



revolutionary for his time was the type of functional style he used in designing his structures. Wright believed in designing structures that were in harmony with humanity and its environment, a philosophy he called organic architecture. This philosophy was best exemplified by **Fallingwater** (1935), which has been called "the best all-time work of American architecture." (3)



Audio 4.1 The Rite of Spring Purchased from iTunes

Composers during this time period moved away from traditional styles of music to begin finding new ways of expressing themselves. Russian composer Igor Stravinsky used irregular rhythms and harsh combinations of sounds to create his ballet masterpiece The Rite of Spring. Though this is considered a masterpiece today, many people from the audience on the opening night of this ballet walked out of the theater troubled by the sounds. In the United States however, a new lively, loose beat style called **jazz** emerged, capturing the new freedom of the age. Developed by mainly African American musicians, this style took off in the cities of New Orleans, Memphis, and Chicago.

Women's Roles Change

The spirit of the times was clearly shown in the changes women were making in their lives. Prior to the 19th Amendment, feminists commonly thought women could not pursue both a career and a family successfully, believing one would inherently inhibit the development of the other. This mentality began to change in the 1920s, as more women began to desire not only successful careers of their own, but also families. (4) The achievement of suffrage led to feminists refocusing their efforts towards other goals. Groups such as the National Women's Party continued the political fight, proposing the Equal Rights Amendment in 1923 and working to remove laws that used sex to discriminate against women, but many women shifted their focus from politics to challenge traditional definitions of womanhood. (5) Young women, especially, began staking claim to their own bodies and took part in a sexual liberation of their generation. Many of the ideas that fueled this change in sexual thought were already floating around New York intellectual circles prior to World War I, with the writings of Sigmund Freud, Havelock Ellis, and Ellen Key. There, thinkers ousted that sex was not only central to the human experience, but also women were sexual beings with human impulses and desires just like men, and restraining these impulses was self-destructive. By the 1920s, these ideas had permeated the mainstream. (5)

Technology Changes Life

The **automobile** benefited from a host of wartime innovations and improvements. Cars were now more appealing to look at and after World War I, with prices dropping; the middle class could afford to buy them. This would later lead to lifestyle changes, where more people traveled for pleasure. People also moved to suburbs and commuted to work in the cities.

After the war, international air travel became an objective and priority to this industry. In 1927, an American pilot named **Charles Lindbergh** capture the world's attention with a 33-hour solo flight from New York to Paris. Though most the world's passenger airlines were established during this time, the rich were the only class able to afford air travel. This still did not stop aviation pioneers including Amelia Earhart in 1932 to become the first women to fly solo across the Atlantic.

Radio development was a real push after World War I thanks to **Guglielmo Marconi's** successful experiments with the radio in 1895. In 1920, a Pittsburgh radio station, KDKA, successful began broadcasting and became the world's first commercial radio station. Radio mania swept the U.S., leading to families who owned a radio to listen to news, plays, and even live sporting events.

As the radio took off, so did the motion picture industry in the 1920s. Though many countries in Europe produced movies as a serious art form, 90 percent of all films were made in Hollywood district of Los Angeles for the purpose of enter-

tainment. One of the most popular comic geniuses of the Hollywood's silent screen was the English-born **Charlie Chaplin**. He was known for his portrayal of the lonely tramp, long-term homeless person who travels from place to place bewildered by life.

These advancements brought the world in closer touch and global prosperity came to depend on the economic stability of many major nations including the United States.

Section 1 Review

1. Identify the following people: Albert Einstein, Sigmund Freud, Pablo Picasso, Friedrich Nietzsche, Frank Lloyd Wright, Charlie Chaplin, Charles Lindbergh, Guglielmo Marconi.
2. Why did women's roles change in the 1920s?
3. Why could the period after WWI be called an Age of Uncertainty?

A Global Depression

Europe is Politically Unstable

The cost of World War I was immense. However, following the war a sudden rise of new democracies was beginning to form. Unfortunately, many citizens of these new democracies had little experience with representative governments, since for centuries they have been ruled by kings and emperors. With the development of large political parties within these countries, it made it difficult for these representative governments to properly function. When no single party won a majority, a coalition government, or temporary alliance of several parties, was needed to form a parliamentary majority.

Germany's new democratic government, the so-called **Weimar Republic**, faced serious problems following the Treaty of Versailles. Though Kaiser Wilhelm II had abdicated and the wartime military leadership had lost its authority, Germans widely refused to admit that their army had lost the war. A significant number believed that Germany could have continued to fight and eventually gotten the upper hand, and that surrender was a "stab in the back" of an army capable of winning the war. (1)

Immediately after the war, the Weimar Republic encountered severe economic problems. Millions of demobilized soldiers arrived home to find little or no work. Hunger was widespread. In addition, France and Britain owed war debts to the United States, and in order to pay them demanded reparation from Germany. Germany was unable to pay, so France seized the industrial towns of the Ruhr valley. The German response was to print money to pay the unemployed workers of the Ruhr, which resulted in massive hyperinflation in Germany. (1)

In an attempt to stabilize the German economy, an international committee headed by an American banker, **Charles Dawes**, provided a $200 million loan from American banks. This Dawes Plan did help slow down inflation, set a more

realistic schedule for reparation payments, and by 1929, German factories were producing as much as they had prior to World War I. This would attract more loans and investments from the United States.

As Germany's economy began to recover economically, the country wanted to also improve relations between them and France politically. Germany's foreign minister, Gustav Stresemann and France's Aristide Briand met at Locarno, Switzerland in 1925 to sign a treaty promising that the two countries would never again go to war against each other. Due to this "spirit of Locarno," it inspired the signing of the **Kellogg-Briand Pact i**n 1928. U.S. Secretary of State, Frank Kellogg met with Aristide Briand and arranged this agreement with almost every country in the world including the Soviet Union renouncing war as an instrument that is used in diplomatic policies. Though this was a good start to rebuild healthy relations amongst nations, this treaty could not be enforced by the League of Nations due to not having an armed force.

Economic Depression

In the late 1920s, the United States economy became the "financial crutch" to the world's economy. If the U.S. economy weakened, this "crutch" would be taken away and could lead the world's economic systems to collapse. In 1929, it did.

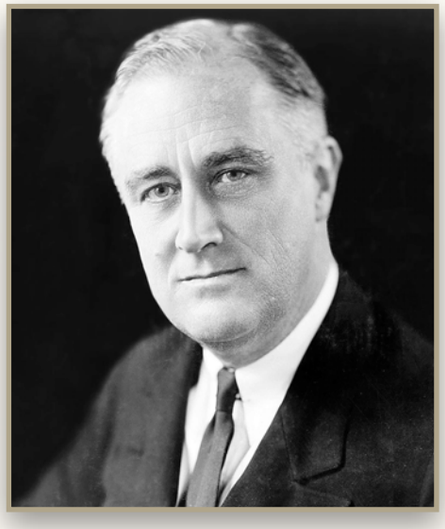
In 1929, American factories were producing more than half of the world's industrial goods. However, low wages at the time resulted in less purchasing power and many citizens were running to the banks to borrow the money. An agricultural depression and falling prices resulted in increased agricultural output but decreased demand. Overproduction in the factories, and over expansion of credit would lead to the U.S. stock market crash beginning on **October 29, 1929**. With the markets crash, people were unable to pay the money they owed on margin purchases, the purchase of an asset by paying the margin and borrowing the balance from a bank or broker. Within months of the crash, unemployment rose while industrial production, prices, and wages declined.

Interactive 4.2 Buying Stock on Margin

Learn how people were using the Stock Market that caused the crash!

This long business slump would come to be called the **Great Depression**. (1)

Actions pursued by the United States when the Great Depression was still in its infancy involved the Federal Reserve System untimely raise in interest rates (in hopes to lure foreign investment), and later on, the Smoot–Hawley Tariff created immediate tariff backlash across the world and collapsed a great majority of world trade. In Great Britain, the government cut social spending and installed 100% tariffs on foreign goods. Unlike Britain, France had a more self-sufficient economy. However, due to the unrest created by the Great Depression, the people elected a "Popular Front," a coalition of socialists, liberals, and communists, to govern. As a result of the Great Depression, fringe groups such as fascists and communists became more appealing to the general populace of Europe. (1)



The Slow Recovery

The U.S. recovery process would begin in 1932 with the election of **Franklin D. Roosevelt**. He immediately began to create government reform programs to help ignite the country's economy called the **New Deal**. These reforms would create large public work projects to deal with the unemployment, create new government agencies to give financial help to businesses and farms, spend public money on welfare, and impose regulations to the stock market and banking systems. The New Deal would eventually reform the American economic system and bring faith in democratic systems. However, certain European countries were beginning to be threatened by dictators.

Section 2 Review

1. What were the weaknesses of the Weimar Republic?
2. What was the Dawes Plan?
3. What was the Kellogg-Briand Pact?
4. What caused the Great Depression? Make sure your read the article
5. What was Roosevelt's plan called during the Great Depression?

Fascism

As a result of the Great Depression, many lost faith in democratic governments throughout Europe. In response, people turned to an extreme system of government called **fascism**. This is a strong centralized government with stringent social and economic control, often led by a charismatic dictator and characterized by fervent patriotism. Though this system had many similarities to another system called communism, the big difference was that fascism believed that every class had a place and function, unlike communism which believed in a classless society. Fascists also were nationalists unlike communists who were internationalists.

Italy

The rise of fascism in Italy was due to frustrations over a lack of territorial gain following the Treaty of Versailles (1919), rising inflation, and unemployment. The current democratic government seemed helpless to deal with the country's problems. The citizens wanted someone to take action. As a result, a newspaper editor and politician named **Benito Mussolini** would answer the call.

The liberal establishment of Italy, fearing a socialist revolution inspired by the ideas of the Russian Revolution, endorsed the small National Fascist Party, led by Benito Mussolini. After several years of struggle, in October 1922 the fascists attempted a coup called the **March on Rome**. The fascist forces were largely inferior, but the king, Victor Emmanuel III, ordered the army not to intervene, formed an alliance with Mussolini, and convinced the liberal party to endorse a fascist-led government. Over the next few years, Mussolini (who became known as **"Il Duce"**, the leader) eliminated all political parties, including the liberals, and curtailed personal liberties under the pretext of preventing revolution. (1) (2) (3)

With Mussolini's new form of government, he promoted extreme nationalism and national unity by emphasizing on masculinity, youth, aggression, and violence. He would also promote racial superiority, the use of secret police, censorship, and propaganda. Mussolini sought to have complete control of the economy and by the 1920s; he had total control of Italy. However, Il Duce never had the type of total power achieved by Joseph Stalin of the Soviet Union and Adolf Hitler of Germany. (1) (2) (3)

Germany

At the beginning of the 1930s, Germany was not far from a civil war. Paramilitary troops were set up by several parties, intimidated voters and seeded violence and anger among the public, who suffered from high unemployment and poverty. Meanwhile, elitists in influential positions, alarmed by the rise of anti-governmental parties, fought amongst themselves and exploited the emergency authority provided in the Weimar Constitution to rule undemocratically by presidential decree. (1) (4)

A man named **Adolf Hitle**r emerged onto the scene. A veteran of World War I and a failed artist, Hitler involved himself with an unknown group, the German Worker's Party. It was here where Hitler found his place and quickly became the leader of what became the **National Socialist German Workers' Party** (**NAZI**). Its symbol would become the **Swastika.**

The weakness of the Weimar Republic encouraged Hitler to overthrow the government. The **Beer Hall Putsch** as it was called failed and Hitler was sentenced to five years in prison. It was here were he outlined his plans for his **Third Reich**, which was meant to last for a 1,000 years. It was here where he wrote *Mein Kampf* (See below). (5)

After a succession of unsuccessful cabinets on January 29, 1933 President Paul von Hindenburg, seeing little alternative and pushed by advisors, appointed **Adolf Hitler** Chancellor of Germany. On February 27, 1933, the **Reichstag** (lower house of Germany's legislature) was set on fire. Basic rights were abrogated under an emergency decree. An Enabling Act gave Hitler's government full legislative power. A centralized totalitarian state was established, no longer based on the rule of democratic law, a policy that Hitler had outlined in his biography ***Mein Kampf***. Hitler also made clear in his work how the German people were a "master race," the Versailles treaty was an outrage, and that Germany was overcrowded and needed more **lebensraum**, or living space. The new regime made Germany a one-party state by outlawing all oppositional parties and repressing the different-minded parts of the public with the party's own organiza-

tions **SA** and **SS**, as well as the newly founded state security police **Gestapo**. (1) (4)

Industry was closely regulated with quotas and requirements in order to shift the economy towards a war production base. Massive public work projects and extensive deficit spending by the state helped to significantly lower the high unemployment rate. As a result, the number of unemployed dropped from about 6 million to 1.5 million in 1936. (1) (4)

By the mid-1930s, the powerful nations of Europe were split into two political camps - democratic and totalitarian. Those who were ruled under these fascist dictators had indicated the willingness to use military force to achieve their goals.

Section 3 Review

1. Define the following: Fascism, Il Duce, Gestapo, Swastika, Beer Hall Putsch, March on Rome, NAZI, *Mein Kampf,* Lebensraum.
2. Explain the rise of Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini.

The March of the Aggressors

Countries Seeking Empires

During the 1920s, the Japanese government became more democratic and signed treaties with China and the Kellogg-Briand Pact. However, once the Great Depression struck in 1929, many Japanese blamed the government. The results were militarists taking over control of the government, and keeping **Emperor Hirohito** as head of state. These militarists were extreme nationalists and planned a Pacific empire that included China. (1)

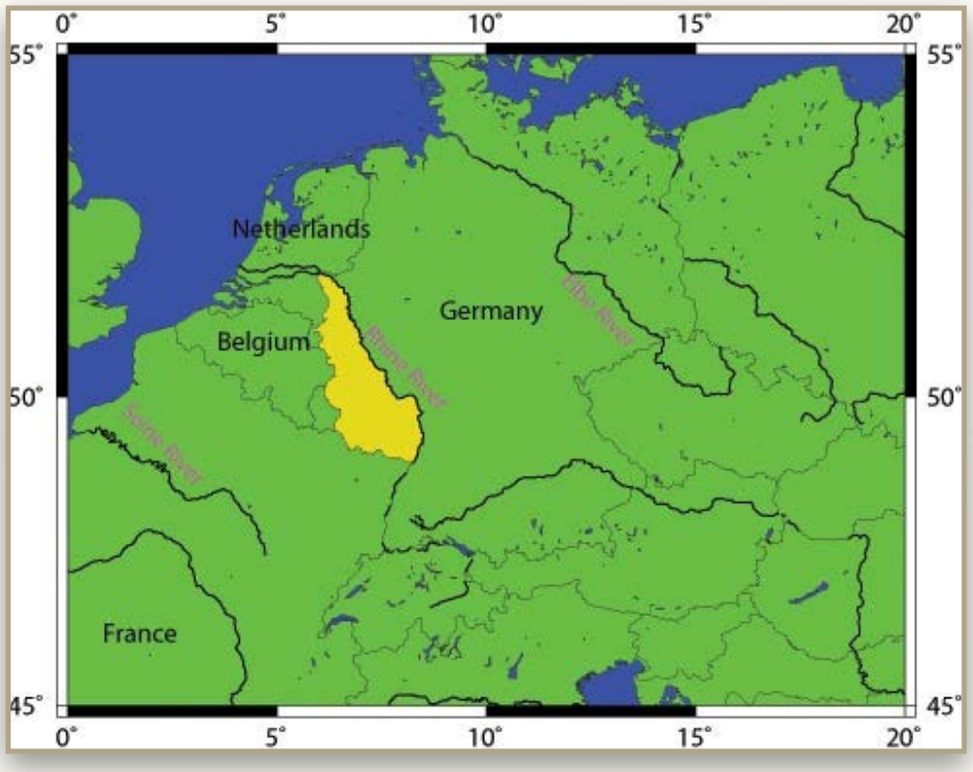
Japan's first target was **Manchuria,** China. Due to previous treaties with China, many Japanese businesses were already heavily invested in this area and it was an area rich in iron and coal. Despite objections from the Japanese government in 1931, Japan seized this northeast province. A puppet government was created and Japanese engineers began arriving to build mines and factories. This was a direct challenge to the League of Nations. Unfortunately, since the league did not have a standing army, it was powerless against Japan's aggressions. The result would be a "domino effect" of other aggressive nations who too will want to expand their empires.

The League's failure to stop Japan, fascist leader Mussolini began his plans for creating an Italian empire. Mussolini's target was one of Africa's three independent nations, Ethiopia. In October 1935, Mussolini orders a massive invasion of the country. The Ethiopians did not stand a chance against the Italian airplanes, tanks, guns, and poison gas. Ethiopian emperor Haile Selassie appealed to the League of Nations for help. The League condemned the attacks but did nothing, in hope to keep peace in Europe. (1)

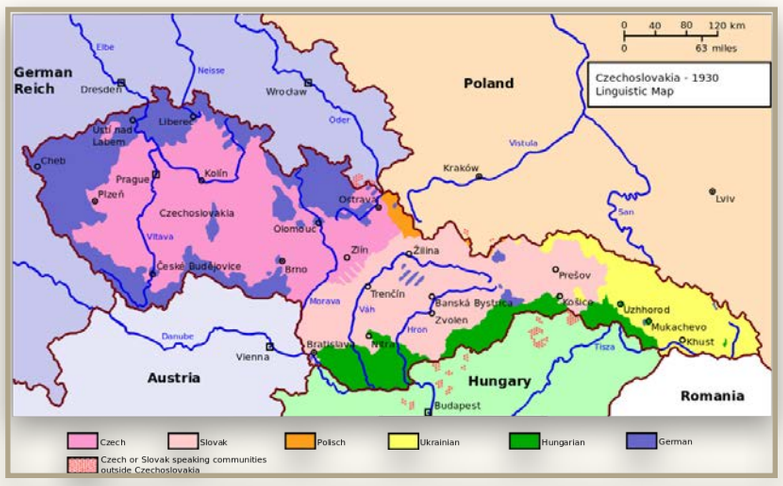
In Spain, a civil war (1936) broke out that was marked by numerous small battles and sieges, until the rebels (Nationalists) led by **Francisco Franco** won in 1939 and became a Fascist dictator. There was military intervention as Italy sent land forces, and Germany sent smaller elite air force and armored

units to the Nationalists. The civil war did not escalate into a larger conflict, but it did lead many countries to develop a growing sense that another world war was imminent, and that it would be worth fighting for. (2)

In 1933, Germany left the League of Nations. In 1936, Germany remilitarized the **Rhineland,** a territorial "buffer zone" between France and Germany. In 1938, Germany annexed Austria, called Anschluss, which was prohibited by the Treaty of Versailles. Hitler made these goals clear to his adviser because he wanted to create the Third Reich, or German Empire.



The prevalence of pacifisms, general ethical opposition to war and violence, in Europe meant that European nations were reluctant to interfere in the actions of the revisionist powers. In addition, the nations of the Treaty of Versailles began to feel guilty for their treatment of Germany. Moreover, the areas that Germany initially invaded were all of German heritage, and the leaders of the nations wondered if perhaps Germany should be allowed to take those territories. The leaders of France, Britain, and Italy met in Munich, Germany on September 29, 1938. In this meeting called the **Munich Conference**, British Prime Minister **Neville Chamberlain** believed he could preserve peace by giving into Hitler's demands. France and Britain agreed to allow Germany to take the **Sudetenland**, a western region of Czechoslovakia where three million German-speaking people



lived, in exchange for Hitler's pledged to respect Czechoslovakia's new boarders. (3) (4)

In 1939, however, Germany seized the rest of Czechoslovakia, showing that war was inevitable and that appeasement had failed. Poland and Hungary also participated, taking sections of Czech and Slovak territory adjacent to their borders.

British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain responded to the occupation of Czechoslovakia by giving a guarantee to Poland that Britain would go to war against Germany if Germany attacked Poland. The Polish government had not requested this alliance. Many historians have seen the guarantee as Chamberlain opening his eyes to Hitler's aggressive plans, but some others hold that it foolishly made war much more likely, by encouraging Poland to defy Germany in any negotiations over the Polish Corridor and the city of Danzig. (3) (4)

In response to Chamberlain's pledged to Poland and for Germany to avoid a two front war, **Germany** and the **Soviet Union** shocked the Western powers by signing a **non-aggression pact** called the **Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact.**

All Europe needed was for Germany to invade Poland to bring this continent back into a second world war.

Section 4

1. Why was Manchuria important to Japan?
2. How was the League of Nations ineffective in stopping Japanese aggression?
3. Who was Francisco Franco important?
4. What was the Rhineland?
5. What was the Munich Conference?
6. What was the Molotov Ribbentrop Pact?

Chapter 5

WORLD WAR II

Interactive 5.1 World War II

Click on the image to view the Trailer

"Approaching Omaha" by Original uploader was Taak at en.wikipedia Later versions were uploaded by Raul654, Nauticashades at en.wikipedia. - Originally from en.wikipedia; description page is/was here.. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Approaching_Omaha.jpg#mediaviewer/File:Approaching_Omaha.jpg

- 1931 ~ Japan invades Manchuria; Leaves League of Nations after it protests.
- 1935 ~ Italy invades Ethiopia
- 1936 ~ Hitler moves troops into the Rhineland
- March, 1938 ~ Hitler takes over Austria
- September, 1938 ~ Hitler demands Sudentenland
- March, 1939 ~ Hitler takes over rest of Czechoslovakia
- August 1939 ~ Nazi-Soviet Pact
- September 1939 ~ Germans invade Poland

Events leading up to World War II.

Germany Sparks A New War In Europe

Dealing with the Blitz

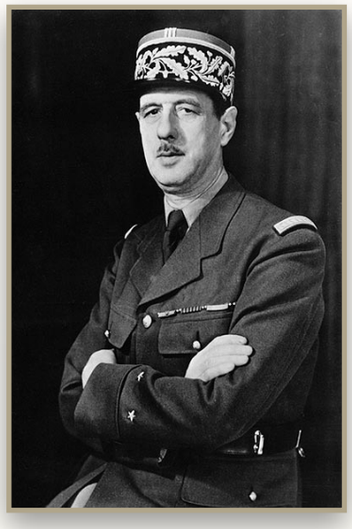
On **September 1, 1939**, Germany invaded Poland with its new war machine using what was called lightning warfare or Blitzkrieg. This style involves using fast-moving airplanes and tanks, followed by a massive infantry force to overwhelm the enemy. As a result, on September 3, 1939, Great Britain and France declared war on Germany. On September 17, 1939, the U.S.S.R. invaded Poland. In 1940, Germany, Italy, and Japan signed the Tripartite Treaty, forming the Axis powers. (1)

A Phony War in the West

Through the winter of 1939-40 the British and French sat behind the French defense system called the **Maginot Line,** wondering what would happen next. The German forces too sat back on their **Siegfried line** joking that this has become sitzkrieg, or "sitting war." In reality this "phony war" would end on April 9, 1940 with a German surprise invasion of Denmark and Norway, both falls to the German's within two months. With the German's securing these two countries, they began to build bases along their coastlines so they could launch strikes on Great Britain.

Fall of France

In May of 1940, Hitler began to invade the countries of the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg. This strategy was to distract the Allies' and draw their attention to these countries as Hitler sends a force of tanks through the Ardennes forest into France. France was no more prepared for the blitz than any other country. The Germans tore through France and trapped the British and large numbers of French in a pocket around the port of **Dunkirk**. British Prime **Minister Winston Churchill** would respond by getting on the BBC radio to plea with his people to assist these soldiers who were trapped in this port city. In one of the most heroic acts of the war, about 850 ships, from battleships to civilian crafts, would rescue about 338,000 soldiers in what became known as the "miracle at Dunkirk." Unfortunately, the French declared Paris an Open City, meaning that the city would not defend itself, and the Germans marched in. On June 22, 1940 the unthinkable happened, France had fallen. The Germans took control of the northern part of the country and left the southern part to a puppet government led by **Marshal Philippe Petain**, French hero during WWI. The headquarters of this government was in the city of **Vichy**. (2)



Following the fall of France, one French officer who escaped to England in 1940 and refused to accept that France was out of the war was **General Charles de Gaulle**. He organized a fighting unit called the Free French and issued a radio call over the BBC saying that France had lost the battle, but she had not lost the war. The Free French became an important fighting unit, but at the time no one really heard De Gaulle's appeals.

Game Over. Isn't it?

With the fall of France, Hitler had no issue with Britain and was happy to make peace on generous terms. Hitler wanted to get on with this planning of the invasion of Russia. Surprisingly, the British government under Winston Churchill made clear that the idea of peace with Germany was not an item on the menu and vowed that the country will fight on. Hitler gave the order for **Operation Sea Lion**, the invasion of Britain.

Hermann Goering, commander of the German air force, the **Luftwaffe**, was order to first knock out the Royal Air Force (RAF), and then land more than 250,000

soldiers on the English's shores. At first the German's were targeting British airfields and aircraft factories. However, on September 7, 1940, they began targeting civilian cities to try to "break" the morale of the British people. Despite the destruction, the British people did not waver. (1)

The RAF, badly outnumbered, had two technological advantages against the strength of the Luftwaffe. The first was an electronic tracking device known as radar. With the RAF knowing from miles away where the Luftwaffe was coming from, it allowed them to get fighter planes in the air at a moment's notice. The other device was an **Enigma**, a German code making machine. In the late 1930s, a complete machine was smuggled into Great Britain. It enabled the British to decode German messages and "beat the Luftwaffe to the punch."

The Battle of Britain continued until May 10, 1941 when Hitler called off the operations. Instead, Hitler focused on the Mediterranean and Eastern Europe. Though the British taught the Allies that the blitz can be stopped, it was at quite the cost. With the damage done from the operation, Winston Churchill would call to the United States for help.

Put Russia on hold - Mussolini needs Help!

Germany's first target was North Africa mainly because of his partner Mussolini. In September of 1940, Italy attacked British controlled Egypt's Suez Canal, a key place to reach the oil fields of the Middle East. At first the Italian's pushed British forces 60 miles inside Egypt, but by February 1941, the British swept across North Africa capturing 130,000 Italian prisoners. Hitler knew that if he did not step in that he could lose his biggest ally in Italy. So to reinforce the Italians, Hitler sent in a tank force called the **Afrika Korps** led by **General Erwin Rommel**, a.k.a **Desert Fox**, in March of 1941. General Rommel caught the British by surprise, and by June 1942 he seized the British controlled city of **Tobruk.**

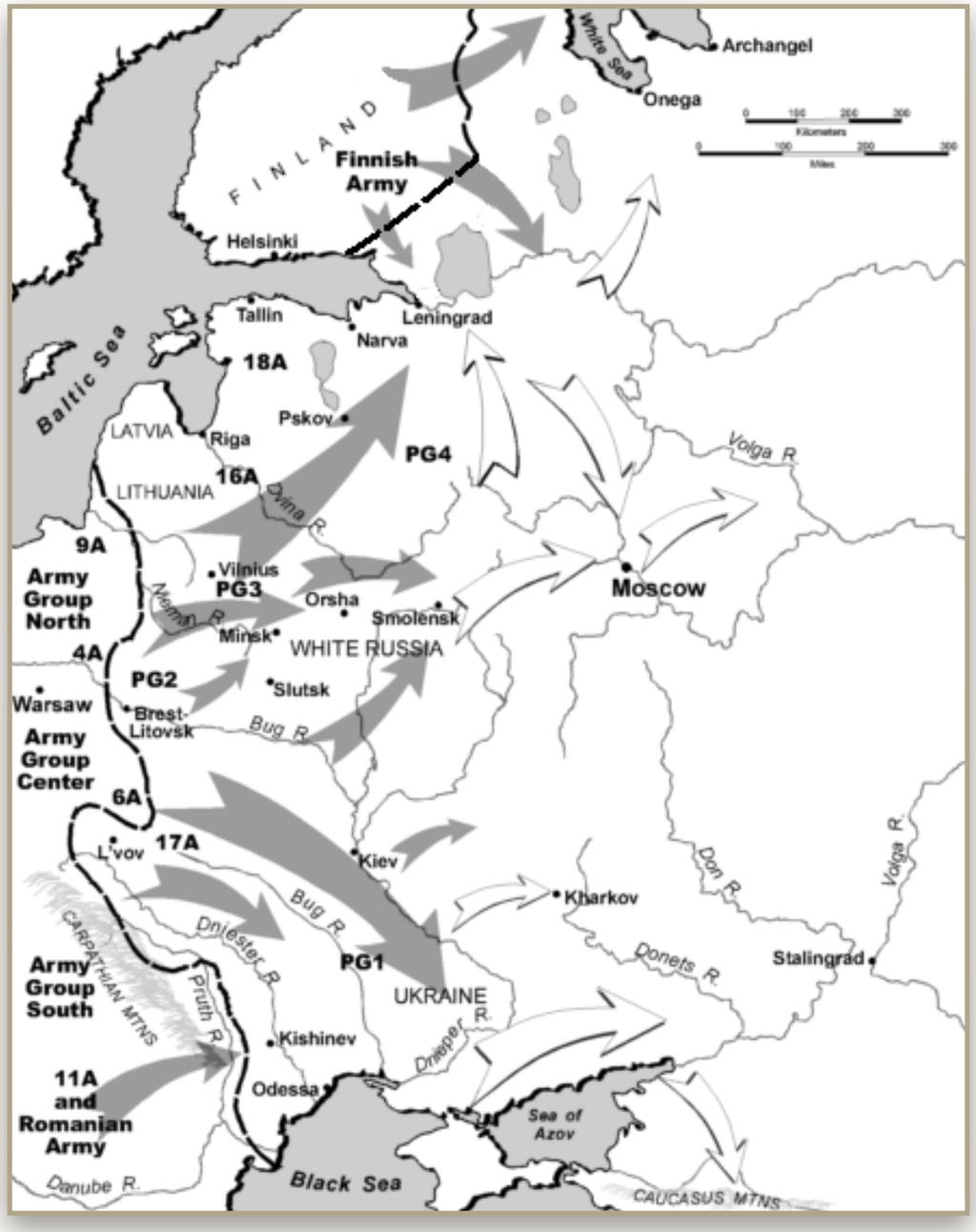
Resistance is Futile!

As the North African campaigns continued, German generals were already active in the Balkans. Hitler was already planning the invasion of the Soviet Union as early as the summer of 1940. To prepare for the invasion, Hitler threatened with military forces the countries of Romania, Hungary, and Bulgaria to join the Axis powers.Though these three countries gave in and joined the Axis, Yugoslavia and Greece, who had British governments, resisted. As a result, in April 1941, Germany invaded both countries and conquered them within 28 days combined. All stages were set for Hitler's ultimate prize, the Soviet Union. (3)

Operation Barbarossa

On June 22, 1941, the Nazi's began the invasion of the Soviet Union. Hitler called this **Operation Barbarossa**, after the great medieval German emperor and Crusader. Hitler explained that this invasion was a modern crusade against barbaric Russian communism, and encourages all of Europe to join. The Soviet Red Army was not prepared for this attack and many were quickly captured. Since the Nazi's viewed Russians as sub-human, these prisoners were made to live and die as slaves in German labor camps.

As the invasion went on, the Germans pushed 500 miles inside the Soviet Union. While the Germans pushed on towards Moscow, special units called *Einsatzgruppen* travelled through Russia killing and destroying whole villages to make space for German settlers. As the Red Army retreated, they burned and destroyed any resource that the German army could use called **scorched-earth**.



The city of Leningrad endured a terrible siege for over two years beginning on September 8, 1941. Hitler was prepared to starve the 2.5 million inhabitants of the city, while bombing warehouses where food was stored. Though life in the city for those two years were brutal, the resiliency of the citizens would prevail. Even Stalin, who hated the city and subjected it to the worst purges, gave the city the title 'Hero City' in honor of its brave stand. (2)

Where are you U.S.A!?

Between 1935 and 1937, most Americans felt that America should not get involved. This feeling was mutual in Congress as a series of **Neutrality Acts** were passed, making it illegal to sell arms or lend money to nations at war. As the war progressed, it became apparent that if the Allies failed that the United States would be pulled into this war. In March 1941, President Roosevelt convinced Congress to pass the Lend-Lease Act, giving the president the power to lend arms and other supplies to any country vital to the United States. Even as this was going on, Roosevelt and Churchill met secretly and issued a joint declaration called the **Atlantic Charter**. This charter would uphold free trade among nations and all people the rights to self-determination. This would later become part of the post WWII peace plans. (2)

In September 1941, the United States and Germany were involved in an undeclared naval war. What was interesting is that the attack that drew the United States into the war did not come from Germany. Rather, it came from Japan.

Section 1 Review

1. Why was September 1, 1939 important?
2. What was the “phony” war? When did it end?
3. Read the article on Dunkirk & summarize.
4. Who was Winston Churchill? Read his biography.
5. Identify, Operation Sea Lion, Operation Barbarossa.
6. What was the Atlantic Charter?

The Sacrifice By Fire

The Holocaust Begins

As part of the vision for Germany, a new racial order was created proclaiming that the Germanic people, or Aryans, were a "master race." The Nazis misused the term **Aryan**, which referred to the Indo-Europeans who migrated into the Indian subcontinent. The Nazis claimed that all non-Aryan peoples were inferior and this message would eventually lead to the systematic mass murdering known as the Holocaust.

To build support for Hitler's racist ideas, he would refer to the deep rooted pasted between Jews and Germans in European History. Throughout history, many Germans and other Europeans would blame Jews for their countries failures, in wars like WWI and even their countries failing economies. The Nazis made no secret of their beliefs from the beginning:

1) Germany had lost WWI because Jews and Communists undermined morale.

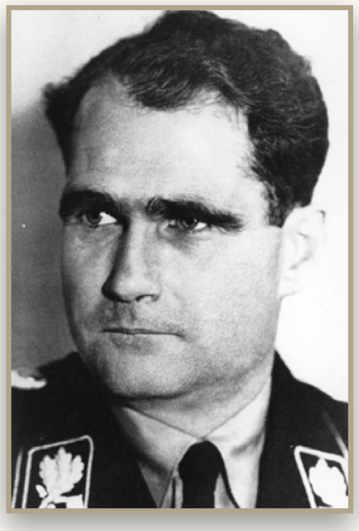
2) They were racists who believed inferior races threatened the German blood line.

3) Jews were not German; they were only "guests."

4) The feeble-minded and deformed must be prevented from producing more of their kind.

5) Traditional religious teachings about duty to God and brotherhood weakened the nation.

6) They were anxious to put their beliefs into law.



This Holocaust was a progression into eventual genocide for over 11 million people. This progression to genocide started with Hitler's deputy **Rudolph Hess's** creation of the 1935 **Nuremberg Laws.** These laws said that Jews

were not German citizens, rather "subjects." Jews could not marry Aryans and could not employ Aryan women under 35 years old. The Reich Citizenship Law that was later passed took away the right of Jews to vote or hold public office.(1)

Though these laws were bad, the worst was yet to come. In 1938, a German-born Jew of Polish-Russian ancestry Herschel Grynszpan in Paris was outraged by the news that his father was being deported to Poland after living in Germany for 27 years. Seeking revenge, Herschel shot a German diplomat in Paris of the name Ernst vom Rath. When the Nazis minister for propaganda **Joseph Goebbels** heard the news, he was secretly delighted. The Nazi storm troopers launched a violent attack on the Jewish community.

Close to a 100 Jews were killed and the main streets of cities were littered with shattered glass. It was for this reason that the night of November 9 became known as the "Night of Broken Glass," or **Kristallnacht**.(2)

After Kristallnacht, it was made clear that the violence against Jews was going to increase. As a result many tried to flee and emigrate to other countries. Hitler favored emigration as a solution to what he called "the Jewish problem." In 1933, there were about 700,000 Jews in Germany and Austria. In 1938 and 1939, 403,000 left. Few left behind wanted to stay, but it was difficult to find a country willing to take them. In 1940, the U.S. embassy in Berlin had 248,000 immigration applications on file; the U.S. quota allowed only 27,000 Germans a year into the country.(3)

When Hitler found that he could not get rid of the Jews through emigration, he turned to a new plan. This plan was to order all Jews to be removed from their homes and placed in segregated Jewish areas called **ghettos**. These ghettos

were not a new invention, since they did exist as far back as the Middle Ages. These ghettos would be constructed on the outskirts of cities and be sealed off with barbed wire and stone walls. The goal was that the Jews inside would just die in these ghettos from either starvation or disease.

Even though those in the ghettos were put in such horrible conditions, the Jews were resilient. Those in the ghettos began to grow their own food, create theaters for entertainment, and even taught lessons in secret schools. The most important thing that the scholars kept in these ghettos were records of their events, which allowed people in the future to know of what was going on in these hostile environments.

By 1942, the Nazi's were not satisfied with the rate that the non-Aryans were either leaving or "dying" out. In January 1942, a group of Nazi leaders met in Wannsee, a rather nice Berlin suburb, to plan what they called the "Final Solution." This plan was to implement genocide, the systematic killing of an entire people. Hitler believed that his plan of conquest depends on the purity of the Aryan race.

The **"Final Solution"** was simple. Non-Aryans would be rounded up and put on trains, and sent off to one of a network of special extermination camps in Poland, where they would be gassed. The most notorious camp was the Nazis largest, Auschwitz. Upon arrival, a committee of SS doctors would evaluate you, and with a wave of the hand determine if your strong to work the camp or too weak and will be killed that day. If determined as weak, you would undress for a shower and be led into a chamber with fake showerheads. After the doors close, cyanide gas would released through the showerheads and all inside would be killed. Later to prevent the spread of disease from the dead bodies, Nazis installed crematoriums to burn the bodies.

It was estimated that about 6 million Jews died in these death camps and other forms of Nazi massacres. Besides Jews, another additional 3-5 million "non-Aryans" would too be killed. This included Slavs, gypsies, homosexuals, blacks, the political left, and the disabled and mentally ill. In other words, no one was safe from the brutal massacres.(4)

Gallery 5.1 *Images of the Holocaust*

Hungarian Jews being sent to Auschwitz

"Selection Birkenau ramp" by Here from Yad Vashem's Auschwitz Album.. Via Wikipedia - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Selection_Birkenau_ramp.jpg#mediaviewer/File:Selection_Birkenau_ramp.jpg

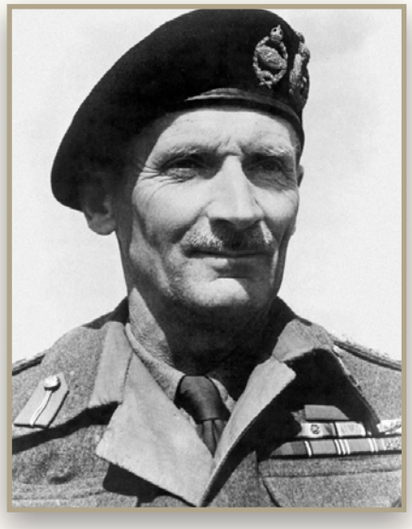
Section 2 Review

1. Click **here** to read the personal accounts of people subjected to the horrors of the Holocaust. Summarize their experiences and give your opinion of what you read.
2. Read the story of Kristallnacht. How did this event lead to the Holocaust?
3. Why was Joseph Goebbels important for the Nazi policy toward the Jewish population?
4. What was the Final Solution?
5. What is the legacy of the Holocaust?

It is Time for the Allies to Win!

In 1942, the allied leaders, Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin, met at **Yalta** to discuss how to win this war, and what should happen afterwards. The strategy was to strike North Africa first and then Italy. This angered Stalin, who felt that the western allies were purposely holding back from invading Western Europe.

Trouble for the Desert Fox!



In response to General Rommel's takeover of the British controlled port city of Tobruk, Great Britain sent **General Bernard Montgomery** to take control of British operations in North Africa. By the time of General Montgomery's arrival, the Nazis were already in the Egyptian city called El Alamein. With the Germans in complete control of the city, Montgomery's only choice was to launch a full frontal attack. On the night of October 23, 1942, about 1,000 British guns attacked the German defenses by surprise. The Germans held their own, until the forces failed on November 4 and General Rommel ordered his forces to drop back.

As Rommel retreated, over 100,000 allied troops, mostly Americans, launched Operation Torch. American general

Dwight Eisenhower led this force to crush Rommel and take complete control of the North African situation. Caught between Montgomery's and Eisenhower's armies, Rommel's Afrika Korps was finally defeated in May 1943.(1)

You Shouldn't Have Made Stalin Mad!

As the Germans suffered a major defeat in North Africa, they will also meet their doom in the Soviet Union. In the summer of 1942, Hitler ordered his army led by General Friedrich Paulus to capture the oil fields of the Caucasus Mountains and the city of **Stalingrad.**

On August 23, 1942, the Luftwaffe went on nightly bombing raids and reduced much of the city into rubble. By November of that year, the Germans controlled about 90 percent of the ruined city. As the Russian winter set in, the Soviet armies launched a counterattack and cut off all the German supplies. General Paulus plead with Hitler to allow a retreat, by Hitler never gave such an order. It was a matter of time when in February 1943, 90,000 frostbitten German troops surrendered to the Soviets, leaving the eastern front defenseless to a Soviet invasion into Germany.(1)

Bye Bye Il Duce!

If things for Germany could not get any worse in 1943, Germany's biggest ally Italy was about to fall. On July 10, 1943, Allied forces landed on the island of Sicily. As a result, King Victor Emmanuel III had the dictator Mussolini arrested. On September 3, Italy surrendered. However, the Germans were successful in securing northern Italy and giving Mussolini one last chance to save his country. This would not be successful and on June 4, 1944, the Allies arrived to Rome. There would still be fighting in Italy until Germany surrenders in 1945. About a year after the Allies secured Rome, a group of Italian resistance fighters ambushed a German truck near Milan. To their surprise, they discovered the once powerful leader Mussolini disguised as a German soldier trying to escape Italy. The next day Mussolini was shot and hung over a gasoline sign in Milan.(2)

Get Berlin!

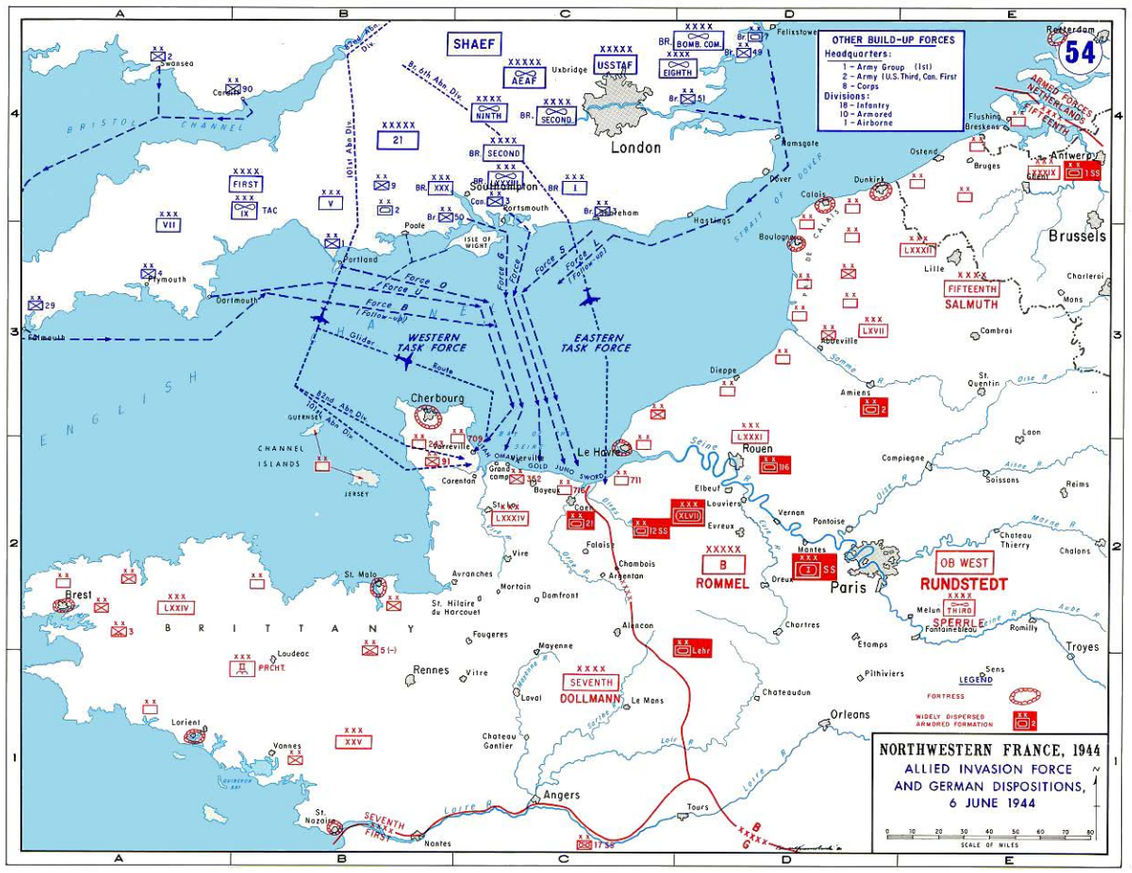
As the Allies were dealing with many issues both on the home front and this war, since 1943, they have been secretly building an invasion force in Great Britain. The objective was to invade German occupied France.

By the summer of 1944, the invasion was ready. A military force of more than 3 million allied soldiers was to be led by

General Dwight. D Eisenhower across the English Channel and strike the northern beaches of France called Normandy. The Germans knew of an attack coming. To keep the Germans honest, the Allies set up a huge dummy army to appear as if they were going to attack the French seaport of Calais.

On **June 6, 1944** the Allied invasion code-named **Operation Overlord** commenced. This was the largest land and sea invasion in all of history. Also known as **D-Day**, American, Canadian, French, and British troops fought their way onto a 60 mile stretch of beaches. The Germans had secured their defenses behind three feet thick cement bunkers and created hazardous conditions to make it as difficult as possible to secure the beachheads, enemy shoreline captured just before invading forces move inland. Despite the heavy casualties, over 2,700 Americans just in the first day alone, the Allies secured the beachheads. Within a month, an additional 1 million troops arrived and on July 25, the Allies successfully punched a hole in the German defenses near the city of Saint-Lo. This successful penetration of German defenses was thanks to the United States Third Army led by General George Patton. A month later, the Allies marched triumphantly into Paris and by September the Allies liberated France, Luxembourg, and Belgium. Next on the menu was the main course, Germany.(3)

As the Allied forces were moving towards Berlin from the west, the Soviets were making their way from the east. Germany was now facing a two front war, and in a desperate gamble, Hitler ordered a counterattack in the west. Hitler hoped that his army could split the American and British forces and cut off their supply line. On December 16, German tanks rolled through a 75 mile American front in the Ardennes. The Allies gave this campaign the name the Battle of the Bulge. Although the Allies were cut off guard, they eventually pushed back the German forces. This time for Hitler, there were no reinforcements available.(4)


SHAEF
OTHER BUILD-UP FORCES
Headquarters:
1 – Army Group (1st)
2 – Army (U.S. Third, Can. First
8 – Corps
Divisions:
16 – Infantry
10 – Armored
1 – Airborne
London
Cherbourg
Le Havre
Rouen
Paris
Brussels
Antwerp
Rotterdam
Amiens
Dieppe
Calais
Dunkirk
Ostend
Bruges
Boulogne
Dover
Ramsgate
Hastings
Portsmouth
Southampton
Poole
Portland
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Falmouth
Swansea
Uxbridge
Felixstowe
Flushing
Bressken
Lille
Abbeville
Compiegne
Soissons
Reims
Laon
St. Quentin
Cambrai
Mons
Charleroi
Chateau Thierry
Chalons
Troyes
Romilly
Melun
Fontainebleau
Etampes
Chartres
Dreux
Evreux
Louviers
Elbeuf
Pontoise
Vernon
Falaise
Vire
Avranches
Mortain
Domfront
St. Malo
Brest
Carentan
Bayeux
Grandcamp
Isigny
Trevieres
Montebourg
Barneville
Coutances
Granville
Jersey
Guernsey
Alencon
Argentan
Chambois
Mayenne
Fougeres
Rennes
Vitre
Loudeac
Lorient
Vannes
Chateau Gontier
Le Mans
Laval
Chateaudun
Pithiviers
Orleans
Etampes
Sens
Tours
Angers
St. Nazaire
Nantes
Lehr
Aunay
Falaise
Caen
Bayeux
Isigny
Carentan
Cherbourg
Barneville
Coutances
Granville
Avranches
Mortain
Domfront
Vire
Falaise
Chambois
Argentan
Alencon

Devastation in Europe

After six long years, Europe was in ruins. Close to 40 million Europeans had died, and two thirds of them were civilians. While certain cities were left undamaged like Paris and Rome, other cities like London and Warsaw were in ruins. In 1939, Warsaw had a population of around 1.3 million, and by 1945 it was reduced to 153,000! Many people were displaced and wondered throughout the European landscape years after the end of the war.(1)

With destruction of this nature, it was no surprise that despairing Europeans often blamed their governments for the war and its aftermath. When people become desperate, they will drink the sand and convince themselves that it is water. After the war, the Communist Party promised change, and millions of people were ready to listen. The communists made huge gains in the first postwar elections in countries like France and Italy. To accelerate these political takeovers, the communists staged violent strikes. Alarmed French and Italians reacted by voting anti-communist parties. As the economies of these countries recovered, the popularity of the communist party declined.(1)

While countries were struggling to recover both politically and economically, they too wanted to deal with the major war crimes committed by the Axis powers. During 1945 and 1946, an International Military Tribunal would host trials for war crimes in Nuremberg Germany. These **Nuremberg Trials** would lead to 22 Nazi leaders to be found guilty of war crimes and "crimes against humanity." Many of these leaders already committed suicide prior to the trials, while others

later killed themselves to avoid be executed. The bodies of many of these executed leaders would be cremated in the same ovens as their victims at the concentration camp of Dachau.(2)

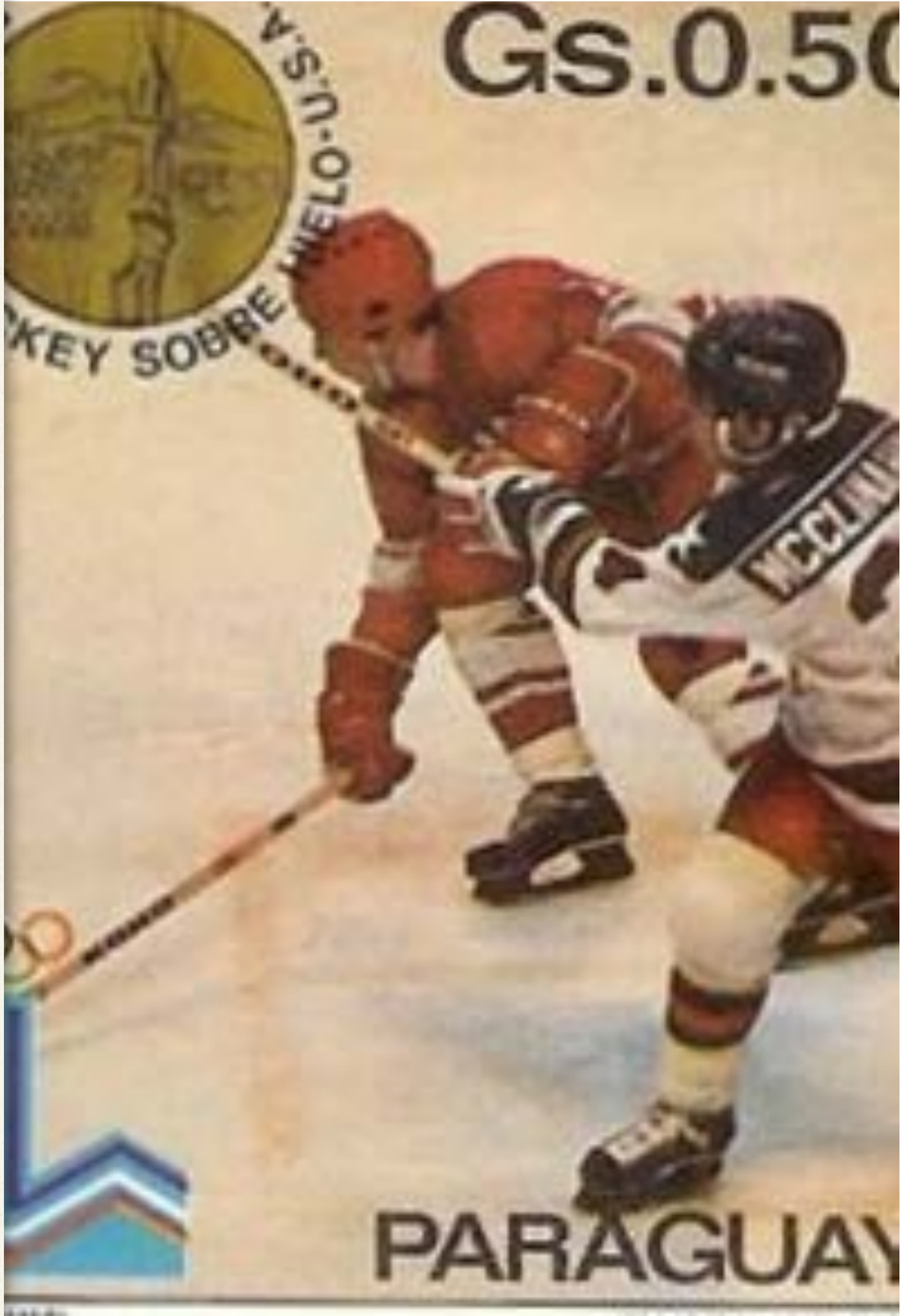
In the postwar world, enemies not only became allies, sometimes they became enemies. This would be true for the world's two major powers the United States and the Soviet Union. It soon became clear that the postwar goals for Europe were different between these countries. These differences would stir up conflicts that will shape the modern world for decades.

Section 4 Review

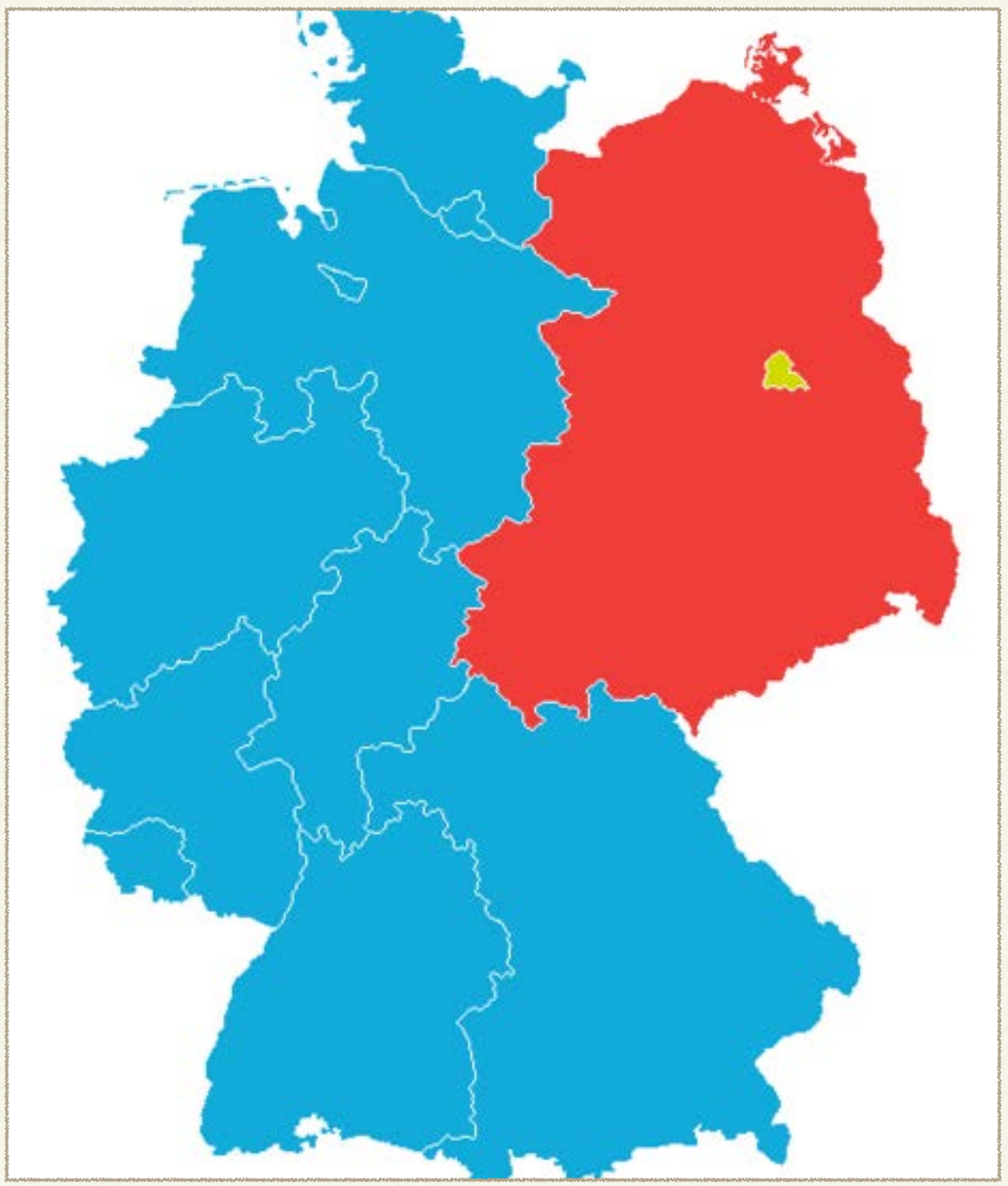
1. After reading this section and learning about the post war trials, where they justified and was justice served? Why or why not?

Chapter 6

THE COLD WAR



"TeamUSA1980 stamp" by uploaded by User:Eintracht4ever - [1] [2]. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:TeamUSA1980_stamp.png#/media/File:TeamUSA1980_stamp.png



"Deutschland Bundeslaender 1957". Licensed under CC BY-SA 3.0 via Wikimedia Commons - http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Deutschland_Bundeslaender_1957.png#/media/File:Deutschland_Bundeslaender_1957.png

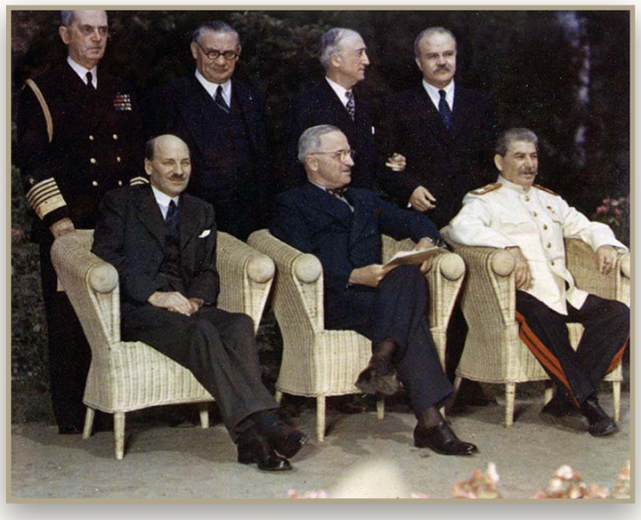
SECTION 1

A Little Germany for You & a Little Germany for Me

Even before WWII ended, postwar politics was already being decided. The Big Three, Stalin, Churchill, and Roosevelt, met in February 1945 at Yalta, to discuss the layout of postwar Europe. The parties agreed to the Declaration of Liberated Europe, which promised self-determination and free elections in Eastern Europe.

The Big Three also agreed to create the **United Nations** in hopes of resolving future security issues. This international organization of 48 nations was based in New York. The UN established a large body called the General Assembly, where each UN

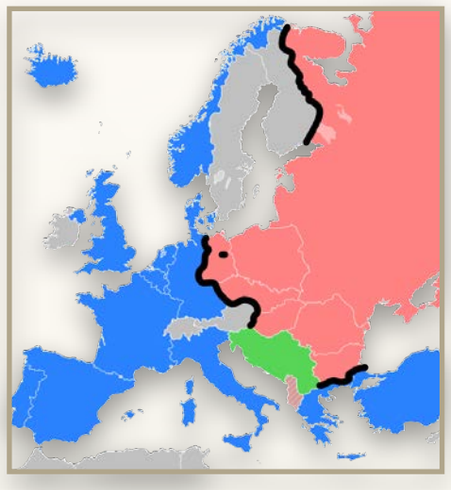
nation can cast its vote on a broad range of issues. There was also an 11 member body called the Security Council, and had the power to investigate and settle disputes. Its five permanent members were the United States, Britain, France, China, and the Soviet Union. This was in place to give these countries the power to veto and prevent any members of the Council from voting as a bloc to override the others.



The next time the Allies will meet is in July 1945 at **Potsdam**. During the interim, Roosevelt died and his successor, Harry Truman, proved more suspicious of Stalin's intentions. Great Britain also voted labor leader **Clement Attlee** into office as prime minister, replacing Churchill. The Allies agreed to host war crime trials of top Nazi leaders at Nuremberg, and divide Germany into four occupation zones. The four zones were divided by giving the north to Britain, the south to the United States, a small part along the Rhine to the French, and the whole eastern half of Germany to the Soviet Union. The capital city of Berlin, located in the Soviet controlled zone, was also divided amongst the four countries. (1)

Despite the positive progression of post war recovery, the goals between the United States and Soviet Union were quite different and will lead to tension between the western and eastern worlds. A major goal for the Soviet Union was to shield itself from another invasion from the west. Following the conclusion of WWII, the Soviet Union ignored its promises at Yalta and installed Communist governments in Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia. President Truman at the Potsdam meetings pressed Stalin to permit free elections in Eastern Europe. Not only did Stalin refuse, in his 1946 speech, Stalin declared that communism and capitalism could not exist in the same world.

Europe now lay divided between West and East. Germany was too divided into two separate controlled sections. These sectors were the democratic world in control of the West and the soviet communist world in control of the East. Due to this divided Europe, on March 5, 1946, Winston Churchill explained this division in what became phrased his **"Iron Curtain"** speech. Stalin felt that this speech was the beginnings of an act of war against the Soviet Union. (2)



As relations between the Western and Eastern Bloc worsen by 1947, President Truman had to create a new strategy in handling the Soviet Union. He would call upon the expertise of a former diplomat and historian named **George Kennan** to help develop this strategy. The strategy developed was called **containment.** The idea was to employ a variety of techniques to halt the spread of communism throughout the world. The interesting question is how to do this without going to war?

The Truman Show

In 1947, a civil war between the communists and their opponents raged in the countries of Turkey and Greece. The British were fighting to keep the countries out of communist hands. When this got too hard, Great Britain called for the United States to take over. This was president Truman's opportunity to use his policy of containment. In a speech to Congress, he explains the importance of U.S. involvement, and asks to send foreign aid to these two countries. Congress authorized around $400 million in aid to Turkey and Greece. This policy would later be called the **Truman Doctrine;** the U.S. would help any country in the world trying to resists communism.

At the end of WWII, the United States dominated the world economy. Around 80% of the world's trade passed through American hands, and 50% of the world's productive capacity was American. The U.S. stood in a unique position of helping to rebuild the world economy, which it wished to do by promoting a free capitalist market. In 1947, **U.S. Secretary of State George Marshall** proposed a program named after him, the **Marshall Plan.** This plan would provide $12.5 billion of aid to European countries who needed it. It was so successful, that even communist controlled Yugoslavia broke away from Soviet domination in 1948. (1)

Time to Sort This Mess Out in Germany

While Europe was beginning to rebuild, tension between the Allied countries over Germany was brewing. Concerned over the economic conditions of Germany and Soviet reparations policies, the U.S., Britain, and France merged their zones and introduced a new currency called the Deutschmark. In response to this merger, the Soviets imposed a Berlin blockade, cutting the western part of the city off from rail and auto traffic, threatening to "starve it out." Rather than confronting the Soviets with force, President Truman authorized a **Berlin Airlift.** For the next 11 months, Allied planes would fly over the blockade and parachute supplies to the West Berliners. In May 1949, the Soviets lifted the blockade and admitted defeat. (1)

So I Guess this is a Cold War?

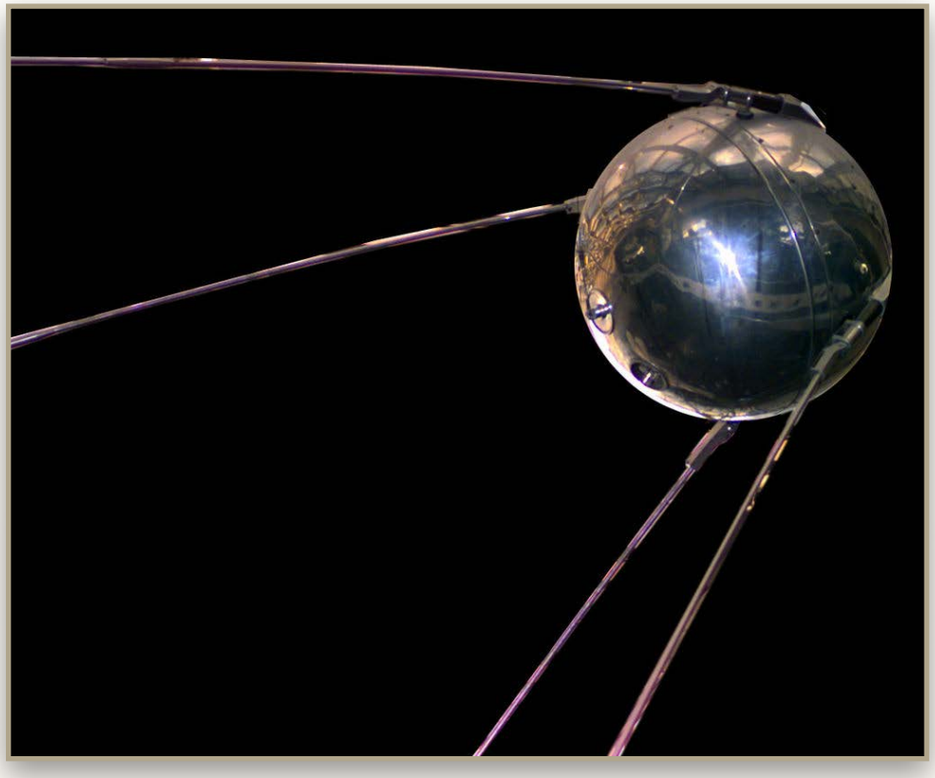
These conflicts marked the beginning of a Cold War between the communist East and capitalist West. A Cold War describes the atmosphere of icy suspicion and distrust on each side. Luckily, both sides were able to keep their "cool," since both sides were armed with the latest nuclear weapons. However, it never hurts to play it safe and form alliances with other countries to protect you from the other side's aggressions. As a result, in 1949, the United States and nine other countries entered into its first peacetime alliance called the **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)**. When the West rearmed Germany in 1955, the Soviets responded with their own form of peacetime alliance called the **Warsaw Pact.**

As these peacetime alliance were forming, the Cold War threaten to heat up enough to destroy the world. The U.S. already had atomic bombs, but the Soviets successfully exploded their own in 1949. President Truman was determined to make sure that his country had the more superior bomb. In 1950, the president authorized the production of thermonuclear weapons. By 1952, the United States accomplished its goal by testing an **H-bomb (Hydrogen)**. The H-bomb's power came from the atomic collision of atoms called fusion, rather than what the A-bomb did which was fission, the splitting of atoms. The Soviets will eventually catch up with their successful test of an H-bomb in 1953.

If tensions between the sides couldn't get any worse, it did with the election of new U.S. president **Dwight D. Eisenhower** in 1953. President Eisenhower quickly appointed firm anti-communist John Foster Dulles as his secretary of state. Together they created a policy called **brinkmanship**, if the Soviet Union attacked U.S. interests they would "retaliate instantly." This would lead both sides to build up their militaries and nuclear stockpile, which went on for four decades.

With an arms race going on between the United States and Soviet Union, it led both sides to compete in other sectors like science and education. In 1957, the Soviets scored first with their announcement that they have developed a rocket that could travel great distances called an **Intercontinental Ballistic Missile (ICBM**). In October of that year, they used an ICBM to push the first unmanned satellite into orbit

called **Sputnik.** Americans felt that they have fallen behind in science and technology, and the government poured money into science education. In 1958, the U.S. launched its own satellite called **Explorer.**



In 1960, the skies would again be an open arena between the sides. Five years earlier, President Eisenhower had proposed an "open skies" policy which would allow both the U.S. and Soviet Union to protect their people from any surprise nuclear attack. The Soviet Union would reject this proposal, but it would not stop the Central Intelligence Agency from having unauthorized flights over Soviet territories. This would blow up in their face in May 1960, when the Soviets shot down a **U-2 spy plane** flown by American pilot **Francis Gary Powers.** Powers would be detained for only nine months, but the U-2 incident will heightened Cold War tensions. (2)

Section 1 Review

1. Identify the following: United Nations, Potsdam Conference, Clement Atltee, Iron Curtain, Explorer, H-Bomb, U-2 Spy Plan Incident.
2. Identify the following based on the outside links; Containment, Truman Doctrine, Marshall Plan, Berlin Airlift, NATO, Warsaw Pact, Brinkmanship, Sputnik.

The Cold War Thaws

In 1953 Stalin died, and three years later the Soviet Union was under the direction of **Nikita Khrushchev**. Khrushchev gave a "secret speech" to the 20th Party Congress of the Communist Party condemning Stalin for jailing and killing loyal Soviet citizens. As a result, Khrushchev started a policy of **de-Stalinization**, or purging the memories of the former dictator, and suggested the possibility of "peaceful coexistence" between the capitalist West and communism.

The world sat up; did this admission of Stalin's crimes mean that they were about to see a new caring, sharing Soviet Union? In Hungary, liberal communist leader named **Imre Nagy** promised to introduce free elections and free press. What became the "last straw" was when Nagy was going to pull Hungary out of the Warsaw Pact. The result was Khrushchev sending a Soviet army to crush the revolt, install a pro-communist government, and eventually execute Nagy. I guess not.

Despite the show of force in Hungary, Khrushchev lost prestige in his country as a result of the **Cuban Missile Crisis** in 1962. Party leaders in 1964 voted to remove him from power and replace him with **Leonid Brezhnev**. Brezhnev quickly adopted repressive domestic policies like limiting basic human rights. He also made clear that would not tolerate dissent in Eastern Europe either. He was put to the test in Czechoslovakia in 1968. At the time, Czech Communist leader **Alexander Dubeck** loosed control of censorship and wanted to give socialism a "human face." These events known as the **"Prague Spring"** led armed forces from the

Warsaw Pact to invade **Czechoslovakia** and crush this reform movement. Brezhnev justified the invasion by announcing the **Brezhnev Doctrine**, whereby a perceived threat to socialism in one nation is taken as a threat to socialism everywhere. (1)

From Let's Bomb Each other To Let's Be Friends

In the 1970s, the United States and Soviet Union finally began to back away from their aggressive policies of brinkmanship to lowering tensions.

In 1960, the U-2 spy plane incident prevented the U.S. and Soviet Union from meeting. Then, under the John F. Kennedy administration, the Cuban Missile Crisis made the use of nuclear weapons a huge possibility. After the assassination of JFK in 1963, Lyndon Johnson assumed the presidency and committed to stopping the spread of communism by entering the Vietnam War. So as you can see, the 1960s was not the time for either side to lower their guard. (2)

As the French Would Say "Chill Out!"

Widespread protests against the Vietnam War led to the U.S. withdrawal from the war. To heal the countries wounds, the U.S. backed away from their policies of direct confrontation with the Soviet Union and began to practice detente, in French means easing of tensions. This policy will replace brinkmanship starting under the presidency of **Richard M. Nixon.**

The policy grew out of a philosophy known as realpolitik, in German means "realistic politics." The goal is to deal with nations in a practical and flexible manner. Though the U.S. continued to work on containing the spread of communism, both sides did begin pursuing **detente.** What better way to practice detente but by visiting your enemies country? That is exactly what President Nixon did in February 1972, and became the first U.S. president to visit Communist China. Three months later he visited the Soviet Union. There after a series of meetings called the **Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT)**, Nixon and Brezhnev signed the SALT I treaty. This five year treaty that began in 1972, limited the number of ICBM and submarine missiles each country can have. In 1975, 33 nations will also join the U.S. and Soviet Union in signing a commitment to detente called the Helsinki Accords. (1)

Well at Least we Tried

Under the presidency of Richard Nixon and Gerald Ford, the U.S. improved relations with China and the Soviet Union. However, in the late 1970s, President Jimmy Carter was concerned about the treatment of protesters in the Soviet Union. This jeopardized the possibility of a second round of SALT negotiations. In 1979, Carter and Brezhnev finally signed the SALT II treaty. Unfortunately, the Soviets could not control themselves and decided to invade **Afghanistan** later that year, resulting in the U.S. congress refusing to ratify the treaty. As this was going on, China and India were beginning to build their nuclear arsenals. (1)

In 1981, an anti-Communist U.S. president Ronald Reagan took office. He increased defense spending, putting military and economic pressure on the Soviets, and eliminating anything that was left of detente. In 1983, Reagan announced his **Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI)** or as it became known Star Wars, a program to protect against enemy missiles. Though the program never took off, it remained as a symbol of U.S. anti-Communist sentiment. (1)

Though detente was disappearing between the United States and the Soviet Union, the thawing out process will continue due to the self-destruction of the Soviet Union.

Interactive 6.1 Star Wars

Click on the Image to learn more about the SDI program

Section 2 Review

1. Identify the following people: Nikita Khrushchev, Imre Nagy, Leonid Brezhnev, Alexander Dubcheck.
2. How did each of the U.S. Presidents deal with communism?
3. What was the Cuban Missile Crisis and the Prague Spring?
4. Watch the video on Star Wars and describe what you saw.

Chapter 7

THE FALL OF THE SOVIET UNION

"Coat of arms of the Soviet Union" by Madden, reworked by F l a n k e r - Own work from Image:Soviet Hammer and Sickle and Earth.svg and Image:Soviet coat of arms.svg. It was then corrected and is believed to be close to official version, for example, one from the 3rd ed. of the Great Soviet Encyclopedia, available online here. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Coat_of_arms_of_the_Soviet_Union.svg#/media/File:Coat_of_arms_of_the_Soviet_Union.svg

The Fall

Leonid Brezhnev and the **Politburo**, ruling committee of the Communist Party, crushed all political disagreements. After Brezhnev's death in 1982, the Communist Party began to age and struggle to maintain a hold on power. The Politburo had to try to find a way to make the Communist Party younger and they did in selecting **Mikhail Gorbachev** as the party's new general secretary. The thing that the Politburo did not realize is that by selecting the 54 year old leader, that it would unleash another Russian Revolution.

Gorbachev recognized the problems within both the Soviet economy and social life. He hoped to save the Soviet system by creating *"socialism with a human face."* To begin this process, in 1985 he announces a policy called **glasnost**, or openness. This policy made remarkable changes. The government allowed churches to open, released dissidents from prison, and allows publication of books by previous banned authors.

What glasnost also did is allow Soviet citizens to complain about the economic problems. This lead to the centerpiece of Gorbachev's reforms called **perestroika**, or restructuring, of the centrally planned Soviet economy. Gorbachev wished to promote production of more consumer goods and to decentralize control of the inefficient state-owned enterprise. This policy was not to throw out communism, but to make the economy system more efficient and productive.

Gorbachev also knew that for the economy to improve, the Communist Party would have loosened up their control on Soviet society and politics. In 1987, he announced a third policy called democratization, calling for new elections of a legislative body. In the past the Communist Party would handpick candidates for people to vote on. Now the voters can choose which surprisingly led to the voting of lesser-known candidates over powerful party bosses. (1)

Now that Gorbachev tackled his domestic issues, well at least he thought so; he now wanted to entertain the foreign policies. The military build-ups between Gorbachev and U.S. President Ronald Reagan were so expensive that the Soviets could not financially compete with the U.S. $2 trillion spending! Gorbachev made it his top priority to control this arms race. In 1987, the two sides signed the **Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty (INF)**. This treaty banned nuclear missiles with ranges of 300 and 3,400 miles. (2)

Interactive 7.1 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn more about the Gorbachev era.

Poland and East Germany Reform

The aging Communist rulers of Europe resisted reform. However, powerful forces for democracy were building in many countries. Gorbachev made clear that the Soviet Union would not oppose democratic reform.

Poland was the first country in Eastern Europe to embrace the spirit of change. Unique in a communist nation, workers founded an independent labor union called **Solidarity,** led by a militant shipyard worker **Lech Walesa**, which soon boasted a membership of 10 million workers. Emboldened by the Catholic Church, and a newly elected Polish pope, John Paul II, workers demonstrated for free elections and to share in government. Fearing Soviet intervention, a new communist leader General Wojciech Jaruzelski declared martial law in 1981. The Communist Party discovered that military rule could not revive the Polish economy, leading to the country's foreign debt rising to more than $40 billion.

In August 1988, defiant workers walked off their jobs. They demanded raises and the legalization of Solidarity. In 1989, Jaruzelski legalized Solidarity, and agreed to hold Poland's first free election. The result was the voters voted against Communists and chose Solidarity candidate Lech Walesa as president. (3)

While Poland was moving toward reform, the aged and increasingly out of touch **Erich Honecker** ruled East Germany strictly with the aid of the state police, the Stasi. In 1989, Hungary allowed vacationing East Germans to cross into Austria borders, defecting from East Germany. In response, the East German government closed its borders. By October 1989, huge demonstrations had broken out all over

East Germany. The new East German leader, Egon Krenz, gambled that he could restore stability by allowing people to leave East Germany. On November 9, 1989 he opened the **Berlin Wall.** Krenz's gamble will not save communism, and by the end of 1989, the East German Communist Party had ceased to exist. (4)

Momentum became unstoppable toward the unification of Germany. With the approval of the four WWII allied powers, including the Soviet Union, Germany was reunified in October 3, 1990 under the leadership of West German chancellor, **Helmut Kohl**. Chancellor Kohl will now have to deal with the serious problems of what 40 years of Communist rule did for East Germany. It left this part of Germany in ruins. This will not be the last Communist controlled country to also run into similar problems.

Section 1 Review

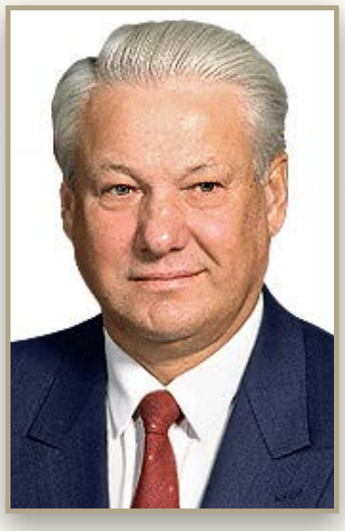
1. How did Mikhail Gorbachev inspire another "Russian Revolution"? What were his new programs that contributed to it?
2. What was the Solidarity movement?
3. What was the significance of the Berlin Wall coming down? Make sure to watch the news report.

The Fall Continued

The Soviet Union Faces Trouble

Gorbachev's policies were never created with the intention to remove communism. However, due to his policies, he pushed the first domino that will lead to the collapse of the Soviet Union.

The first challenge came from the Baltic nation of Lithuania. In March 1990, Lithuania declares independence from the Soviet Union. Gorbachev feared that if Lithuania does secede that other republics would do the same. In January 1991, Soviet troops attacked unarmed citizens in Lithuania's capital. The army killed 14 and wounded hundreds. There goes giving the Soviet Union a "human face."



The attacks against Lithuania and the lack of economic progress led to the damaging of Gorbachev's popularity. People began to look for new leadership in former mayor of Moscow **Boris Yeltsin**.

In June 1991, voters chose Yeltsin to become the Russian Federation's first directly elected president. (1)

In spite of the rivalry between Gorbachev and Yeltsin, they both had a common enemy in the old guard of Communist officials. These "old-school" hard lining communists were outraged at how Gorbachev allowed the Soviet Union's control of Eastern Europe dissipate and vowed to remove Gorbachev from power and undo his reforms.

On August 18, 1991, the hardliners detained Gorbachev and sent an army to get Yeltsin in Moscow. The **August Coup** failed miserably due to lack of planning, popular resistance, and the leadership of Yeltsin whom stood on those tanks in Moscow and declared that the Communist Party was outlawed and the Russian Federation voted the Soviet Union out of existence. On August 21, the military withdrew its forces from Moscow and Gorbachev returned to Moscow. (2)

Thanks USSR for All Those Terrifying Memories!

On Christmas Day 1991, Gorbachev announces his resignation as president of the Soviet Union. Following the collapse of the USSR, 12 republics agreed to form a loose Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). Yeltsin being the most powerful figure of the CIS, now faces the problem of dealing with both domestic and foreign affairs.

Yeltsin's first goal was to reform the economy in Russia. He adopted a plan known as **"shock therapy,"** an abrupt shift to a free market. Yeltsin lowered trade barriers, removed price controls, and ended state-owned industries. This policy did definitely shock the economy, leading to an 800 percent inflation rate in 1994! This led to a shutdown of many factories, leaving many unemployed. (1)

Ethnic Conflicts Plagued Yugoslavia

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, it led to other Eastern European countries to find begin dealing with their own serious issues. The country of Yugoslavia, formed after WWI, had eight major ethnic groups. Ethnic and religious differences dating back centuries caused these groups to view one another with suspicion. After WWII, Yugoslavia became a federation of six republics, with each having a mixed population.

Josip Tito, who led Yugoslavia from 1945 to 1980, held the country together. After Tito's death, Serbian leader **Slobodan Milosevic** asserted leadership over Yugoslavia. Many Serbs opposed Milosevic and his policies.

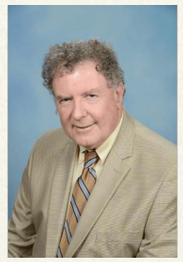
In 1992, Bosnia-Herzegovina, which was a mixed area of Serbs, Croats, and Muslims declared independence. The Serbs retaliated with what they called **ethnic cleansing**. This policy was intended to rid Bosnia of its Muslim population. Leaders of the three fractions involved signed a United Nation and U.S. broker peace treaty. In 1996, Bosnians elected a three person presidency, one leader from each of the ethnic groups. Talk about a mess that the Soviets left behind! (3)

Click here to learn more about the genocide in Bosnia.

Section 2 Review

1. What was the August Coup?
2. What is the importance of Boris Yeltsin?
3. What is shock therapy?
4. Read about the problems in Bosnia and describe its importance.

Interactive 7.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom (Review)



Click on the image to learn more about Post World War II Europe

Chapter 8

ANCIENT GREECE

Interactive 8.1 Ancient Greece

Click on the image to view the Greece trailer

SECTION 1

Ancient Greece

Geography Shapes Ancient Development of Greece

Interactive 8.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn more about how geography affected Ancient Greece.

Greece is made up of an archipelago of hundreds of islands and narrow peninsulas. The three seas that surround this peninsula are the Ionian, Black, and Aegean Seas. Due to the lack of natural resources available to these people, they relied heavily on the

sea as a source of life. Another reason why the sea was so important was because about 75% of the peninsula is covered with mountains which made it difficult for cities to work together. Rather, the mountains were a natural barrier between towns, leaving each community to be self-sufficient.

Who Were the First Greek Settlers?

The first well known civilization in Europe was known as the **Minoans**, who arose during a Bronze Age from the island of Crete. We know about these people from Crete thanks to English archaeologist Sir Arthur Evans. In 1894, he went to Crete to look for evidence of the story of the Theseus and the Minotaur. Evans instead discovered a huge complex palace called Knossos, which seemed to be the center of a sophisticated civilization. Some believe that this city is behind the legends of Atlantis. Philosopher Plato wrote of a thriving civilization called Atlantis that sank beneath the sea, he may have had the Minoans in mind.

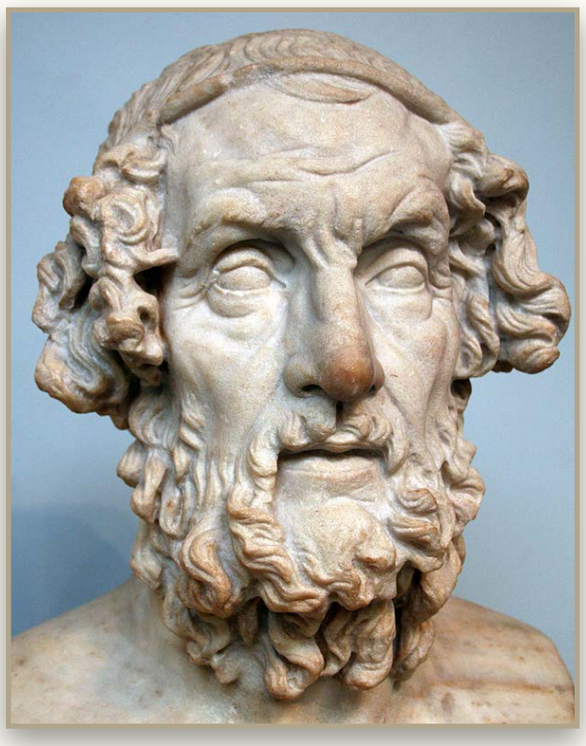
The Minoans would eventually be replaced by another southern Greek civilization called the **Mycenaeans**, named after their city of origin Mycenae. Unlike the Minoans, whose society benefited from trade, the Mycenaeans advanced through conquest. The Mycenaeans were ruled by a warrior aristocracy, which even the city of Mycenae demonstrated this characteristic with their 20 feet thick protective walls. Sometime around 1500 B.C., the Mycenaeans made their way to the island of Crete, center of Minoan civilization, and adopted a form of Minoan script to write their earlier form of Greek. (1)

During the 1200 B.C., the Mycenaeans fought a ten year war called the **Trojan War.** This war was fought against Troy, an independent trading city located in Anatolia. According to legend, the war was fought because a Trojan prince had kidnapped Helen, the beautiful wife of a Greek king. For years, many believed that the story was totally fictional. However, in the 1870s, German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann suggested that his findings could have been based on a real city, people, and events. Though the nature of the Trojan War remains unclear, what was clear is that this attack on Troy was one of the last major campaigns for the Mycenaeans. (2)

The Dreadful Dorian Age

The Mycenaean civilization collapsed around 1200 B.C. and with it the Bronze Age. Much of this collapse was contributed to sea raiders and a new group called the **Dorians,** who made themselves at home. The Dorians did speak a dialect of Greek but were far less advanced than the Mycenaeans, resulting in a dark age which no written record exists from the 400 year period between 1150-750 B.C. (2)

Due to lack of writing, the Greeks of this time had to rely on the spoken word to learn about their history. According to legend, a blind storyteller called **Homer** would be responsible to composing his **epics**, narrative poems celebrating heroic deeds like the ***Iliad*** and the ***Oydessey*.** The stories of the Iliad would be about the Trojan War and the battle between Greek warrior Achilles and Hector of Troy.



With stories like these it's no wonder that the Greeks developed a rich set of myths, or traditional stories about their gods. The works of Homer and other storytellers were the source of much of Greek mythology. Through myths, Greeks sought to understand nature and the power of human passions, like for example the changing of the seasons.

Greeks attributed human qualities to their gods, making the stories of these gods more relatable to the Greeks. However, these gods lived forever. **Zeus**, the ruler of the gods, lived on **Mount Olympus** with his wife Hera. Hera was always jealous of Zeus' relationships with other women. Zeus also had a daughter named Athena, goddess of wisdom, whom became the guardian of one of Greece's greatest cities Athens. (2)

Click here to learn all about the Greek Gods in 4 short minutes!

Section 1 Review

1. After reading Mr. Buckley's wisdom, how important was geography in the development of Greek civilization?
2. Explain the important of the first Greek civilizations?
3. What was the Trojan War?
4. Who was Homer and why was he important?
5. What was the important of Greek mythology?

The Polis

Living in a Polis State

As the Greeks began their exit from the Dorian Age around 750 B.C. they set up self-governing cities called a **polis,** or fundamental political unit in Greece. Most city-states controlled between 50 to 500 square miles of land and hosted fewer than 10,000 residents. What was consists between these city-states was where they conducted their political business. This would either be in the cities marketplace called the agora, or on a fortified hilltop called the **acropolis**.

Due to each polis having to be self-sufficient, each city-state had many different forms of government. These governments ranged from monarchies, one person rulers, to direct democracies. However occasionally due to repeated clashes between rulers and common people, powerful individuals could seize the power of government and form a **tyranny**. Unlike today, tyrants generally were not viewed as harsh and cruel. Rather, they were looked upon as leaders who would work for the interest of the people.

The most powerful city-states in Greece were **Athens** and **Sparta**. What is intriguing about these two city-states is that they were both equally successful, but completely different from one another. (1)

This is Sparta!

This powerful polis was located in the southern part of Greece called the Peloponnesus. Around 725 B.C. **Sparta** conquered a neighboring region of Messinia, making these

people **helots,** peasants forced to stay on the land that they worked. Around 650 B.C., the helots would revolt against the Spartans, outnumbering them 8 to 1. The Spartans barely put down the revolt and realizing their vulnerability, dedicated themselves to creating a strong city-state.

Spartan government was run by an **oligarchy**, power rested with a small number of people. This system had several branches, consisting of all Spartan citizens. The Council of Elders, made up of about 30 members, proposed laws by the assembly. These laws were carried out by 5 elected members called the ephors. These men also controlled both the educational and judicial sectors of the city-state. At the top of the system there were two kings who ruled over Sparta's military.

The social order was quite structured as it consisted of the original inhabitants who owned the land, non-citizens that were free and worked in commerce and industry, and the helots. The helots, at the bottom of Spartan society, were a little better than slaves, worked in the fields or as house servants.

By 600 B.C., Sparta had the most powerful military in all of Greece. However, it came at quite the cost. Spartans did not value any form of artistic and intellectual pursuits.

The men of Sparta were obligated to serve the military until the age of 60. Their daily lives were completely centered on military training. The boys were taken from their homes at the age of 7 and moved to army barracks. Their style of training was so rigorous that it produced tough, resourceful soldiers.

The women too led hardy lives. They received some military training, and performed in many athletic events. Like the boys, women were taught to put Sparta above all. Legend has said that Spartan women told their husband and sons going to war to "come back with your shield or on it." Women were highly respected by the men of the city-state, which surprised their rival city-state Athens. (1) (2)

Athens Builds a Demos Krotos

Like other city-states, Athens also went through power struggles between the rich and poor. In the beginning, the Athenians decided that for full rights, you had to be a native born citizen of Athens. If you were born elsewhere you were a metic and had few rights. Surprisingly for a place that will give birth to a direct democracy, women had no rights at all.

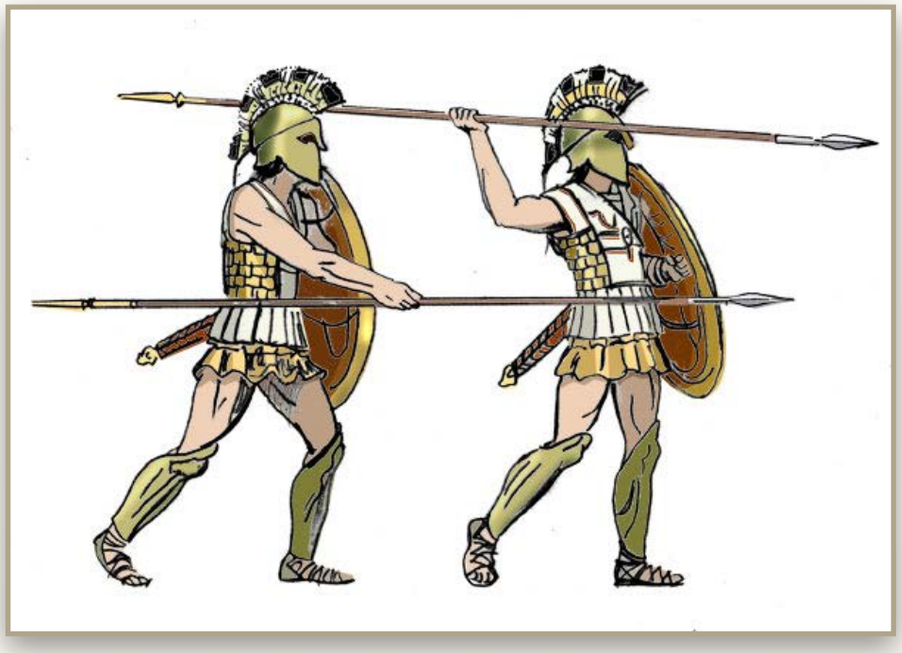
In time of war or emergency, all power was handed over to one called a tyrant. In 621 B.C., a nobleman named **Draco** took power of Athens. Once in power, he drew up a set of laws for Athens, so harsh that we still talk of 'draconian' laws today.

Luckily for Athens, a new ruler, **Solon** came to power in 594 B.C. Solon repealed Draco's laws and introduced a fairer system of government, which outlawed debt slavery. Though his system was fairer, Solon made enemies and was forced to leave Athens. Cue for a civil war, an Athenian aristocrat called Cleisthenes in 500 B.C., set up a new system called a **limited democracy.** He broke up the power of the nobility, increased the size of the assembly to allow all citizens to

submit laws, and created the Council of Five Hundred. This council proposed laws and counseled the assembly. (3)

The Persian Wars

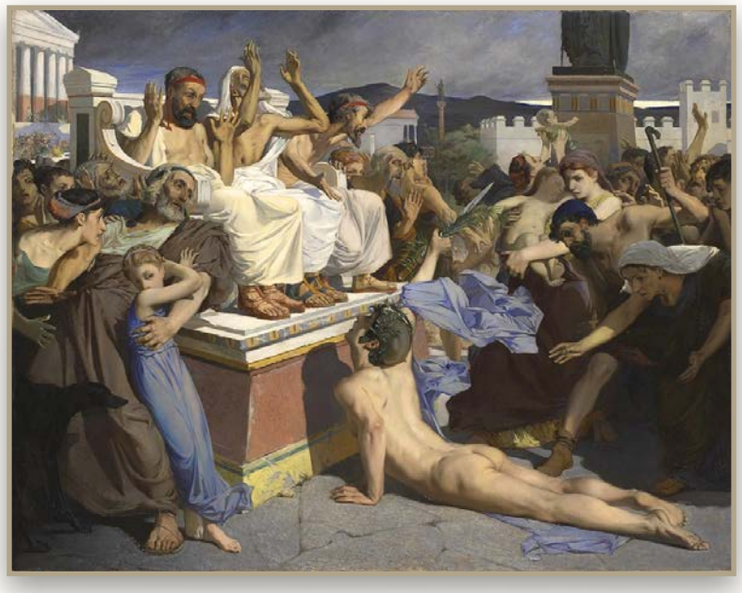
During the Dorian Age, only the rich could afford tools and weapons since they were made with bronze. Eventually bronze would be replaced with iron, and made it affordable for all citizens to acquire tools and weapons. Since all citizens were now armed, it led to advancements in military combat. A Greek foot soldier, or **hoplite**, would now stand side by side with fellow hoplites and form a formation called a **phalanx**. This fearsome formation became the most powerful fighting force in the ancient world.



This fearsome formation will be put to the test when Greece and the Persian Empire began a war in Ionia on the coast of Anatolia. The Greeks had long settled in this region but around 546 B.C., the Persians conquered the area. When the

Ionian Greeks revolted, Athens sent aid to support the rebellion. The Persians crushed the revolts and **Persian King Darius** decided that he wanted to teach these Greeks a lesson. In 490 B.C. Darius invaded the Greek mainland and the Persian War had begun. (1)

The Persians arrived with over 25,000 men north of Athens on the plains called **Marathon**. There over 10,000 Athenian hoplites awaited in their phalanx formation. Thanks to the professionalism of the highly discipline formation, the Persians were unexpectedly defeated. However, the city of Athens was left defenseless. A young Athenian runner named **Pheidippides** ran all the way to Athens with the news from Marathon and then dropped dead from exhaustion. The Persian navy arrived to find the city-state well defended and retreated back to the Persian Empire in defeat.



In 480 B.C., Persian King Xerxes led a massive invasion to avenge Marathon. In the beginning the Persian army had no trouble making their way down the eastern coastline of Greece. When Xerxes arrived to the narrow pass of Thermopylae, he was greeted by 7,000 Greek hoplites which included 300 Spartans. These Greek would block the pass and for three days until a traitor revealed a secret path around the hoplites, ending this brave stand. Once the Persians got past them, they took Athens, and burned the Acropolis. Themistocles, an Athenian leader, lured the Persians into a great sea battle off the island of Salamis. King Xerxes sat and watch a third of his entire fleet sink to the bottom of gulf thanks to the brilliant engineering of the Greek warship called a trireme.

As Xerxes suffered another defeat in 479 B.C. in the Battle of Plataea, the Greek states decided to stand together and form the Delian League against the Persians. The league would eventually drive the Persians from the territories of Greece and ended all future attacks. In the 470s, the league would grow to some 200 city states, and Athens emerged as the leader of the league. Moving forward Greece, in particular Athens would enter into a Golden Age. (1) (3)

Interactive 8.3 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn more about Athens & the Persian Wars

Section 2 Review

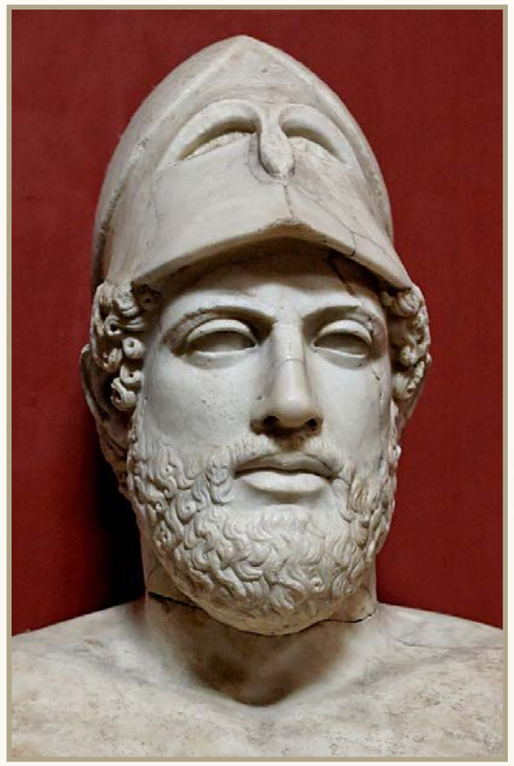
1. What is a Polis?
2. Compare and contrast Athens vs. Sparta.
3. What is the importance of Athenian Democracy?
4. Describe the Persian Wars.

The “Golden Age”

The "Golden Age" Under Pericles

From 480 to 404 B.C., Greece, but mostly the city-state of Athens experienced a time of growth in intellectual and artistic learning. This so called golden age will bring areas of drama, poetry, philosophy, and science to all new heights.

The so-called golden age of Athenian culture flourished under the leadership of **Pericles** (495-429 B.C.), a brilliant general, orator, patron of the arts and politician—”the first citizen” of democratic Athens, according to the historian Thucydides. Pericles transformed his city’s alliances into an empire and graced its Acropolis with the famous Parthenon. His policies and strategies also set the stage for the devastating Peloponnesian War, which would embroil all Greece in the decades following his death. (1)



Pericles had three goals under his 32 year leadership. **The first of these goals was to strengthen the Athenian democracy.** He wanted to increase the number of paid public officials so not just the wealthy Athenians could participate in government. Now that Athens has more citizens engaged in self-government, it introduced a direct democracy. This is a form of government in which citizens rule directly and not through representatives. (2)

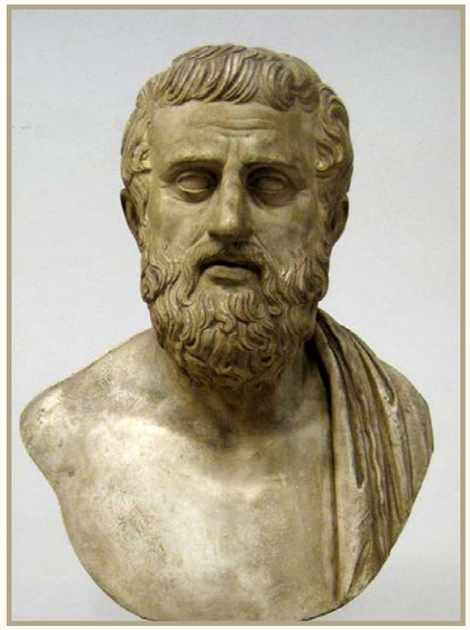
The second goal was to strengthen the empire. After the second Persian invasion of Greece in 479, Athens and its allies throughout the Aegean formed the Delian League, a military alliance focused on the Persian threat. Following a failed Athenian attack on the Persians in Egypt in 454, Athens’ leaders pushed to transfer the League’s treasury from Delos to Athens. Three years later, a coinage decree imposed Athenian weights and measures throughout the league. By

the time Pericles was elected **strategos**, the league was well on its way to becoming an Athenian empire. (1)

The final goal was to glorify Athens. During the 440s and 430s Pericles tapped the league's treasury to fund vast cultural projects in Athens, most notably a series of structures on the city's hilltop Acropolis: the temple of Athena Nike, the Erechtheion and the towering **Parthenon**. Built to the highest standards of aesthetics, engineering and mathematics, these white marble structures were decorated with intricate statues and friezes carved by the era's greatest sculptors. (1)

Pericles' social innovations were equally important to the era. He worked to democratize the fine arts by subsidizing theater admission for poorer citizens to allow them to see performances like tragedy and comedy. A tragedy was a serious drama about common themes such as love, hate, war or betrayal. On the other hand, comedy contained scenes filled with slapstick situations and crude humor. (1)

Pericles maintained close friendships with the leading intellects of his time. The playwright **Sophocles** and the sculptor Phidias were among his friends. Pericles' consort Aspasia, one of the best-known women of ancient Greece, taught rhetoric to the young philosopher Socrates. Pericles himself was a master orator. His speeches and elegies (as recorded and possibly interpreted by Thucydides) celebrate the greatness of a democratic Athens at its peak. (1)



All Good Things Come to an End - Peloponnesian War

As Athens grew in power under Pericles, Sparta felt more and more threatened and began to demand concessions from the Athenians. Pericles refused, and in 431 B.C. conflict between Athens and Sparta's ally Corinth pushed the Spartan king Archidamus II to invade Attica near Athens. Pericles

adopted a strategy that played to the Athenians' advantage as a naval force by evacuating the Attic countryside to deny the superior Spartan armies anyone to fight. With all his people collected within the walls of Athens, Pericles was free to make opportunistic seaborne attacks on Sparta's allies like Syracuse. This financially costly strategy worked well during the war's early years, but a plague hit the concentrated Athenian population, taking many lives and stirring discontent. Pericles was briefly deposed in 430, but after the Athenians' efforts to negotiate with Sparta failed, he was quickly reinstated. (1)

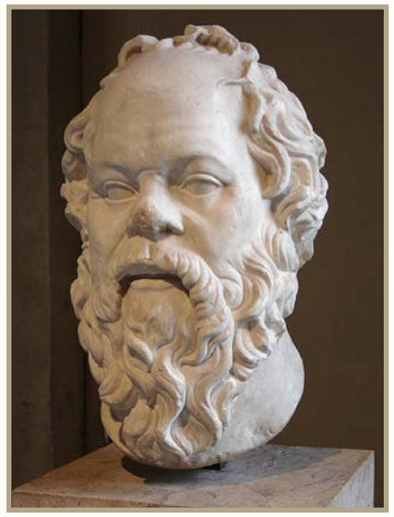
In 429 Pericles' two legitimate sons died of the plague. A few months later, Pericles himself succumbed. His death was, according to Thucydides, disastrous for Athens. His strategies were quickly abandoned and the leaders who followed lacked Pericles' foresight and forbearance, instead "committing even the conduct of state affairs to the whims of the multitude." The glory of ancient Greece was far from over, for "lovers of wisdom" or philosophers will emerge to search for certain truths. (1)

Interactive 8.4
Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

The Peloponnesian War

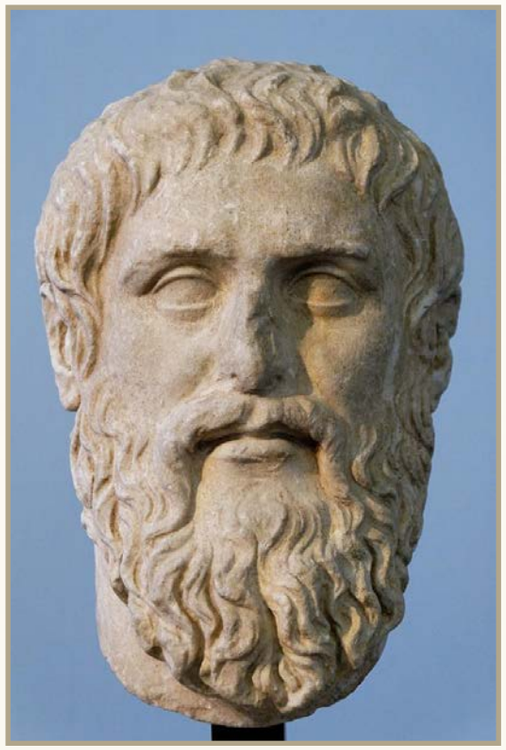
Learn more about the Peloponnesian War by clicking here.

Philosophers Search for Truths



Emerging from the end of the "Golden Age" were three classical philosophers who founded their thinking on two principles. The first was that the universe is put together in an orderly way and subject to absolute and unchanging laws. The second was people can understand these laws through logic and reason.

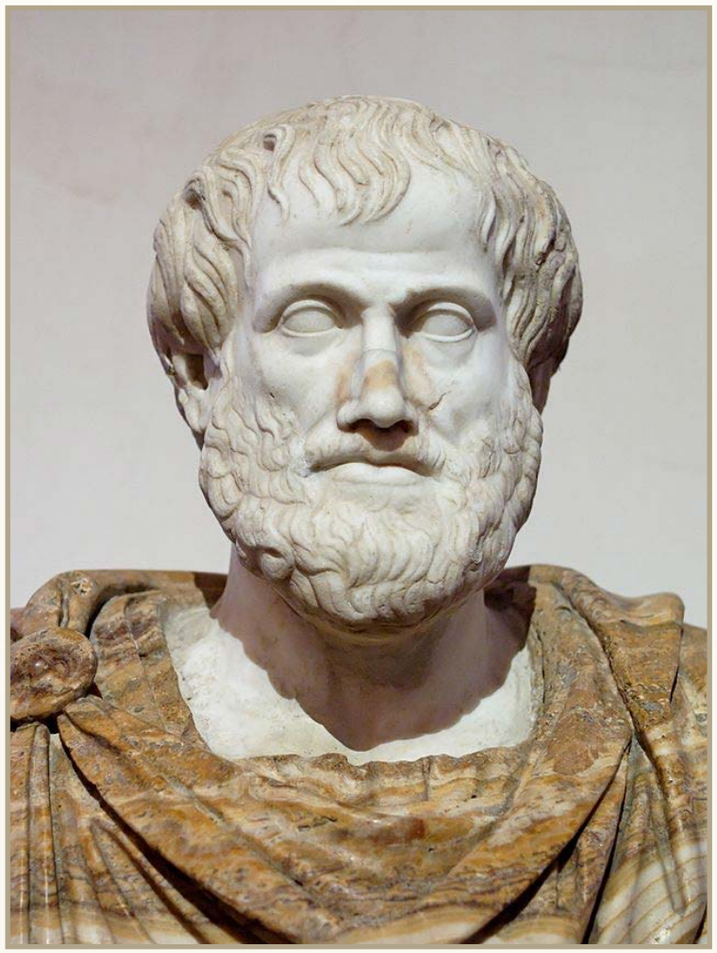
Socrates believed that absolute standards did exist for truth and justice. He would empower his students to look deeper into their moral character and believed that "The unexamined life is not worth living." In 399 B.C. his teachings would cost him his life when he was found guilty for corrupting the youth in Athens.



A student of Socrates, **Plato** wrote in 370 B.C. The Republic. In his work, he would explain his vision of a perfectly govern society. It was not a democracy, but all citizens would fall naturally into three groups. These groups were farmers, warriors, and the ruling class. The person with the greatest

intellect would be chosen as a philosopher-king. Plato's writing would dominate European thinking for 1,500 years. The only to rival in importance was his teacher Socrates and his own pupil Aristotle.

Aristotle questioned the nature of the world and of human belief, thought, and knowledge. He invented a method for arguing according to rules of logic. This method would later be applied to problems in the field of science and later become the basis for the scientific method. One of Aristotle's most famous students was the young Alexander of Macedonia. (2)



Interactive 8.5 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the picture to learn more about Greek Philosophy

Section 3 Review

1. Who was Pericles?
2. What was the Peloponnesian War?
3. What were the teachings of Socrates, Aristotle & Plato?

SECTION 4

Macedonia and Alexander the Great

Following the Peloponnesian War, many Greek city-states were weakened militarily and economically. In a nearby kingdom called **Macedonia**, located in the mountains of northern Greece, **King Philip II** took great interest to conquer Greece and eventually the Persian Empire. In 359 B.C. when Philip II became king, he transformed a bunch of peasants into one of the most well trained armies in Greece. He would advance the phalanx by placing the men into 16 across and deep formations and lengthening the spears. Once these larger divisions broke an enemy's line, he used fast-moving cavalry to crush his disappointed opponents. It did not take long until Philip conquered all of Greece. In 336 B.C., Philip had his eyes now set on the Persian Empire until he was murdered. The task of fighting the Persians now fell to his 20 year old son **Alexander**.

Alexander showed that he could conquer Persia. In 332 B.C. he conquered Egypt, Asia Minor, and destroyed the Persian army at the Battle of Gaugamela in modern day Iraq. King Darius of Persia would eventually be murdered by his own men, and Alexander became King of Persia. Alexander did not want to stop there and pressed on into Afghanistan and even northern India. Eventually Alex's men wanted to turn back and in 323 B.C. Alexander caught a fever and died in Babylon at the age of 32.

As Alexander was going down in history as Alexander the Great, he was founding cities named after him anywhere he went. However, he helped spread Greek ideas and language across a huge territory that later was called the Hellenistic Age.

Section 4 Review

1. After researching Alexander, how should history view Alexander?

SECTION 5

Hellenistic Age

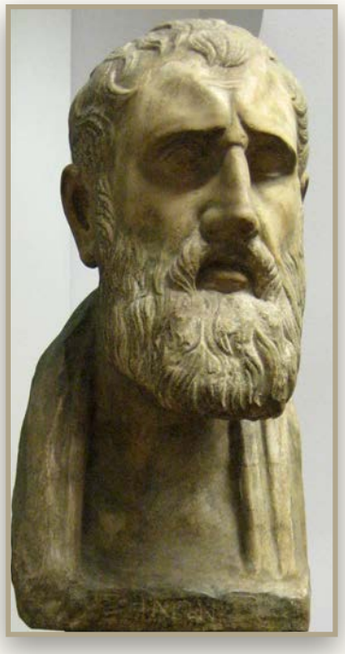
Interactive 8.6 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Alexander & Hellenistic Civilization

As a result of Alexander's policies, a new culture emerged. This new Hellenistic culture was made up of Egyptian, Persian, and Indian influences. Among the cities of the Hellenistic world, the **Egyptian city of Alexandria** became the center of the Hellenistic civilization.

The attractions of the city possessed such beauty. Broad avenues lined with statues of Greek gods, the elaborate glass coffin of Alexander the Great, and soaring over 350 feet over the harbor stood the Pharos lighthouse. This lighthouse contained bronze mirrors that reflected light from a blazing fire. The city also had the first true research library in the world. Its collection contained half a million scrolls including many masterpieces of ancient literature. The work in this library would promote the work of gifted scholars and allow them to produce commentaries that explained these works.

Alexandra's museum contained a small observatory in which astronomers could study the planets and stars. Though there were some who began to claim that the sun was larger than the Earth like Aristarchus, one astronomer **Ptolemy** incorrectly placed Earth at the center of the solar system. Many refused to support Aristarchus theory and astronomers accepted Ptolemy's view for the next 14 centuries.

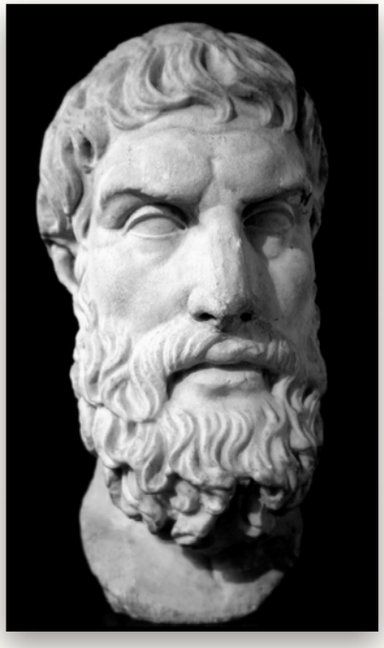


In the realm of geometry, **Euclid** was a highly regarded mathematician who taught in Alexandria. His book, Elements, contained 465 geometry propositions and proofs. His work is still used as the basis for geometry. **Archimedes** of Syracuse was also a renowned scientist who studied in Alexandra. He estimated the value of pi, the ratio of the circum-

ference of a circle to its diameter and the law of the lever.

Philosophy and Art

The teachings of Plato and Aristotle would influence Hellenistic philosophers. These "lovers of wisdom" would focus on how people should live their lives. Two major philosophies will emerge from this type of thinking.



A Greek philosopher named **Zeno** would found a school of philosophy called **Stoicism.** Stoics believed people should live virtuous lives in harmony with the will of god or natural laws that God established in the universe. They preached that human desires, power, and wealth called vices could become distractions that should be checked.

Epicurus founded the school of thought called **Epicureanism**. He taught that god had no interest in humans, and that the only real objects were those that the five senses perceived. It proposed that the main goal of humans was to achieve harmony of body and mind. Though the word epicurean today means a person devoted to pursuing human pleasure, Epicurus advocated moderation in all things.

Sculptures flourished during the Hellenistic age. Wealthy rulers, merchants, and cities all purchased statues to honor many things. The largest known sculpture was known as the **Colossus of Rhodes**. This bronze statue stood over 100 feet, and became one of the seven wonders of the ancient world. Due to an earthquake in 225 B.C., the sculpture collapsed and the bronze was sold as scraps.

By 150 B.C., the Hellenistic world was in decline. However, the Greeks had some different neighbors to worry about called the Romans.

Section 5 Review

1. How important was the city of Alexandria?
2. Who was Ptolemy, Euclid, Archimedes, Zeno and Epicurus?

Chapter 9

ANCIENT ROME

"Roman SPQR banner" by Ssolbergj - Own work. Licensed under CC BY 3.0 via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Roman_SPQR_banner.svg#/media/File:Roman_SPQR_banner.svg

Way to Run a Roman Republic?

Interactive 9.1 Rome

Click on the image to watch the Rome Trailer

According to legend, the city was founded in **753 B.C**. by two brothers **Romulus and Remus**. These two brothers were abandoned by the god Mars and a Latin princess. Left for dead, a she-wolf would find the abandoned brothers and raised them as her own. Though the story is "catchy," there was a geographical reason for the building of this great city. Rome was built along seven rolling hills along the Tiber River. This area not only provided fertile soil, it was a prime

spot for trade in the Mediterranean Sea.

The earliest settlers began to arrive to the peninsula around 1000 to 500 B.C. There were three groups of inhabitants, the Latins, originally built the city of Rome, the Greeks, and the brilliant metalworkers from northern Italy called the Etruscans. Eventually the Romans would adopt much of the Etruscans system of writing, alphabet, and their architectural brilliance like the use of the arch. (1)

In the early days, Rome was ruled by kings according to tradition. The worst king of Rome was **Tarquin the Proud**, who set up a murderous regime of terror. When his son, Sextus, attacked and raped a married Roman lady, the Romans had enough. Around 509 B.C., the Romans threw Tarquin and his son out and vowed that they never again be ruled by

a king. Instead, they set up a res publica or "public affairs" called a republic. A republic is a form of government in which power rests with citizens who have the right to vote for their leaders.

Interactive 9.2 *Mr. Buckley's Wisdom*

Click on the image to learn about the foundations of Early Rome

Just like the Greeks, the Romans were not a big fan of equality, even within a republic. To be a citizen, you and your parents had to have been born in Rome. Even if you all were born in Rome, one group called **patricians**, wealthy landowners, could vote or stand in elections to the Roman Senate. The other group was known as **plebeians**, common farmers, artisans, and merchants who made up the majority of the Roman population. At first, plebeians were barred by law from holding important government positions. However, in time the patricians will allow the plebeians to form their own assembly and participate in the government. An important victory for the plebeians was in 451 B.C. when Rome's first written laws were displayed in the Forum, heart of political life, called the **Twelve Tables**. This provided the idea that all free citizens had a right to the protection of the law. (2)

Government Under the Republic (3)

Consuls - Two men who served a year's term. They were elected by the Assemblies and were the chief executives of the government. They also served as commanders of the army.

Senate - The Senate was the most important governing body. Its 300 members passed laws, elected officials, and determined foreign policy. Members of the Senate were patricians. They were chosen for life. Senators advised the Consuls. The Assemblies could veto this advice.

Assembly of Centuries - The patricians controlled voting in this Assembly. It elected the magistrates - the main administrative body of the government.

Assembly of Tribes - The plebeians controlled this Assembly. It elected the tribunes and gradually gained the power to make some laws.

Magistrates - The magistrates had supreme administrative authority. They had the right to interpret and execute laws. At first, the magistrates had to be patricians. Later, plebeians could hold this office.

Tribunes - The Assembly of Tribes elected 10 tribunes each year. Tribunes could veto the act of any magistrate.

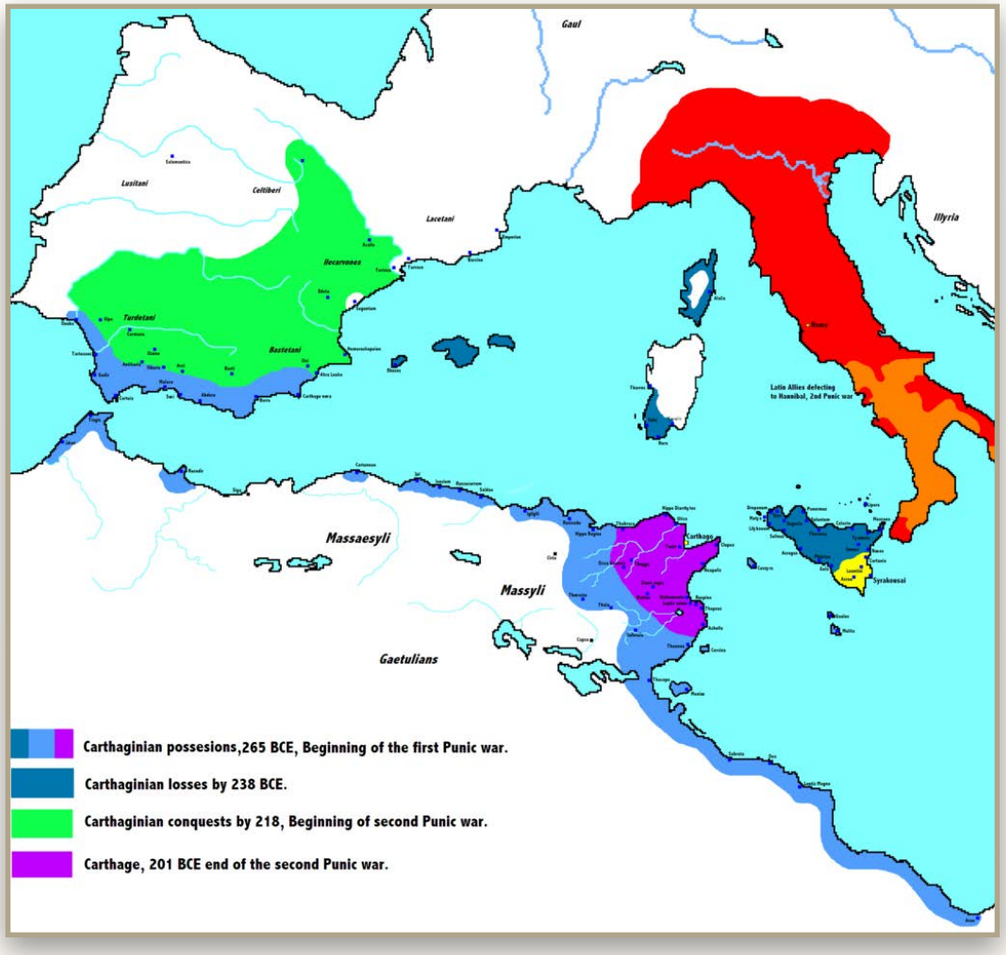
Dictator - In times of crisis, the consuls and senate could elect a leader who had absolute power to make laws and command the army. This dictator's power lasted for only six months.

Roman Army

Rome placed a great value on its military. All citizens who owned land were required to serve in the army. Those who were seeking a future career in politics had to serve a minimum of ten years. Roman soldiers were organized into military units called **legions.** These legions were made up of some 5,000 armed foot soldiers which were subdivided into groups of 80 called a century. They would be supported by divisions of cavalry. Due to the organized fighting skills of the Romans, it was no wonder why Rome will rise to greatness.

There Is No Room for Both of Us: Rome vs. Carthage

By 265 B.C., Rome extended its control from Italy to Spain and Greece. As the Roman legions conquered these vast territories it would offer it's captives a chance to become a citizen of Rome with all rights except the right to vote. If the captives declined, then an alliance was made between the sides. It was this type of expansion that would eventually lead this city to becoming an empire. There was only one little problem. A powerful trading city located in North Africa too wanted a piece of the pie, Carthage.



At first the two cities left each other alone. This was until 264 B.C. when both cities wanted the island of Sicily. The Romans were better at fighting on land, as the Carthaginians were good at fighting at sea. It came to be a surprise for the Carthaginians in the First Punic War when the Romans would copy and advance their Carthaginian ships and defeat them by 241 B.C. It is true that the First Punic War lasted 23 years!

To cheer up after their first embarrassing defeat, The Carthaginians decided to conquer Spain. However, the Romans were allied with some Spanish cities, and in 219 B.C. both cities entered round two in the Second Punic War. This time the Carthaginians' brilliant young commander, **Hannibal**, took an army from Spain and attacked the Romans where they did not expect it, over the Alps Mountains. Since Hannibal's army was larger than the Romans, the only way the Romans could force Hannibal to go home was by attacking Carthage itself. Hannibal did rush back, but met his match in the **Battle of Zama** in 202 B.C. against Roman general **Scipio.** Following the battle Hannibal was hunted down and he eventually killed himself to avoid capture.

Interactive 9.3 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn about the Punic Wars

Following the Second Punic War, a famous Roman statesman named Cato convinced the republic that, "Carthage must be destroyed!" In the Third Punic War (149 - 146 B.C.), the Romans did destroy Carthage and sold the surviving inhabitants into slavery. The Romans evened salted the farmlands so that the crops would not grow back.

Rome's victories in the Punic Wars gave it dominance over the Mediterranean world. By 70 B.C., Rome's empire stretched from Spain to Anatolia. However, with such growth and power came new problems within the empire. (1)

Section 1 Review

1. Explain the early origins of Rome?
2. How is the Roman Republic similar to the American Republic?
3. What was the importance of the Punic Wars?

The Republic is Unstable

No sooner had the Romans defeated Carthage than the people of Rome began fighting each other. As Rome increased its wealth and boundaries, growing discontent among the lower classes of society began a breakdown in military order. Many of Rome's rich landowners lived on huge estates called **latifundias.** Small farmers could not compete with these huge estates run by the labor of enslaved people. Many of these small farmers, once were soldiers of Rome, would be forced to sell their lands and become homeless. The plebeian class wanted more of a say in running the republic.

Emerging from these troubles were two plebeian brothers, **Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus** who will attempt to help Rome's poor. As members of the tribune, the brothers suggested a reform that would limit the size of the latifundias and the remaining land be returned to the poor. As nice as this sounded in theory, the Senate felt threatened and it would result in the violent deaths of both brothers (Tiberius in 133 B.C. and Gaius in 121 B.C.).

A period of civil war, war between groups of the same country, followed the brother's death. A Roman general named **Gaius Marius** allowed plebeians to become soldiers, which scared the patricians that the poor were now armed. General Marius was challenged by **Consul Cornelius Sulla**, and a power struggle between the two erupted. General Marius was viewed as the peoples champion, while Consul Sulla was standing up for order, class, and discipline. The result would be a victory for Sulla, who was able to take power and rule temporary as a dictator. To prevent any future uprisings, Sulla ordered many of Marius's followers to be put to death. However, he was not able to catch Marius's nephew-by-marriage, an ambitious and able officer named Julius Caesar. (1)

War, Seduction, Murder: So This is The New Roman Empire?

Following Cornelius Sulla's retirement, a loyal follower named Gnaeus Pompey made himself popular by defeating sea pirates and Rome's sworn enemy, King Mithridates of Pontus. However, even Pompey could not ignore **Julius Caesar**, whose hired men were building a power base among the ordinary people of Rome. In 59 B.C., Pompey agreed to share power with Caesar and another of Sulla's wealthy henchmen Crassus to form a **triumvirate**, or three-man rule.

As you can imagine this triumvirate would not work out. Now forget Crassus, he went on a campaign and got himself killed. As for Caesar, after serving his one year term as consul, he appointed himself governor of Gaul (ancient France). The senate did not trust Caesar so they were happy to see him leave and hopefully be forgotten. Instead by 50 B.C., Julius Caesar conquered all of Gaul, and became popular with the people of Rome. Pompey, who had become his political rival, urged the senate to order Caesar to disband his legions and come home. Julius Caesar ignored that request by the senate and in 49 B.C.; he led his legions back to Rome. Pompey fled once he received the news of Julius's return and for the next year, Caesar will chase Pompey all over the Mediterranean. In 48 B.C. Pompey makes his last stop in Egypt, hoping to get help from the King of Egypt against Caesar. The king, thinking of a good present to send to Caesar, decided to cut off Pompey's head and send him that.

Caesar returned to Rome in 46 B.C. with the support of the masses and the senate appointed him dictator for a year and consul for the next five. Julius Caesar governed Rome with absolute authority. He started a number of reforms like granting citizenship to many people, expanded the senate by adding friends and supporters, creating jobs for the poor, order the construction of new public buildings, and increased the pay for soldiers. During this process, Caesar won some more battles for Rome so the Senate in 44. B.C. declared him dictator for life, put his portrait on coins, and decided that his person was sacred and probably divine.

Within time many nobles and senators expressed worries that Caesar's growing power would lead to losing their influence in government and possibly the death of the republic. A number of important senators led by Marcus Brutus and Gaius Cassius, plotted Caesar's assassination. On **March 15, 44 B.C. (Ides of March)**, they stabbed him to death in the senate chamber. (2)

No sooner was Caesar was killed that three of his supporters banded together to capture the assassins. These three men were an experienced general named **Mark Antony**, a powerful politician **Lepidu**s, and the adopted son of Julius Caesar

Octavian. In 43 B.C., these three men formed the **Second Triumvirate.**

Their alliance, however, ended in jealousy and violence. Octavian forced Lepidus to retire, leaving Octavian and Mark Antony in control of the triumvirate. What happened next was all Queen Cleopatra of Egypt's fault.

While leading troops against Rome's enemies in Anatolia, Mark Antony met Queen Cleopatra and the two fell in love and returned to Egypt. Octavian accused Mark Antony of trying to form an alliance with the Queen of Egypt against Rome and another civil war erupted. Octavian will defeat the combine forces of Mark Antony and Cleopatra at the naval Battle of Actium in 31 B.C. To avoid being captured Mark Antony and Cleopatra did what all good Romans do and committed suicide. (2)

Upon Octavian's return to Rome, he will restore some aspects of the republic, but did become the unchallenged ruler of Rome. Eventually, he will take on the title of **Augustus, or "exalted one."** Rome was now an empire ruled by one man.

The Emperor's New Empire

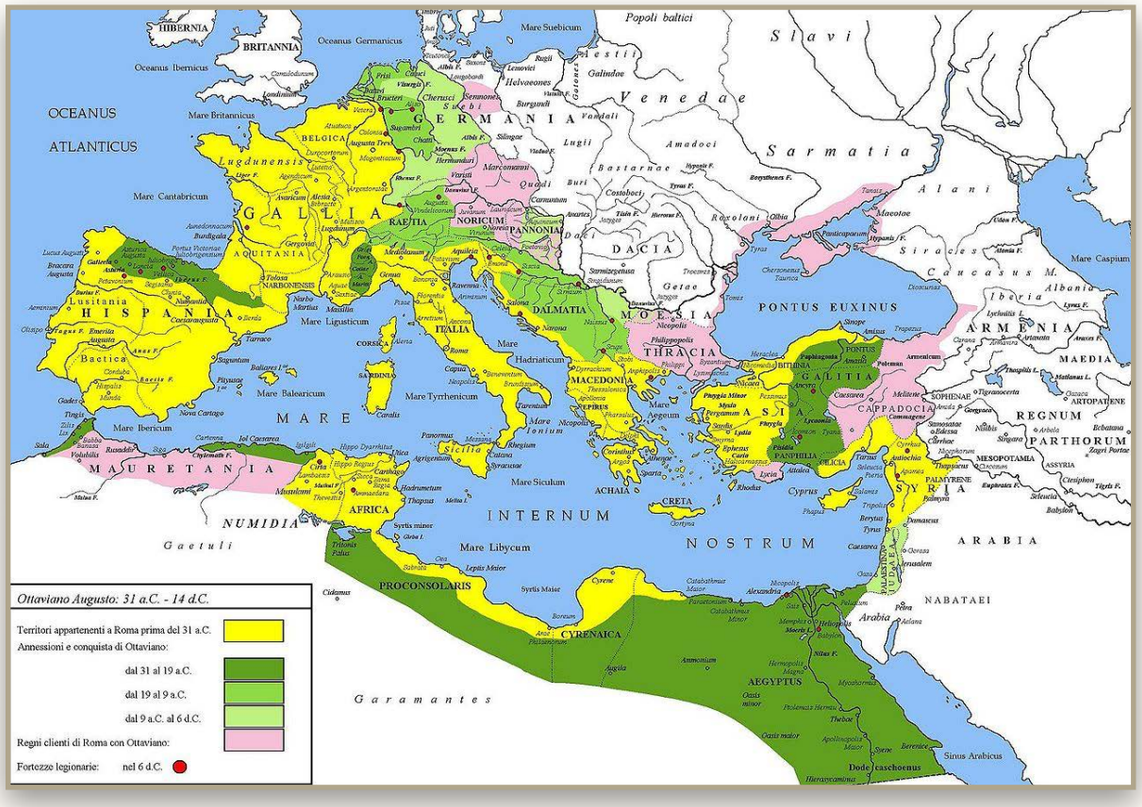
Rome would enter the peak of their power under Augustus's rule in 27 B.C. These 207 years of Roman peace and prosperity became called the Pax Romana. Under the rule of the Julio-Claudian emperors, the Roman Empire covered over 3 million square miles and hosted over 80 million people. Even the city of Rome was populated with over 1 million people.

Caesar Augustus was considered the most able emperor during this time period. He stabilized the frontiers, glorified Rome with splendid marble public buildings, and created a system of government that survived for centuries. The reason why Augustus's government survived for centuries, even after he died in 14 A.D., was because he set up a paid civil service. This system allowed Augustus to pay plebeians to maintain the affairs of government. (2)

Socially, Rome throughout its history emphasized values of discipline, strength, and loyalty. A person with these qualities was said to have the virtue of gravitas. To help the family and its members to grow up practicing this virtue, the oldest male in the household would have the title paterfamilias. The "father of the family" was responsible to the everyday operations of the household and had the legal power to beat or imprison his children and divorce his wife if she grew ugly or talked too much.

Slavery was a significant part of Roman life. Almost one third of the entire Roman population was made up of slaves. These slaves would be used in many ways, working the farmlands, tend to their master needs, and even become trained fighters to provide entertainment at the colosseum. The government provided free games, races, and gladiator contests to distract and control the masses.

Though the Pax Romana was the greatest time to live within the Roman Empire, under the weight of an increasing number of both foreign and domestic problems, the mighty Roman Empire eventually began to crumble.



Interactive 9.4 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn about Augustus' family tree.

Section 2 Review

1. Who was Tiberius Gracchus & Gaius Gracchus?
2. How important was Julius Caesar to the development of Rome?
3. Explain the significance of the First & Second Triumverate.
4. What did Caesar Augustus do for the expansion of Rome?

The Beginning of the End of the Empire

Interactive 9.5 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the Image to learn more about the Roman Emperors

Many people would say that the end of the Pax Romana was around A.D. 180 with the death of the emperor Marcus Aurelius. The rulers following in the next century had a limited knowledge of rule, and while the Empire continued to grow, it will lead to a decline of this once amazing empire.

The first of many reasons for this decline was due to the empire running out of money. Hostile tribes and pirates were disrupting Rome's oversea trade, and with the empire "maxed out" in expansion, Rome lacked new sources of gold and silver. To save money the emperors debased the coinage, so there was hardly any silver in it. This caused inflation, a drastic drop in value of money coupled with the rise in prices.

The population of the empire had fallen, possibly by about one-third. The Romans now depended more than ever on non-Romans who lack a sense of loyalty to the empire. This would be a huge problem with it came to the army. To save on army pay, the Romans started taking prisoners to use slaves, and even as troops. The government began to recruit mercenaries, foreign soldiers for hire, which most of these foreigners were Germans known as foederati. The empire was already becoming more and more German even before the real trouble began! (1)

Can Anyone Save this Empire!?

Surprisingly, the Roman Empire survived intact for another 200 years. This was due largely to two emperors, Diocletian and Constantine.

In A.D. 284, **Diocletian** became the new emperor and ruled with an iron fist. Though he limited his citizens of certain freedoms, he did stabilize the frontier and controlled inflation by setting fixed prices for goods. Diocletian was smart enough to realize that the empire was too big just for one man to rule. To deal with this he divided up the empire in the Greek-speaking east and Latin-speaking West. Diocletian took the East while he appointed General Maximian co-ruler of the West.

Constantine will gain control of the western part of the empire in A.D. 312. He would continue to follow Diocletian's social and economic policies, resulting in securing control of the Eastern Empire in A.D. 324. What he did next would have great consequences for the empire. Constantine moved the capital from Rome to the Greek city of Byzantium. With this city now being the center of power in the empire, it was later renamed Constantinople. Following Constantine's death, the empire would be divided again, but the East would survive while the West would fall.

The Western Roman Empire Crumbles

In the fourth century A.D., a fierce, warlike, and utterly ruthless people had come charging across the plains of Russia from China, the Huns. These Mongol nomads from Asia moved in and destroyed everything in their path. In an effort to flee from the Huns, various Germanic people, Romans called them "barbarians," kept moving deeper into the Roman Empire. The situation became so bad that in A.D. 410 a Germanic group called the Visigoths led by their king Alaric overran Rome itself and plundered it for three days.

In the meantime, the Huns, who have been only indirectly responsible for the Germanic assaults on Rome, now became a direct threat. In A.D. 444, the Huns were united under a powerful chieftain named **Attila**. With over 100,000 soldiers, Attila terrorized both halves of the empire. In A.D. 452, Attila's

forces marched on Rome. However, due to famine and disease, it kept the Huns from capturing the city.

The last Roman emperor, Romulus Augustulus, was ousted by German forces under the leadership of Odoacer in **A.D. 476**. After that, no emperor even pretended to rule Rome and its western provinces. Roman power in the western half of the empire had disappeared. (2)

Interactive 9.6 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to read about the Fall of the Roman Empire

Section 3 Review

1. Look at Mr. Buckley's handout on the Emperors. Who in your opinion was the most important and why?

2. Explain in full detail what caused the end of the Roman Empire.

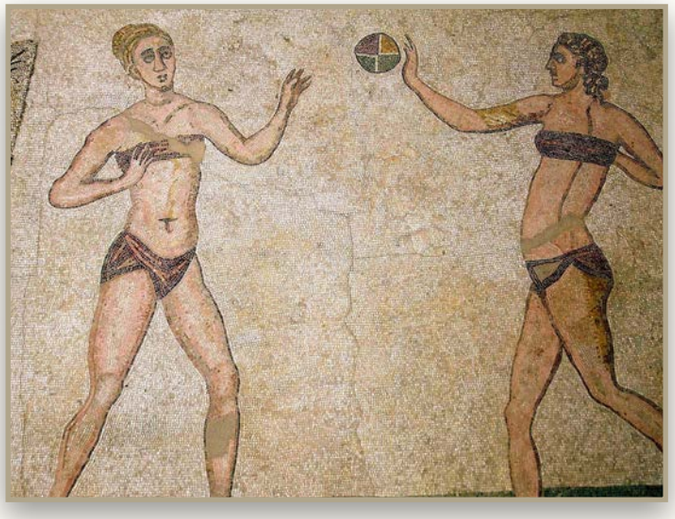
What is Rome's Legacy?

Under the Roman Empire, hundreds of territories were knitted into a single state. By the second century B.C., Romans conquered Greece and became great admirers of their civilization. This would result in the mixing of Greek, Hellenistic, and Roman cultures becoming the Greco-Roman culture or "classical civilization." From this creation, Rome will adapt them for their own purposes and create a style of their own.

Art and Literature

Romans learned the art of sculpture from the Greeks but unlike Greek art, much Roman art was practical in purpose, intended for public education. Romans would further their development of a type of sculpture called bas-relief. In bas-relief, or low-relief, images project from a flat background. Romans used this style to tell stories and to represent crowds of people and landscapes.

Romans were also particularly skilled in the creation of mosaics. **Mosaics** were pictures or designs made by setting small pieces of glass, stone, or tile onto a surface. You would tend to see these works of art in Roman villas, the country houses of the wealthy.



The best examples of Roman art could be found in the Roman city of **Pompeii**. In A.D. 79, **Mount Vesuvius** erupted, covering the city in a thick layer of ash and killing about 2,000 residents. The ash actually acted to preserve many buildings and works of art today.

The Romans would borrow much of their inspiration for literature from the Greeks. The poet Virgil spent ten years writing the Aeneid, the epic of

the legendary Aeneas. Virgil modeled this work in praise of Rome and Roman virtues, after the Greek epics of Homer.

As for history, even this ancient civilization had their great historians. **Tacitus** was notable among the ancient historians because he presented the facts accurately. In Animals and Histories, he accurately recorded the actions of the Emperor Nero, who many considered to be one of Rome's cruelest rulers. (1)

The Legacy of Rome

Latin, the language of the Roman Empire, would last beyond the existence of the Empire and became the official language of the Roman Catholic Church. Today the Romance languages, which comprise all languages that descended from Latin, are spoken by more than 600 million native speakers worldwide, mainly in the Americas, Europe, and Africa. Additionally, the vocabulary of Germanic languages like German Dutch, or English contains a large percentage of Latin words. In the case of English, the proportion of words with a Latin or Romance origin is estimated to be over 50%. (2)

The Romans constructed numerous **aqueducts** in order to bring water from distant sources into their cities and towns, supplying public baths, latrines, fountains and private households. Waste water was removed by complex sewage systems and released into nearby bodies of water, keeping the towns clean and free from effluent. Aqueducts also provided water for mining operations, milling, farms and gardens. (3)

Rome's most lasting and important contribution to civilization was law. As the empire continued to grow, Romans believed that law should be equal and fair to all people. The principles of Roman law have endured to form the basis of legal systems throughout Europe and the United States of America.

Rome's influence on us today cannot be ignored, but we also need to remember that this civilization will flourish until 1453 in the eastern empire called the Byzantine Empire.

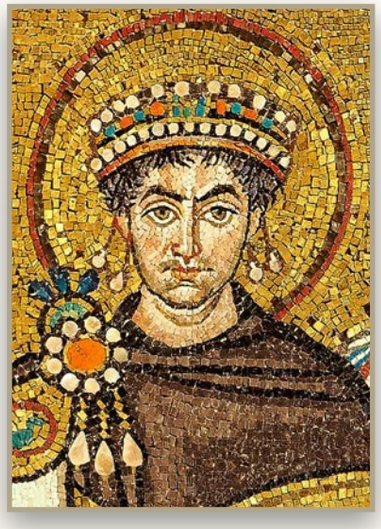
Section 4 Review

1. After reading Section 4 what is the biggest impact that Rome left on western society.?

The Byzantine Empire

The Byzantine Empire was the direct continuation of the eastern half of the old Roman Empire. Long after Rome fell under the domination of the Germanic invaders, Byzantium continued on with an emperor on the throne in the capital city called **Constantinople.**

This empire, despite being only half of what was once the vast old Roman Empire, spread along the southern shores of the Black Sea and the eastern Mediterranean. By A.D. 500, the Byzantine Empire moved into territory of the former western half of Rome including Italy and North Africa.



It was considered that the empire was at its highest period under the rule of a nobleman named **Justinian** (A.D. 527-565). His reign saw great expansion across the once Western Roman Empire.

In one sense, Justinian was one of the last to use Latin as the official royal language. After his death, the Latin tradition began to die out and Greek became the official language of the eastern empire. This caused the Byzantines to think of themselves as different from the Romans and loosened the historical ties between Rome and Constantinople.

Great strides were taken by Justinian during his reign. He oversaw the construction of a great church in the city that would prove to be the shining example of Byzantine architec-

ture. Known as the Church of the **Hagia Sophia**, or Holy Wisdom, it was a monumental work. The building measures 250 feet by 235 feet and features a great dome measuring 107 feet across and peaking at a height of 185 feet. The building took five years to complete with 10,000 men working on it. Inside, the great church was adorned with marble, elaborate columns, intricate mosaics, and gold. (1)

Click here to go the Hagia Sophia Museum Website.

Another contribution of Justinian was the reforming and codifying of Roman law. He ordered the creation of a commission to study Roman law and to bring it together in a unified form known as the **Justinian Code.** The result of the code included all Roman law up to A.D. 534. Also, the commission arranged the Digest, which included all the cases that served as interpretations of the law. This new work commissioned by Justinian gave new prestige to old Roman law. (1)

Following another great period for the Byzantine Empire from A.D. 700 - 1000, four hundred years of decline followed, ultimately leading to the Empire's fall to the Turks in 1453. It was during this period of decline that Christianity officially split between the Roman Catholic Church in the West and the Orthodox Church in the East.

Interactive 9.7 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn about the Byzantine Empire

Section 5 Review

1. What is the importance of Justinian to the Byzantine World?

Chapter 10

THE MIDDLE AGES

"Charlemagne denier Mayence 812 814" by PHGCOM - Own work by uploader, photographed at Cabinet des Médailles, Paris.. Licensed under CC BY-SA 3.0 via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Charlemagne_denier_Mayence_812_814.jpg#/media/File:Charlemagne_denier_Mayence_812_814.jpg

Early Middle Ages

Invasions of Western Europe

Following the fall of the Western Roman Empire, Europe entered a period called the Middle Ages (A.D. 500-1500). This period would have roots in the classical heritage of Rome, the beliefs of the Roman Catholic Church, and the customs of various Germanic tribes. (1)

In the fifth century, Germanic invaders continued to invade the western half of Europe. These repeated invasions caused disturbances in the economy, government, and culture. Due to the breakdown of trade, cites were no longer economic centers and money became scarce. Following the fall of Rome, there was no longer a centralized government or center of administration. As these two factors collapsed it left many people to abandon the cities and return to the rural countryside to survive.

Germanic Kingdoms Emerge

Unlike the Roman Empire, barbarian culture focused on loyalty to persons rather than institutions. Rather, than adhering to abstract legal concepts or ideals, Germanic society revolved around tribal identities, which allowed in many ways for a greater amount of freedom than had existed in the Roman Empire. However, this freedom came at the cost of political unity, economic vitality, an active civic culture, and led to the development of major language barriers between the kingdoms.

It can become confusing with all the different Germanic tribes running amuck throughout Western Europe. Just remember this: the Franks came out on top. In the Roman province of Gaul, modern day France, a Germanic people called the Franks held power. The king of the Franks, **Clovis I** of the **Merovingian dynasty,** converted to Catholic Christian-

ity in A.D. 496 as a promise for victory in battle. Immediately, the Franks became the Romans' favorite barbarians, and there was nothing Rome or Constantinople would not do to help them. The Church too supported Clovis's military campaigns against other Germanic people, and in A.D. 511 Clovis united the Frank into one kingdom. The alliance between the Church and Clovis will mark the start of a beautiful relationship.

Christianity in the West

The first big difference between Christianity in the East and West concerned monks. We quickly come to think of the monks having long brown habits, cord tied around the waist, bad haircuts, and living together in a monastery (Church built religious communities). Rather, the earlier monks were inspired by the readings about St. John the Baptist living in the wilderness and eating locusts. So the monks dug themselves holes in the Egyptian desert and lived off scrapes.

An Egyptian monastery looked like a shanty town and the behavior of these monks was bizarre. Monks competed with each other to show how holy they were. St. Simon Stylites, for example, decided to get closer to heaven by spending his life living on top of a pillar, never sitting or lying down, not even to sleep. Really!?

Around A.D. 520, a young Italian named **Benedict** pondered on the point of such behavior. Benedict agreed that Christians should withdraw from the world and devote themselves to prayer, but thought the Egyptian style of practice was unhealthy. So, when Benedict set up a monastery near Naples, he drew up a set of rules for how to run a monastery. These monasteries became Europe's best educated communities where monks maintained libraries and copied books. The Rule of St. Benedict was one thing that set the western Church apart from the eastern Church. The other thing was the growing power of the Bishop of Rome - the Pope.

Papal Power Expands Throughout Christendom

The man who almost single-handedly made the papacy into the leading power in Western Europe was **Pope Gregory I.** Beyond the spiritual role he had, the papacy also became a secular, or worldly, power involved in politics. Gregory used church revenues to raise armies, repair roads, and help the poor. He also negotiated peace treaties with Rome's biggest barbarian threat the Lombards. Gregory's most im-

portant work was in extending his authority to help in his vision called **Christendom,** or spiritual kingdom on earth. Meanwhile, secular rulers expanded their political kingdoms.

An Empire Evolves

The rise of a new ruling power in Gaul, the Carolingian dynasty, was the result of the expanded power of the major domo, or "mayor of the palace." Merovingian kings gave their major domo extensive power to command and control their estates, and some of them used this power to command and control entire territories. Pepin II was one of the first to expand his power so much that he held power over almost all of Gaul. His son, also a major domo, **Charles Martel**, won the **Battle of Tours** in A.D. 732 against invading Islamic armies, keeping Muslim influence out of most of Europe. "Martel," meaning "The Hammer," was a reference to his weapon of choice the war hammer. (3)

Charles Martel's son **Pepin the Short**, after requesting support of the papacy, disposed of the Merovingian "puppets." The papacy gave Pepin permission to overthrow the Merovingian's in order to secure Frankish support of the Papal States, and protection against Lombard incursion. Pepin was declared rex Dei gratia, "King by the grace of God," thereby setting a powerful

Interactive 10.1 Battle of Tours

Click on the Image to Watch about the Battle of Tours

precedent for European absolutism, by arguing that it was the Christian God's will to declare someone a king. (3)

Pepin the Short was the founder of the **Carolingian dynasty,** which culminated in his son **Charlemagne**, "Charles the Great." Charlemagne was also the first king crowned Holy Roman Emperor in A.D. 800--the supposed successor to the Caesars and the protector of the Catholic Church. Charlemagne, whose empire expanded its boundaries by conquest to encompass most of present-day Germany and France, created something of a renaissance for the intellectual world in the Frankish kingdom. Charlemagne set up monasteries and had monks copy

out the Bible, in illuminated manuscripts, in rooms called scriptoria. For women, the cloth was one of the few ways they were allowed to expand their intellectual horizons and do something aside from birth children and work in the fields. (3)

A year before Charlemagne died in A.D. 814; he crowned his only surviving son, Louis the Pious, as emperor. Louis was a religious man and decided to give the empire to his three sons: Lothair, Charles the Bald, and Louis the German. As you can imagine, the three sons will fight one another for control of the empire. In A.D. 843, the three will sign the **Treaty of Verdun**, dividing the empire into three kingdoms. As a result, Carolingian kings lost power and central authority. The lack of strong rulers led to a new system of governing and landholding: feudalism. (1)

Interactive 10.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn more about the Frankish Kings

Section 1 Review

1. What happened to Western Europe after the fall of the Rome?
2. How did Western Europe begin to rebuild? Be specific.
3. What role did the Catholic Church play in the development of Western Europe?
4. Identify Clovis, Charles Martel, Pepin the Short, Charlemagne.

Feudalism in Europe

Charlemagne's three grandsons will break up their grandfather's kingdom and continue following Germanic traditions. Part of these territories will become a battlefield for a new wave of invaders. The political turmoil and constant warfare led to the rise of European feudalism.

Enter the Invaders: Vikings, Muslims, Magyars Oh My!

The year 793 a gang of armed men from a wintry wooded region of Northern Europe called Scandinavia made their debut in Europe by burning down famous monasteries, slaughtering the monks, or making them slaves. The **Vikings** had arrived.

The Vikings, also called Northmen or Norsemen, were Germanic people whose gods included Thor and Odin, and whose raids on wealthy Christian cities and churches were but one feature of their trade networks, which spanned the Atlantic and Europe from Newfoundland to Byzantium. What made these Vikings so feared was how they carried out their raids with terrifying speed. They were able to attack with such speed due to the engineering of their longships. These warships at times would weigh around 20 tons, but still have the ability to sail in a mere three feet of water. Viking activity continued until Norway and Sweden reluctantly accepted Christianity in the 11th and 12th centuries. England, Ireland, and French Normandy all saw substantial Viking settlement in this period, with important historical consequences. (1)

As Viking invasions declined, Europe was welcomed by two other invaders. The first of these two were a group of nomadic people that attacked from the east from what is Hungary today called **Magyars.** They were superb horsemen that swept across Western Europe in the late 800s. What made Magyars different from Vikings was that they did not settle in conquered lands. Instead, they took captives and sold them as slaves. The second were the **Muslims** who attacked

from the south. They already secured North Africa and Spain in the 600s and 700s. Muslims were expert seafarers who were able to strike any settlement on the Atlantic and Mediterranean coasts. The invasions by these groups caused widespread disorder and many Europeans lived in constant danger. Kings could not effectively defend their lands and this resulted in people no longer looking to a central ruler for security. Instead, the people turned to local rulers who had their own armies. (2)

The New Social Order

Based on the decentralized nature of Germanic political culture and the insecurity of the Early Middle Ages, the system of **feudalism** emerged. The earliest example of this system existing was in A.D. 911. **Rollo** was the head of a Viking army, who had been plundering France for years. Charles the Simple was the king of France but held little power. Charles granted Rollo French territory today called Normandy in exchanged for Rollo's pledge of loyalty to Charles.

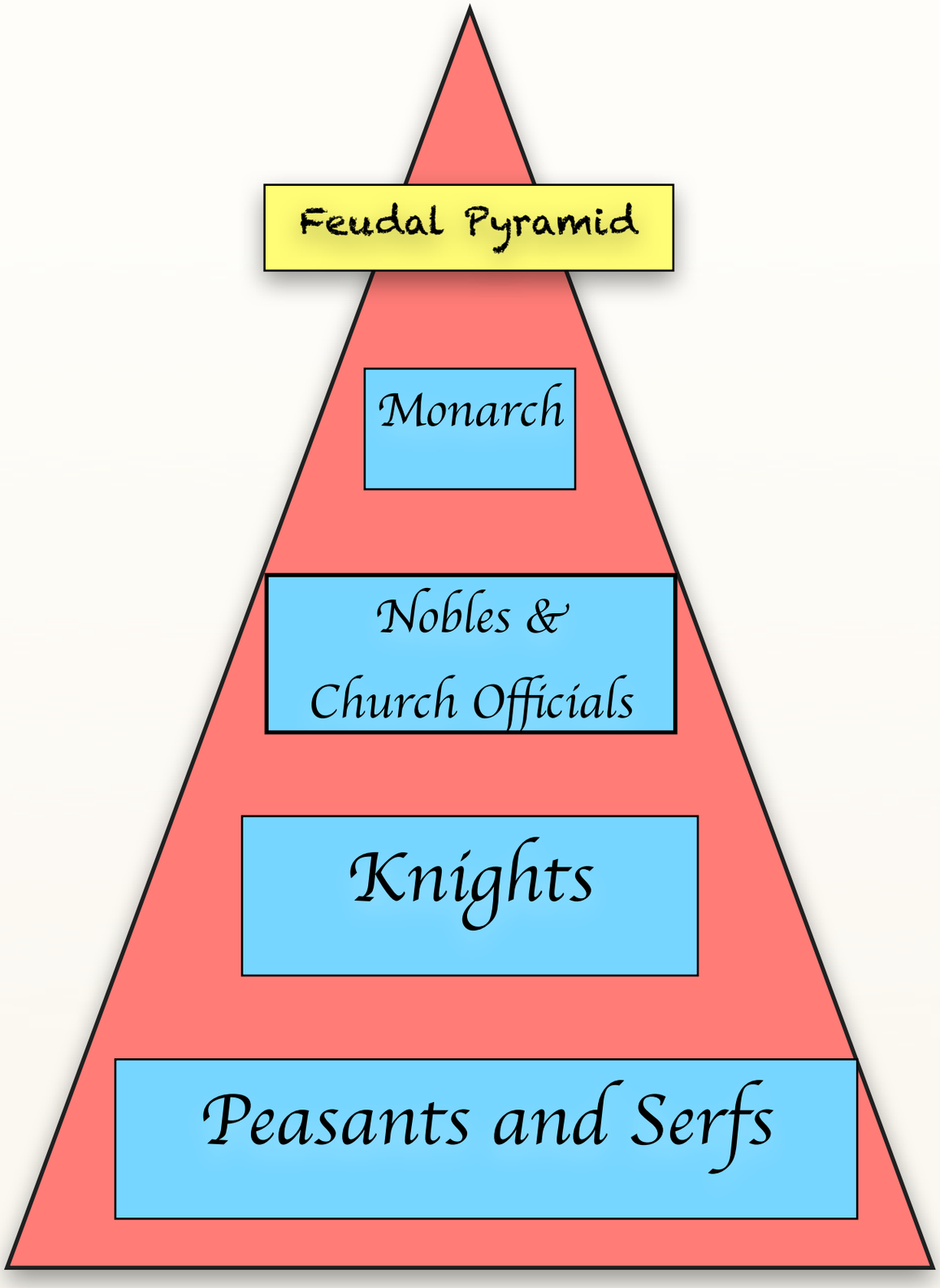
Relationships between lord and **vassal**, person receiving a **fief** (land), were based on specific contractual obligations of loyalty and protection. In return for protection, peasants provided labor and gave loyalty to feudal elites, who controlled peasants and serfs, people who could not lawfully leave the place they were born, through an intricate set of obligations, fees, rituals, and taxes. As warfare required continuous training and expensive equipment (a result of the invention of the stirrup allowing heavy mounted warriors), only an elite few could engage in the practice. Society became divided, at least in theory, into those who fought (nobles and knights), those who prayed (the clergy), and those who worked (peasants and artisans). (3)

The Economic Side of Feudalism

The **manor** was the lord's estate. The lord would provide the serfs with housing, farmland, and protection. In return, the serfs tended to the lord's lands and performed certain tasks to maintain the estate. All peasants whether free or serf owed the lord certain duties. These estates were self-contained worlds that peasants rarely traveled more than 25 miles from their own manor. The manor was a self-sufficient community where serfs and peasants raised or produced almost everything that they and their lord needed.

These peasants and serfs paid a high price to live on the lord's land. They paid a tax on all grain grounded in the lord's mill. Not paying your taxes was treated as a crime. Peasants also paid a tax on marriage, and families owed the village priest a **tithe**, or church tax.

Despite the hardships that a serf endured, like most Christians during the medieval times, believed that God determined a person's place in society. (2)



Interactive 10.3 *Mr. Buckley's Wisdom*

Click on the image to learn about Feudalism

Section 2 Review

1. What impact did the new invaders have on the development of Western Europe?
2. How did feudalism influence society in Western Europe?

The Knight

During the Middle Ages, nobles constantly fought between one another. Through warfare, feudal lords defended their estates, seized new territories, and increased their wealth. By the 1100s a code of behavior began to rise because of a class of guided warriors known as knights. (1)

The Knight

A knight is a person granted an honorary title of knighthood by a monarch or other political leader for service to the Monarch or country, especially in a military capacity. Historically, in Europe, knighthood has been conferred upon mounted warriors. (2) During the High Middle Ages, knighthood was considered a class of lower nobility. By the Late Middle Ages, the rank had become associated with the ideals of chivalry, a code of conduct for the perfect courtly Christian warrior. Often, a knight was a vassal who served as a fighter for a lord, with payment in the form of land holdings. (3) The lords trusted the knights, who were skilled in battle on horseback. Since the early modern period, the title of knight is purely honorific, usually bestowed by a monarch, as in the British honors system, often for non-military service to the country.

Interactive 10.4 ***Knights***

Click on the video to learn more about the Knights

Knights were expected, above all, to fight bravely and to display military professionalism and courtesy. When knights were taken as prisoners of war, they were customarily held for ransom in somewhat comfortable surroundings. This same standard of conduct did not apply to non-knights (archers, peasants, foot-soldiers, etc.) who were often slaughtered after capture, and who were viewed during battle as mere impediments to knights' getting to other knights to fight them. (4)

The Code

Chivalry developed as an early standard of professional ethics for knights, who were relatively affluent horse owners and were expected to provide military services in exchange for landed property. Early notions of chivalry entailed loyalty to one's liege lord and bravery in battle, similar to the values of the Heroic Age. During the Middle Ages, this grew from simple military professionalism into a social code including the values of gentility, nobility and treating others reasonably. In **The Song of Roland** (c. 1100), Roland is portrayed as the ideal knight, demonstrating unwavering loyalty, military prowess and social fellowship. In Wolfram von Eschenbach's Parzival (c. 1205), chivalry had become a blend of religious duties, love and military service. Ramon Llull's Book of the Order of Chivalry (1275) demonstrates that by the end of the 13th century, chivalry entailed a litany of very specific duties, including riding warhorses, jousting, attending tournaments, holding Round Tables and hunting, as well as aspiring to the more ethereal virtues of "faith, hope, charity, justice, strength, moderation and loyalty."(5)

It was not only literature and epic poetry that explained the code of chivalry during this time period but also love poetry and songs. Traveling poet-musicians called **Troubadours** composed short verses and songs about the joys and sorrows of romantic love. Duke William IX of Aquitaine was one of the most famous troubadours. Being a troubadour was more a phase you went through than a career choice, rather like busking.

Women's Role

As with many periods in history, women's roles in the Middle-Ages were bound by legal and economic prescription. However, medieval women of different classes often found ways to express autonomy, initiative, and talent within these parameters. The nature of medieval warfare often left noblewomen to manage large manors, engage in politics, and organize the defense of castles. Younger noblewomen often joined convents, where they could pursue intellectual and spiritual interests outside the control of men. Women also played major roles in movements of religious change or in so-called heresies. Further, the ideal of courtly love and chivalry placed women at the center of an important cultural tradition. Cities and towns relied on the labor of women in artisan families, often as guild members in food preparation, brewing, and cloth production. Peasant and serf women labored alongside their husbands in mowing hay, tending to vegetable gardens, or in harvesting. Since peasant homes were simple, do-

mestic chores actually played more of a minor role for women. (6)

Section 3 Review

1. Explain the role of the knights and women during the feudal period.

Chapter 11

HIGH MIDDLE AGES

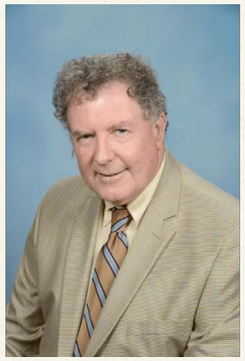
"Husité - Jenský kodex" by Unknown - Vavřinec z Březové - Husitská kronika; Píseň o vítězství u Domažlic (nakladatelství Svoboda, 1979). Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Husit%C3%A9_-_Jensk%C3%BD_kodex.jpg#/media/File:Husit%C3%A9_-_Jensk%C3%BD_kodex.jpg

Putting the Puzzle of Western Europe Back Together Again

The Crusades

A sign of the increasing power of Europe was the **Crusades.** Due to the expansion of commerce, population, and political organization, Christian Europe was able to go on the offensive against Islamic rule of the Holy Land. The first crusade was launched in A.D. 1095, and subsequent efforts succeeded in establishing kingdoms in Palestine and surrounding areas. However, many of these efforts were driven by prejudice and sheer bloodlust, often producing atrocities and tragic consequences, like the needless sack of Constantinople in A.D. 1204 (Fourth Crusade). Despite some of the baser motives, the Crusades demonstrated Europe's newfound assertiveness and interest in the outside world, stimulating a spirit of exploration. (1)

Interactive 11.1 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom



Click on the image to learn more about how the Crusades changed Western Europe

Interactive 11.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click here to learn about the Cathedrals in Medieval Europe

Formation of Western Europe

While Church reform, **cathedral building**, and the Crusades were taking place, other important changes were occurring in medieval society. The sectors of agriculture, trade,

and finance were making significant advances resulting in the opening up of cultural interaction with the East and sparked growth in learning. (2)

Growing Food Supply

Improvements in agriculture, such as three-crop field rotation, the iron plow, horse collar, and use of windmills, supported an increasing population. More land was brought under cultivation, in places producing a surplus, which helped to stimulate an increase in trade. By A.D. 1300, Europe had reached a population of 75 million, which was double of what it was around A.D. 1000. (1)

New Places of Town and Commerce

As the economy improved throughout the High Middle Ages, its effects were felt most strongly in the growth of towns. Medieval towns were not the teeming urban centers of the industrial era, but did act as magnets for skilled labor, ideas, and goods. Towns lay outside the feudal structure and jealously guarded their liberties, which were generally confirmed by charters. Towns often banded together in leagues to protect their independence or promote their commerce, as with the Hanse, the German trading centers in the Baltic. A central institution of most towns was the **guild**, which controlled the production of goods in a particular craft. Not only did the guild ensure a minimum quality of goods and license its members' skills, it also acted as a civic institution, reflecting the corporate nature of medieval society. With the continued growth and attraction of cities in western Europe, feudalism, especially serfdom, declined in importance, to be replaced by a more commercial and money-oriented economy. (1)

Interactive 11.3 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn about the Medieval Church

Revival of Learning

With the rise of towns came a quickening of intellectual life. Informal meetings of students and teachers evolved into the formal founding of the first universities in the early twentieth century. **Universities** taught a variety of subjects in their various faculties, but our current separation of spiritual and material subjects did not exist in the medieval worldview. In fact, theology stood as the "queen of the science," and liber-

ally borrowed from other disciplines to elaborate its truths. Students were expected to study the Bible and the fathers of the early Church, and to debate them in public, but they also studied the works of the great classical writers from Greece and Rome, especially Aristotle. This was of learning from the ancients was known as **scholasticism**. Pagan ideas governing logic and the natural world were synthesized into Christian dogma, especially by scholars such as **St. Thomas Aquinas** (*Summa Theologica*), to explain divine truths. (1)

The teachings of law and government from universities influenced the thinking in the kingdoms of England and France. Accordingly, they will begin to develop their kingdoms under these influences.

Section 1 Review

1. What was the importance of the Crusades?
2. What were the characteristics of the Cathedrals?
3. With all the new changes going on at this time, was Western Europe changed for the better? Why or why not?
4. How important was the Catholic Church for the development of Western Europe?

Politcal Development of England & France

Gradually, the growth of towns and villages, and the breakup of the feudal system were leading to more centralized government and the development of nations. Two particular nations will pioneer this development, England and France.

England

Interactive 11.4 England Before and After

Click on the image to look at England in 878 versus today!

For many years, England was invaded from various regions in Europe. However, the Angles and the Saxons stayed, forming their own ways and creating an Anglo-Saxon culture.

Around A.D. 800, Britain was battered by fierce raids from the Danish Vikings. The Anglo-Saxons were desperate to rid themselves of this threat. Anglo-Saxon king **Alfred the Great** managed to turn back the Viking invaders and by A.D. 871, he was able to unite the kingdom under one rule calling it England, "land of the Angles." (1)

In A.D. 1016 the Danish Vikings returned, and this time they were successful in taking over the "land of the Angles." The Danish king responsible for this victory was Canute. Rather than destroying the Anglo-Saxon culture, he molded it with his Viking culture. Eventually in

A.D. 1042, **King Edward the Confessor**, descendant of Alfred the Great, took back the throne.

A.D 1066 Edward the Confessor died without an heir to his throne. With the crown of England up for grabs, it came down to two men. The first was an Anglo-Saxon who claimed rights to the throne named **Harold Godwinson**. The second was a Norman, descendant of Viking, and cousin of the late King Edward named **William, Duke of Normandy France**. On **October 14, 1066**, Normans and Anglo-Saxons fought in the battle that will change English history called the **Battle of Hastings.** Eventually, the Normans will win this battle and Harold Godwinson will be killed. Following the victory, William quickly gained the support of the English lords by granted them land in exchanged for an oath of loyalty to him personality. William unified control of the lands and with him centralizing the government of England, he became known as William the Conqueror.

England's Evolving Government

Over the next centuries, William the Conqueror's descendants owned land in both England and France. The English king **Henry II** was able to add to his French territory by marrying **Eleanor of Aquitaine**. What made this woman so interesting is that she is the only women in history to have married two kings and have given birth to two kings. Henry ruled England from 1154-1189. He would strengthen his rule by sending royal judges to tax collect at least once a year. Henry also strengthened the English courts by creating a jury system, and forming a unified body of law that became known as common law.

Sometimes people make their name in the history books because they were a failure during their time. This would be true for our next English monarch **King John**. When Richard the Lion Hearted died in A.D. 1199, his brother King John took the throne. He was later nicknamed John Softsword because he failed as a military leader because he lost control of Normandy France. The loss forced confrontations with his nobility.

Another problem of King John's was his cruelty towards his subjects and his efforts to squeeze as much money out of them. By 1215, John raised taxes to all time high to finance his wars and the nobility revolted. What came next was for King John to put his mark into history by reluctantly signing

the most celebrated document in English history. On **June 15, 1215**, King John signed the **Magna Carta** (Great Charter). This document guaranteed certain basic political rights. These rights included no taxation without representation, a jury trial, and the protection of the law.

Another important step in the democratic government developing in England would fall into the hands of **King Edward I**. Edward needed to raise taxes to assist him in financing wars against France and Scotland. In 1295, Edward summoned two burgesses (citizens of wealth and property) from every county to serve as a parliament. Later on knights, burgesses, bishops, and lords met together to create a Model Parliament because of the new makeup of the system. By the 1400s, Parliament gradually formed two assembly's called the **House of Commons** (knights and burgesses), and the **House of Lords** (nobles and bishops).

France

After the breakup of Charlemagne's empire, France was divided into 47 feudal territories. In 987, the last member of the Carolingian family, **Louis the Sluggard**, died with no successor. **Hugh Capet**, a duke from the middle of France, succeeded him and began the Capetian dynasty of French kings that ruled from 987-1328.

One of the most important Capetian kings was **Philip II**, or also known as Philip Augustus. During his youth, Philip watched how his father lost land to King Henry II of England. When he took the throne at the age of 15, he set his goals at weakening the power of the English kings in France. Philip had little success against King Henry II and King Richard the Lion Hearted, but when it came to King John, well that was another story. Philip took control of Normandy from King John in 1204, and within two years tripled the lands under his control. Now that Philip had so much land to control, he wanted to strengthen his central government. To fulfill this interest, he created royal officials called bailiffs to preside over the king's courts and collect taxes. (2)

Philip's centralized government would continue to get stronger under his grandson, **Louis IX** rule from 1226-1270. Unlike his grandfather, Louis was pious and saintly. Louis would create a French appeals court, which could overturn the decisions of the local courts. These courts would strengthen the monarchy while weakening feudal ties. (1)

Interactive 11.5 Before and After

Click on the image to see France in 1180 and France today

In 1302, **Philip IV,** who ruled France from 1285-1314, was involved with some issues with the pope. Philip wanted the local priests of his kingdom to pay taxes, which the pope refused to allow. Philip believed that the power of the pope only goes as far as Church affairs and not political. For Philip to get the type of support he needed to push this policy he called for a meeting of the Estates-General. This meeting would include the First Estate (Church), and Second Estate (Lords). However, to get more support for himself and against the pope, Philip decided to invite commoners to join and form the Third Estate. (1)

England and France were just beginning to establish a democratic tradition. However, before these two kingdoms can move forward in this direction, they had to contend with a century of chaos that included plague and war.

Section 2 Review

1. Read the biographies of all of the monarchs mentioned in this section and explain their importance to either England or France.

The Plague & Hundred Years' War

The 1300s were filled with disasters with the arrival of a plague and wars between the kingdoms of England and France. It is no wonder that by the end of the century, the medieval way of life was beginning to disappear.

The Black Death (1)

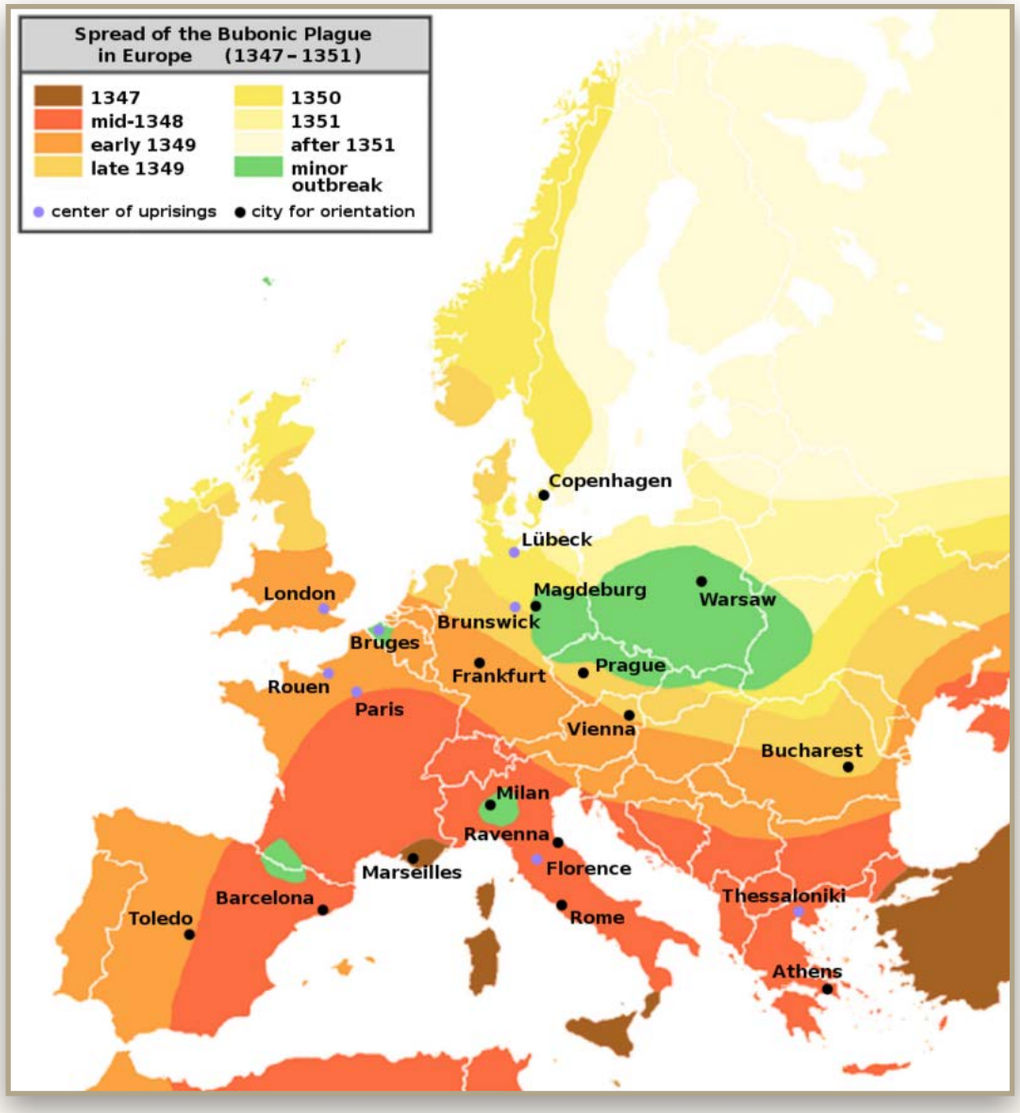
Black Death, or Bubonic Plague, hit Europe in 1347. Transmitted primarily by fleas and rats, the bacteria Y. Pestis swept across the continent, killing one third of the population by 1351. The bacteria is thought to have been endemic among rodent populations on the Asian steppes, and jumped to humans in Europe with great virulence. The onset of the disease was sudden; the symptoms were fever, weakness, delirium, lung distress, and dark-colored swellings (buboes) in the neck, armpit and groin areas. Quite often, those infected died within 1-2 days, including young and previously healthy individuals.

Interactive 11.6
Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn more about the Black Death

Cause of Plague (1)

The cause of its arrival was due to the revival of trade and commerce increased the potential for the spread of communicable diseases. Europe had not suffered a continent wide plague since the plague of Justinian in A.D. 535, and the unexposed populations of 1348 had no inherited immunity. Though prosperity had risen, nutrition and sanitation for most Europeans were very poor by modern standards, decreasing immune resistance in general. Many adults had also suffered as young children in the Great Famine of 1316-



1321, when several years of cold and wet weather caused crops to fail across the continent. This experience in childhood may also have compromised their resistance to the plague bacillus in later life.

The plague is thought to have been brought to Europe during a Mongol attack on Kaffa (in the Black Sea); when sickness forced the Mongols to abandon their attack, they catapulted a few plague victims into town before leaving. Ironically, this became a common practice for Europeans in castle siege. From there, merchants spread the disease to Constantinople, where it propagated throughout Europe, first by ship to Mediterranean ports such as Messina and Genoa, and then by land in all directions.

A shortage of wood fuel, due to cutting of forests for agriculture, resulted in the shutting down of bath houses which relied on burning wood to heat the water. Particularly in winter, only the rich could afford to bathe. This further contributed to poor hygienic conditions. Cities were also very poorly designed for hygiene. Citizens commonly dumped waste into the street which attracted rats, and thus fleas. Living in cities was also very close, which meant that fleas had little area to travel to infect another person.

The plague was blamed on many things in particular the Jews were a common scapegoat for the plague, including city leaders claiming that members of the Jewish community had poisoned the water supply, or spread a poisonous salve on the gates of the city.

It is important to understand that Europeans did not understand the real cause of the plague. To them the plague was a curse brought on them by their lack of piety, or the failings of the church, the cities' Jewish population, or even the configuration of the stars. Others even attributed the plague to bad air. To combat it, they carried kerchiefs or bags of "aromatics" that they could hold to their noses as needed.

Response and Consequences (1)

Some people thought the plague was punishment by God against sinners. The flagellants arose as a result. Flagellants whipped themselves to bleed, prayed for mercy, and called upon their congregations to repent sins. Wandering over plague-stricken central Europe, many groups of flagellants turned to banditry and violence. Towns and feudal lords eventually prohibited them or even tried to wipe them out. In addition, violence against Jews broke out, and mobs killed all who refused baptism. Many Jews were forced to flee their homes.

Physicians in medieval Europe used a mixture of trial-and-error methods and classical Greek or Roman sources to care for their patients. Without knowledge of microorganisms, or the role of rats and fleas in spreading the infection, doctors were unable to cure infected victims or limit the spread. As a result, plague sufferers survived or perished according to the general state of their health, and whatever genetic resistance they happened to possess.

Massive death opened the ranks for advancement in society, and as a result landlords made more concessions to obtain new tenant farmers. The supply of laborers plummeted, resulting in higher wages for workers. A low grain demand resulted in the drop of overall grain prices. Noblemen lost a portion of their wealth, and became more dependent upon monarchs and war for income and power.

Additionally, the plague resulted in the improvement of living standards for the peasantry and the urban working population. Peasants and artisans now had more luxuries and a better diet, and production shifted from manufacturing for a mass market to a small luxury market. However, the monetary disparity grew, as fewer people possessed proportionately greater money.

Finally, Europeans saw that the church's prayer did not cure the plague, and that even leaders of the church were dying. This caused the general populace to lose a great deal of faith in the church, and opened the door to many new and local religious movements which had previously been suppressed, a factor which helped prepare the coming of the Reformation a century later.

The Hundred Years' War (2) (3)

National monarchies were young creations, and therefore fragile. Dynastic instability (e.g., the inability to produce male heirs) plagued many states throughout the fourteenth century and led most seriously to the **Hundred Years' War**. Really a series of wars, this conflict started when the last Capetian king of France died without a successor. **King Edward III** of England, grandson of **Philip IV,** claimed the rights to the throne.

This war 1337-1453, dealt a fatal blow to the medieval idea of warfare. At times throughout the war, some combatants were still operating under medieval ideals of chivalry. This concept would change with the English bringing the longbow into warfare. Time and again, English longbow men demon-

Interactive 11.7 *Mr. Buckley's Wisdom*

Click on the image to learn more about the 100 Years War

strated the power of massed infantry against France's heavily mounted feudal knights in battles like: Battle of Crecy (August 26, 1346), Battle of Poitiers (September 19, 1356), Battle of Agincourt (October 25, 1415).

French fortunes revived upon the back of a divinely inspired peasant girl. In 1429, **Joan of Arc** believed the voice of God called her back to break the siege of Orleans. Despite her success, Joan was tried for witchcraft and burned at the stake once captured by the Burgundians and handed over to the English. Yet the tide had turned, and by 1453, England held only the city of Calais on the continent. Each nation then turned inward to resolve pressing political conflicts.

Some historians considered the end of the Hundred Years' War as the end of the Middle Ages. However, a rebirth was beginning to take shape in Europe which will lead people into the Renaissance.

Section 3 Review

1. Identify the pros (if any) and cons associated with the Black Death.
2. Summarize and outline the 100 Years' War.

Chapter 12

THE RENAISSANCE

The Rebirth Begins!

The Italian Renaissance of the 13th and 14th centuries spread through the rest of Europe, representing a time when Europe sought knowledge from the ancient world and moved out of the Dark Ages. There became a renewed interest in science and experimentation, and a focus on the importance of living well in the present as opposed to the afterlife as promoted by the Church. The Renaissance brought on an explosion in art, poetry, and architecture. New techniques and styles developed as these art forms moved away from the colder and darker styles of the Middle Ages. This period, in this view, represents Europe emerging from a long period of backwardness and the rise of trade and exploration. The Italian Renaissance is often labeled as the beginning of the "modern" epoch. (1)

Why Italy?

Italy was the first area of Europe to experience the Renaissance. Several reasons account for this early lead. Italy was not only the center of the Mediterranean, which made it a crossroads of trade; it also boasted centers of ancient culture.

After all, if artists wanted to imitate classical motifs, they need look no further than their own Roman backyard. Ideas followed in the wake of trade, particularly as humanists escaped the declining Byzantine Empire, being besieged by the Turks around 1453. (2)

While in most of Europe only ten percent of the population lived in cities, up to twenty five percent of Italians partook directly of the civic culture so essential to Renaissance humanism. Cities often act as magnets for trade, ideas, and culture; this was no less true during the Renaissance. (2)

Nobles played a vital role in Italy, just as they did in every European nation, though their attitudes tended to be more oriented to money-making and cultural accomplishments than elsewhere. A common blending of families in Italy involved cash strapped aristocrats and an up-and-coming wealthy merchant, thus creating new elites, where wealth and worldly achievement mattered more than simply status. (2)

In the fourteenth century, Italy was a collection of small and large city-states. No centralized authority existed to stamp out potentially threatening ideas. If artists or intellectuals found difficulty in one place, they could simply move to another and continue their work. This disunity later became a liability, but at that time, Italy benefited from the multiplicity of completing political centers. (2)

The Medici Family

The citizens of Florence fell into one of four main social classes. These included the grandi (the great), the rulers of the city; the popolo grosso (big people), the capitalist merchants (these challenged the grandi for power); the smaller business people, and the popolo minuto (little people), the lower economic classes, such as the paupers, who, despite constituting a third of the Florentine population, had no wealth at all. (3)

This division of society was prone to conflict, and eventually resulted in the successful Ciompi Revolt of 1378. The Ciompi Revolt was that of the poor, who revolted because of the constant feuds between the grandi and the popolo grosso, the anarchy from the Black Death, and the collapse of banks, which made the popolo minuto even poorer. After a while, the Ciompi Revolt led to a four-year reign by the popolo minuto until Cosimo de' Medici came into power in 1434 and restored the stability of Florence. (1)

Since the late 1200s, the city-state of Florence had a republican form of government. Following the Ciompi Revolt, Florence came under the rule of one powerful banking family, the Medici. The family had banks throughout Italy, and Cosimo de' Medici was the wealthiest European of Europe at the time. With his wealth, he was able to influence members of the Florentine government by giving them loans. For over thirty years, Cosimo ruled as a dictator of Florence. When Cosimo died in 1464, his family continued to control Florence. Cosimo's grandson, Lorenzo de Medici, came into power in 1469. Later in life he became known as Lorenzo the Magnificent. It would be powerful men like Lorenzo that will help finance the Renaissance movement. (4)

Humanism (1)

At the time, Italy was the center of culture in Europe. Middle-class writers were supported by noble patronage, and as a result, during the beginning of the Renaissance literature blossomed alongside classic revival. This resulted in the rise of humanism, an intellectual movement that advocated the study of history and literature as the chief means of identifying with the glories of the ancient world. **Humanism** advocated classical learning and active participation of the individual in civic affairs.

Renaissance scholars advocated the concept of "returning to the sources," attempting to reconcile the disciplines of the Christian faith with ancient learning. In addition, the concept of civic humanism arose, which advocated participation in government. Civilization was inspired by the writings of Roman emperors, and by the end of the 1400s intellectuals had a command of the Latin language.

The Renaissance conception of life and man's role on earth was more secular than in the past, but in no way was it nonreligious. It was now believed that God holds people above everything else, and that the greatest thing about being human is the human's free will to choose. People were celebrated, as Renaissance scholars argued that men are made in God's image, and that we should celebrate our God-given talents and abilities. People believed that life on Earth was intrinsically valuable, and that citizens should strive to be the best that they can. The emphasis of the Renaissance was on the individual rather than the collective.

Patrons and the Renaissance Man and Women

Even with this "rebirth," none of it would be possible without the patrons of the arts financially supporting the artists. Renaissance merchants and wealthy families would have their portraits painted or by donating art to the city to place in public squares, the wealthy demonstrated their own importance. (1)

Renaissance writers introduced the idea that all educated people were expected to create art. The ideal was to encourage people to master every area of study. A man who excelled in many fields was praised as a **"Renaissance Man."** An example of this was written by a fame diplomat named Baldassar Castiglione. In his book, *Book of the Courtier*, it became a how-to-manual on winning fame and influence among the rich and powerful. To gain position and fortune, Castiglione counsels the "Renaissance Man" to be widely read in the classics, including history, poetry, music, and philosophy, as well as know how to conduct himself in public. The courtier will be skilled in the military arts, not to mention cultured and polished. In addition, Castiglione advocated education for women, but of a particular kind: a musical instrument, poetry, and literacy. Abstract subjects such as math and science were reserved for men. (2)

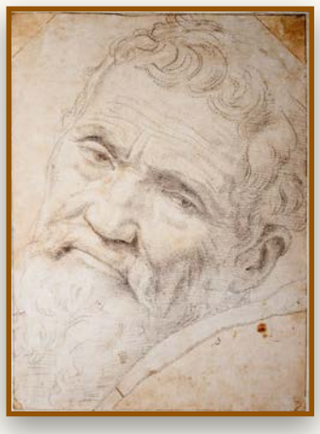
According to The Courtier, upper-class women also should know the classics and be charming. Often called the "First Lady of the World," Isabella d'Este married into the famous Gonzaga family of Mantua. After her husband departed for war, d'Este conducted diplomacy on his behalf. She also found time to establish schools for girls, attract humanists to her court, and write hundreds of letters of literary quality. (2)

Renaissance Revolutionizes Art

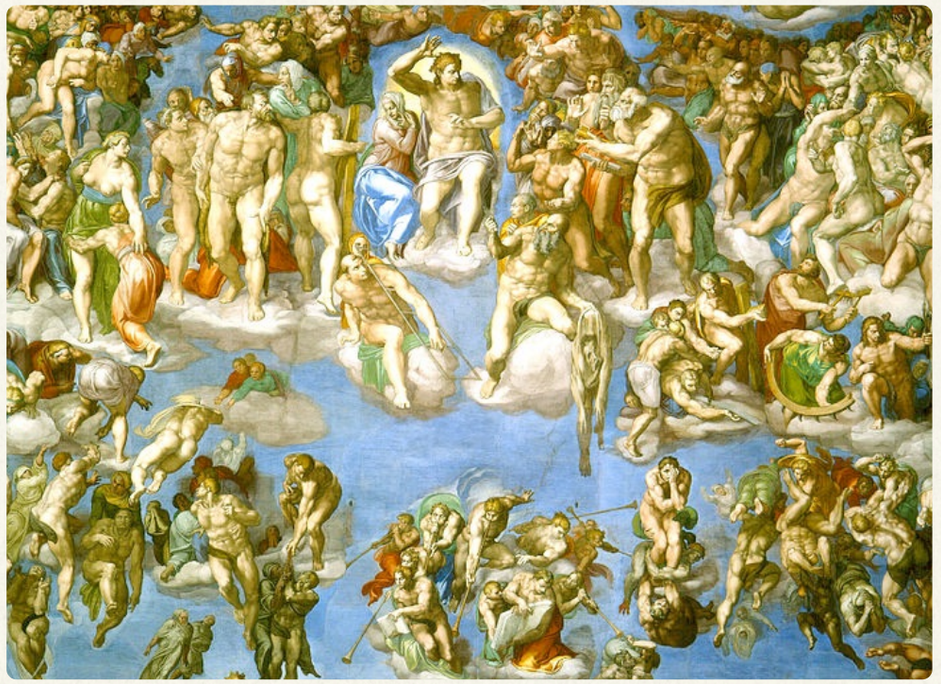
As the Renaissance advanced, artistic styles changed. Renaissance art tended to focus on the human body with accurate proportions, and the most common subjects of art were religion, mythology, portraits, and the use of classical (Greco-Roman) subjects. Artisans of the Renaissance used oil paint to add shadow and light, and the use of the vanishing point in art became prominent during this time. (1)

One particular artist named Masaccio (1401-1428) rediscovered the technique of the perspective, which shows three dimensions on a flat surface. Masaccio employed perspective geometry for the first time in his Holy Trinity, and also realized a depth of realism and three-dimensional space in a series of frescoes in the Brancacci Chapel. (2)

Michelangelo Buonarroti (1475-1564): With a name synonymous with genius, Michelangelo excelled in all the artistic media - sculpture (David, Pieta), painting (Sistine Chapel, Last Judgement), and architecture (St. Peter's Basilica Dome, Laurentian Library). The master's nudes offer a heroic vision of the human form influenced by neo-Platonic philosophy, though his later works express a darker vision. In addition, Michelangelo composed poetry and was working on another Pieta at the age of 89 when he died. (2)



Gallery 12.1 The Works of Michelangelo



The Last Judgement

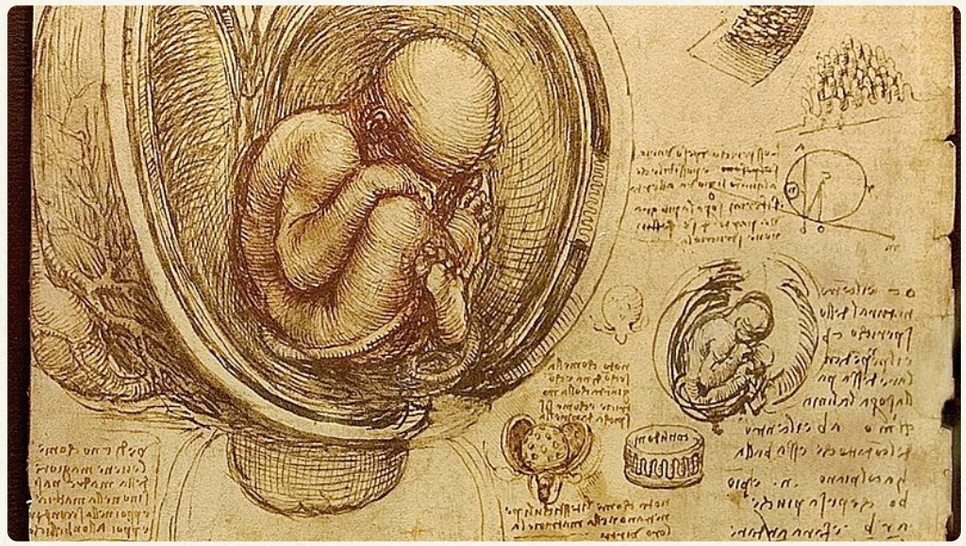
Donatello (1386-1466): Donatello revived the free-standing sculpture. His depiction of David is the first full-size cast in bronze since ancient times. The sculptor imbued his forms with psychological detail and expression, representing Renaissance naturalism. (2)

Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519): Perhaps the foremost "Renaissance Man," da Vinci gained fame for just a few paintings - Mona Lisa, The Last Supper, and Madonna of the Rocks. His diverse interests led him into science, engineering, and anatomy. Da Vinci introduced the notion of systematic observation, which he tracked in his notebooks, written backwards to make it difficult for imitators to steal his ideas. (2)

Gallery 12.2 The Works of Donatello

St. John the Baptist

Gallery 12.3 The Works of Leonardo



Study of the Womb

Raphael (1483-1520): The youngest of the great masters, and considered a rival of Michelangelo's, Raphael often sought artistic patronage in Rome, where the Renaissance refocused after about 1490. Raphael's School of Athens stands as a tribute to the ancient world and his fellow artists, as the Greek philosophers take on the physical appearance of his contemporaries. In addition, Raphael painted numerous portraits of the Madonna, and the Mother of Jesus. (2)

Gallery 12.4 The Works of Raphael

Christ with Two Angels

Renaissance Writers Change Literature

Renaissance writers produced works that reflected their time, but they also used techniques that writers rely on today. Like many writers prior to this time period, many wrote in the vernacular, writer's native language, instead of Latin.

Petrarch (1304-1374): Often called the "Father of Humanism," Petrarch helped popularize the notion that Italy was entering a new age of learning and individualism, distinct from the age of "ignorance" characteristic of the Middle Ages. Petrarch concerned himself with reviving a more pure form of Latin and, as such, spent most of his literary energies composing verse in the language, much of it related to a psychological portrait of humans and the theme of love, where he wrote in sonnets, fourteen line poems, of his beloved Laura. (2)

Giovanni **Boccaccio** (1313-1375): Wrote *The Decameron*, a short story about the lives of people living during the Black Death. The book focused on people's responses to the plague rather than God's wrath. In this sense, the book was not about religion, but rather about people, a relatively new concept at the time. (1)

Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527): Wrote *The Prince* which became an essential work of the Renaissance. For the first time, politics was presented as an objective science. Machiavelli recorded successful rulers and then drew conclusions without judgments. In other words, Machiavelli's politics were divorced from morality and religion.

Machiavelli's research showed that a successful leader of a nation acted in a number of ways:

- His power should be held as more important than ethics and morals.
- It is better to be feared, not loved, but he should never be hated.
- His advisers should be truthful and loyal, he should avoid flatterers, and he should select old and experienced advisers because they lack ambition to attempt to steal his power.
- He should be both the lion (brave) and the fox (cunning).
- He should break treaties and promises when it benefits him and he should assume everyone else will do the same. (1)

Toward the end of the 15th century, Renaissance ideas began to spread north from Italy to a region of France called Flanders. The Northern Renaissance will be our next stop on this journey through history.

Section 1 Review

1. Why did the Renaissance start in Italy?
2. What does the term Renaissance mean?
3. What does humanism and Renaissance Man mean?
4.

The Northern Renaissance

The Southern Renaissance in Italy occurred earlier, from about 1300 to 1600, while the Northern Renaissance occurred later, ending in about 1630. The Southern Renaissance emphasized pagan and Greco-Roman ideals, and as a result was considerably more secular, while the Northern Renaissance advocated "Christian" humanism, or humility, tolerance, focus on the individual, and the importance of earnest life on earth. While the Southern Renaissance emphasized art and culture, the Northern Renaissance emphasized the sciences and new technology. This failed to occur in the south primarily because the Roman Catholic Church stunted learning and the sciences. While the Northern Renaissance was religiously diverse, with the rise of Protestantism and a great deal of religious division, the Southern Renaissance was entirely Roman Catholic. The Southern Renaissance saw far fewer universities, while the Northern Renaissance saw more universities and education. Also, Northern Renaissance humanists pushed for social reform based on Christian ideals. This northern movement happened first in Flanders, which was a rich from long-distance trade and the cloth industry. (1)

Northern Renaissance Art

Albrecht Durer (1471-1528): A German painter, printmaker, mathematician, and theorist from Nuremberg. His high-quality woodcuts (nowadays often called Meisterstiche or "master prints") established his reputation and influence across Europe when he was still in his twenties, and he has been conventionally regarded as the greatest artist of the Northern Renaissance. His vast body of work includes altarpieces, religious works, numerous portraits and self-portraits, and copper engravings. The woodcuts, such as the Apocalypse series (1498), retain a more Gothic flavor than the rest of his work. His well-known engravings include the Knight, Death, and the Devil (1513), Saint Jerome in his Study (1514) and Melencolia I (1514), which has been the subject of extensive analysis and interpretation. His watercolors also mark him as one

of the first European landscape artists, while his ambitious woodcuts revolutionized the potential of that medium. (2)

Gallery 12.5 The Works of Albrecht Durer

St. Jerome

Hans Holbein (1497-1543): A German artist and printmaker who worked in a Northern Renaissance style. He is best known as one of the greatest portraitists of the 16th century. He also produced religious art, satire, and Reformation propaganda, and made a significant contribution to the history of book design. Holbein would eventually immigrate to England where he painted portraits of King Henry VIII and other members of the English royal family. (3)

Gallery 12.6 The Works of Hans Holbein

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Jan van Eyck (1395-1441): An early Netherland painter, and one of the most significant Northern Renaissance artists of the 15th century. He was known for perfecting the oil painting techniques, which enabled artists to produce strong colors on a hard surface that could survive for centuries. Outside of the Ghent Altarpiece completed with his brother Hubert van Eyck, only about twenty five surviving works are confidently attributed to him, all dated between 1432 and 1439. (4)

Gallery 12.7 The Works of Jan van Eyck

The Arnolfini Portrait

Pieter Bruegel (1525-1569): A Dutch Renaissance painter and printmaker from Brabant, known for his landscapes and peasant scenes like Peasant Wedding (so called genre painting). He is sometimes referred to as the "Peasant Bruegel." From 1559, he dropped the "h" from his name and signed his paintings as Bruegel. (5)

Gallery 12.8 The Works of Pieter Bruegel

The Peasant Wedding

Northern Writers and Playwrights

Desiderius Erasmus (1466-1536): Stood as the most famous intellectual of his day and his name today remains a symbol of tolerance and scholarship. Raised in monastic environment, he never took vows, claiming he had "a Catholic soul but a Lutheran stomach." With humor and style, Erasmus poked fun at the clergy and its abuses in works such as the *Praise of Folly*, which was eventually placed on the Index of Prohibited Books. Erasmus's primary message, as seen in *Handbook of the Christian Knight* and *On Civility in Children*, lay in the power of education to promote true reverence for God and in living out the Gospel message. Protected by powerful patrons, Erasmus condemned fanaticism of all kinds, and while his reputation remained undiminished by his death, his voice of moderation had been drowned out by extremists on all sides. He might have opposed the sentiment, but it is often said that "Erasmus laid the egg that Luther hatched." (6)

William Shakespeare (1564-1616): An English poet, playwright, and actor, widely regarded as the greatest writer in the English language and the world's pre-eminent dramatist. He is often called England's national poet and the "Bard of Avon." His extant works, including some collaborations, consist of about thirty eight plays, one hundred and fifty four sonnets, two long narrative poems, and a few other verses, of which the authorship of some is uncertain. His plays have been translated into every major living language and are performed more often than those of any other playwright. Some of his most famous plays include the tragedies *Macbeth, Hamlet, Othello, Romeo and Juliet, and the comedies A Midsummer Night's Dream and The Taming of the Shrew.* (7)

Printing Spreads Renaissance Ideas

Johann Gutenberg (1395-1468): Thought the Chinese invented the printing press, they did not capitalize on their success. Johann Gutenberg and his colleagues perfected the skill of moveable type in the 1450s, publishing their famous Gutenberg Bible, of which several dozen still exist. Books continued to be expensive luxury items for the upper classes, but the dye had been cast. No longer could church or state exercise a monopoly on education or intellectual life. Certainly, the printing press assisted in the spread of the Renaissance and helped to establish standard versions of texts, but it's most important impact was to secure the success of the Protestant Reformation. Few would deny that the invention of the printing press stands as one of the most, if not the most, significant technological developments of the past millennium. (6)

Section 2 Review

1. Identify all the artists and authors and explain their importance & significance to the Renaissance.

Chapter 13

ABSOLUTE MONARCHS

"Louis XIV, King of France, after Lefebvre - Les collections du château de Versailles" by After Claude Lefèbvre - Les collections du château de Versailles. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Louis_XIV,_King_of_France,_after_Lefebvre_-_Les_collections_du_ch%C3%A2teau_de_Versailles.jpg#/media/File:Louis_XIV,_King_of_France,_after_Lefebvre_-_Les_collections_du_ch%C3%A2teau_de_Versailles.jpg

Absolute Monarchs

Spanish Empire

At the center of the religious conflicts of the second half of the sixteenth century stood **Philip II** (1556-1598), ruler of Spain and the Low Countries, parts of Italy, and the New World. Like his Hapsburg father, Charles I (V Holy Roman Emperor), Philip saw himself as the political protector of Catholicism in Europe, though Philip lacked Charles's more cosmopolitan back. Philip was a Spaniard and was influenced by that nation's strong Catholic tradition and crusading mentality. El Escorial, Philip's palace on the barren plains outside Madrid, reflected the ruler's personality. Part residence, part monastery, and religious retreat, the Escorial acted as the central governing point of a huge empire stretching across oceans. (1)

Philip's empire provided him with great wealth. By 1600, the New World (America), supplied Spain with 339,000 pounds of gold and around 16,000 tons of silver. With this wealth, Spain was able to support a large army of about 50,000 soldiers. Philip was also able to embrace a golden age in the arts.

El Greco (1541 – 1614): A painter, sculptor and architect of the Spanish Renaissance. El Greco, "The Greek," was his nickname and often puzzled the people of his time by painting

with clashing colors, distorted the human figure, and expressed emotion symbolically in his paintings. His techniques showed a deep Catholic faith of Spain with his paintings of saints and martyrs.

Diego Velazquez (baptized in 1599 – 1660): A Spanish painter who was the leading artist in the court of King Philip IV and one of the most important painters of the Spanish Golden Age. He was an individualistic artist of the contemporary Baroque period, important as a portrait artist. In addition to numerous renditions of scenes of historical and cultural significance, he painted scores of portraits of the Spanish royal family, other notable European figures, and commoners, culminating in the production of his masterpiece Las Meninas (1656). (2)

Miguel de Cervantes (1547–1616): A Spanish novelist, poet, and playwright. His major work, *Don Quixote*, considered to be the first modern European novel, is a classic of Western literature, and is regarded amongst the best works of fiction ever written. It was about a Spanish nobleman who went crazy after reading too many books about knights and tried to become one. Some critics believe that Cervantes was mocking chivalry and the Middle Ages, while others believed that it was about an idealistic person who was frustrated with his materialistic world. (3)

Spanish Empire Weakens and Lose the Dutch (4)

In 1566, on the Assumption of the Virgin day, a group of Calvinists in the Netherlands stormed Catholic churches, destroying statues and relics in a town just outside of Antwerp. Dutch Calvinists resented the Catholic religion and their conflicts with the religion, as well as Spanish King Philip II's deep devoutness and close-mindedness toward other religions. The high nobility pleaded with him for more tolerance but some of them were put to death for their insolence. One of the underlying reasons was that Philip wanted to establish an absolute monarchy in the Netherlands and the religious issue gave him a way to put pressure on the parliament. William of Orange escaped to Germany from where he tried to incite a rebellion from 1568 onwards but with little success at first. In 1570 the coastal regions got hit by a weather-related disaster, the All Saints flood that left many regions devastated and the Spanish authorities showed little compassion. **William of Orange**, then encouraged Sea Beggars, or pirates, to invade the ports of the coast. In 1572 the small town of Brielle was taken by what

were no more than outlaws, greeted enthusiastically by the population. The town declared itself for the prince of Orange and this example was followed by a number of other towns in the relatively inaccessible provinces of Holland and Zealand.

Philip sent Spanish troops in response. They took Naarden and Haarlem and inflicted terrible suffering on the population. Other towns proved far harder to take and this caused Philip to run out of money. In what became known as the Spanish Fury, in November of 1576, Philip's unpaid mercenary armies attacked the city of Antwerp killing 7,000 in 11 days. Antwerp was by far the richest city at the time and the influential merchants got the parliament to convene and raise money to pay off the marauding mercenaries. By doing so the parliament basically took over control from the king in far Madrid and this was the last thing the king wanted. He sent more troops with an ultimatum to the parliament to surrender or else and appointed the Duke of Parma as the new governor of the Netherlands. In 1579, the southern ten provinces of the Netherlands, which were Catholic, signed the Union of Arras, expressing loyalty to Philip. During that same year, William of Orange united seven northern states in the **Union of Utrecht**, which formed the Dutch Republic that openly opposed Philip and Spain. In 1581, the Spanish army was sent to retake the United Provinces of the Netherlands, or the Dutch Republic, who had just declared their independence.

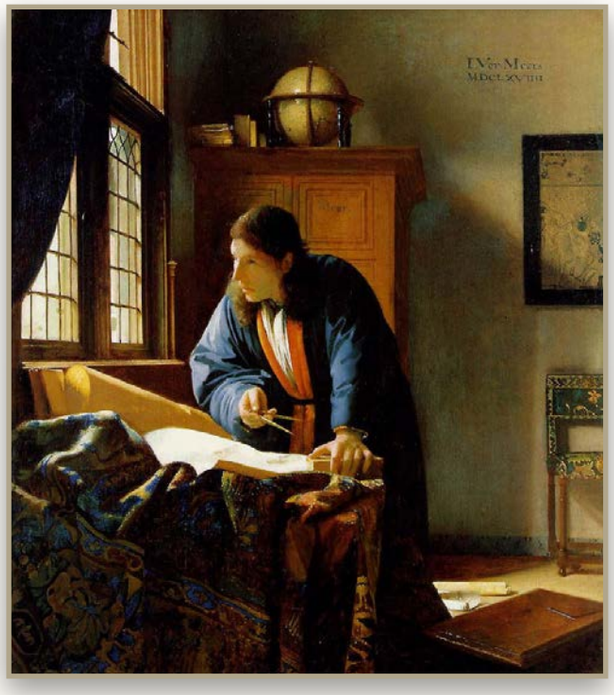
On July 10, 1584, William of Orange was assassinated, and after his death, the Duke of Parma made progress in his reconquest, capturing significant portions of the Dutch Republic. However, England, under the leadership of Elizabeth I, assisted the Dutch with troops and horses, and as a result Spain was never able to regain control of the north. Spain finally recognized Dutch independence in 1648.

Independent Dutch Prosper

During the 1600s, the Netherlands became what Florence had been during the 1400s. It boasted not only the best banks but also many of the best artists in Europe.

Rembrandt van Rijn (1606 – 1669): A Dutch painter and etcher. He is generally considered one of the greatest painters and printmakers in European art and the most important in Dutch history. His contributions to art came in a period of great wealth and cultural achievement that historians call the Dutch Golden Age when Dutch Golden Age painting, although in many ways antithetical to the Baroque style that dominated Europe, was extremely prolific and innovative, and gave rise to important new genres in painting. He was known for painting portraits

of wealthy middle-class merchants. (5)



Jan Vermeer (1632 – 1675): A Dutch painter who specialized in domestic interior scenes of middle-class life. Vermeer was a moderately successful provincial genre painter in his lifetime. He seems never to have been particularly wealthy, leaving his wife and children in debt at his death, perhaps because he produced relatively few paintings. (6)
Vermeer worked slowly and with great care, using bright colors and sometimes expensive pigments, with a preference for lapis lazuli and Indian yellow. He is particularly renowned for his masterly treatment and use of light in his work. (7)

Absolutism in Europe (8)

Even though Philip II lost his Dutch possessions, he was a forceful ruler in many ways. During the next few centuries, many European monarchs would also claim the authority to rule without limits on power.

These rulers believed in being an absolute monarch, kings or queens who held all of the power within their states' boundaries. Absolute monarchs believed in divine right, the idea that God created the monarchy and that the monarch acted as God's representatives on Earth. An absolute monarch answered only to God, not to his or her subjects. Only with such freedom could they rule absolutely, as did the most famous monarch of his time, Louis XIV of France.

Section 1 Review

1. How is Philip II a great example of an absolute monarch?
2. How does the art of Spain reflect the time period?
3. How important was the Dutch revolt to the downfall of the Spanish absolute rule? Explain.

Reign of the Sun King

France's Wars of Religion (1)

France's long series of religious conflicts grew from religious and political roots. Despite Catholic kings attempts to stamp out the spread of Protestant faiths, Calvinism continued to grow in the kingdom. Calvinism found fertile ground among the French aristocracy in particular, perhaps because members already believed themselves as "the elect." By 1560, fully forty percent of French nobles advocated the **Huguenot** faith (as French Protestants were called), which, because nobles held important positions in the government and military, posed a threat to the Catholic Valois monarchy.

Religious conflict in France was really played out in a series of thirteen short wars. In 1572, **Henry Bourbon** agreed to marry Catherine de' Medici's daughter as a sign of reconciliation. However, during the wedding celebration in Paris, rumors flared that Protestants were plotting to take over the government. What followed was a slaughter of the Protestant nobles, in Paris and throughout France, known as the **St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre**. In all, approximately ten

thousand French Protestants were killed, though Henry Bourbon escaped by converting to Catholicism (a conversion he quickly renounced). The event seemed to show the corruption of the Valois monarchy and deepened resistance to it.

The final stage of France's civil war is called the War of the Three Henry's. In 1588, Henry Guise (leader of the ultra-Catholics) took the city of Paris, threatening the Valois hold on the nation. Henry III, of Valois, felt he had no alternative but to form an alliance against the ultra-Catholics with

Henry Bourbon, whom he promised to make next in line to the throne. On the pretext of compromise, both Henry's invited Guise to the palace and had him assassinated. In reprisal, a fanatical monk killed Henry III in 1589, making Henry Bourbon (IV) ruler of France. However, Henry IV's way to Paris was barred by Spanish troops, and he would spend the next decade winning control of the nation. To bring peace to France, Henry converted back to Catholicism, supposedly saying ***"Paris is worth a mass,"*** and then engineered the **Edict of Nantes**, which allowed Huguenots to practice their religion outside of Paris and fortify towns to protect their hard-won liberties. Over the next several years, Henry IV became one of the most beloved monarchs in French history and established a strong Bourbon dynasty, laying the foundations for absolutism.

The Growth of the New French Dynasty

Henry IV's strong rule allowed France to survive his assassination in 1610 and the regency of his wife, Marie de Medici's, on behalf of their son, **Louis XIII**. Louis XIII relied strongly on the advice of his talented and shrewd advisor, **Cardinal Richelieu**, who increased direct and indirect taxes. Louis and Richelieu concerned themselves with curbing the power of the nobility. To this effect, Richelieu banned dueling, employed spies to monitor the provincial nobility, and appointed intendants, or local officials, whose job it were to be the "eyes and ears of the monarchy." (1)

The efforts of Henry IV and Richelieu to strengthen the French monarchy paved the way for the most powerful ruler in French history - Louis XIV. Early in Louis's reign, the real ruler of France was Cardinal Mazarin, who continued many of the policies of his predecessor, Richelieu. Upon Mazarin's death in 1661, Louis at the age of twenty three took personal control of government. (1)

Louis XIV Bourbon of France rose to power in 1643. He was married to Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. His power stemmed from the fact that during his reign he maintained a powerful, unified France. Louis and

William III Stuart of Orange were arch-enemies during this time; however, Louis maintained the upper hand and was on the offensive against William during that time. (2)

Louis desired control over the Netherlands because of its economic power as a result of trade, because he wanted to crush Calvinists and Protestants, and because he desired increased territory. Indeed, he advised his heir, Louis XV, "Do not imitate me in my taste for war." His aggressive policy demanded to finance the largest European army of 280,000 men. (2)

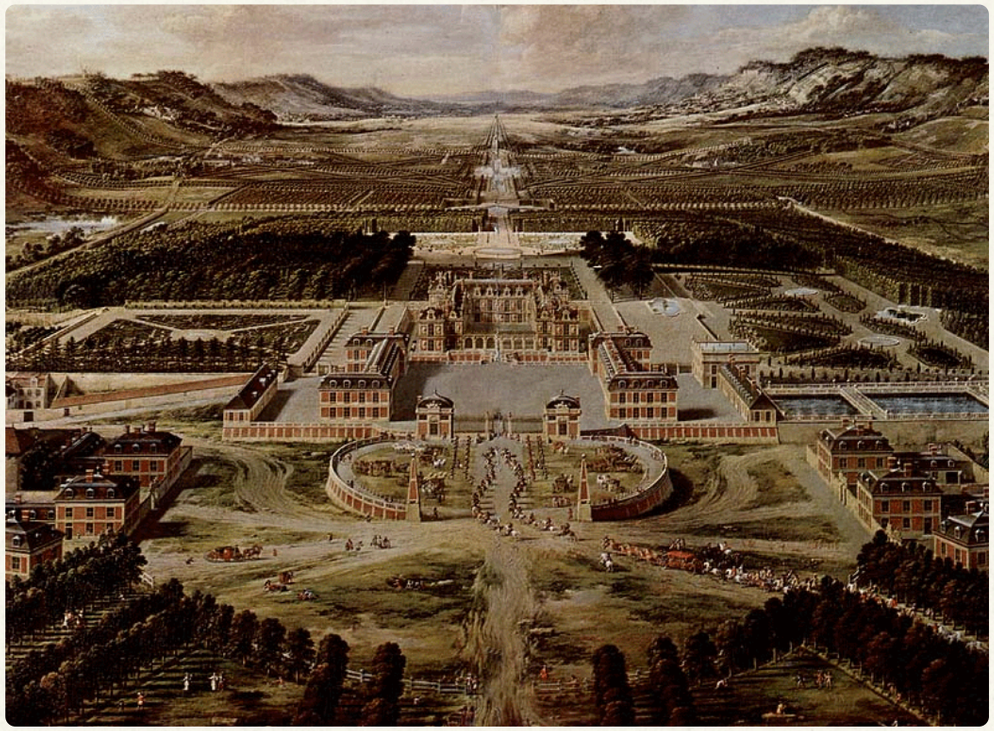
Louis' wars resulted in horrendous results and poverty for the French people, and Protestants despised Louis. His economic policy was headed by Jean Baptiste Colbert, and his nation was a model in enacting mercantilism. During his reign, France became the dominant country in language, culture, and dress. (2)

Louis allegedly famously declared, ***"L'etat c'est moi," or "I am the state,"*** and his reign exemplifies absolutism. French Bishop Bossuet declared that it was the divine right of monarchs to rule, concluding that kings were God's anointed representatives on earth. Louis acted upon this belief, governing France as if he were placed on earth by God to rule. (2)

Overall, Louis' foreign goals were territorial expansion and the spread of Catholicism. (2)

Louis was highly successful in his domestic ambitions to achieve absolute power through centralized bureaucracy. He successfully controlled rebellious nobles and made himself the center of French power and culture. People depended upon him for advancement and thrived on his goodwill. Louis also established the palace at **Versailles,** which took fourteen years to construct. Versailles was modeled by every other major European country, and it successfully kept nobles occupied, distracting them from the desire to have a say in government. In 1685, Louis revoked the Edict of Nantes, stripping Calvinists of their rights in France. (2)

Gallery 13.1 Palace at Versailles



"Palace of Versailles" by Pierre Patel - Scan from the original workISBN 7-5347-1397-8. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Palace_of_Versailles.gif#/media/File:Palace_of_Versailles.gif

Interactive 13.1 The History of Versailles

Click on the image to watch about the history of this famous royal residence

The War of Spanish Succession

Philip IV Hapsburg of Spain married Marianna Hapsburg of Austria, and the two of them produced Charles II, the physically and mentally retarded ruler of Spain. Since Charles was incapable of producing heirs, upon his death bed he was left to decide who would rule Spain after his death. France argued that they had the best claim to the throne, since they were Catholic, strong, and Charles' half-sister was married to Louis XIV. As a result, Charles left the throne to Philip V Bourbon, the grandson of Louis XIV. War broke out as a result, pitting a coalition led by William III Orange of the Netherlands against France in an effort to maintain the European balance of power. The war resulted in the **Peace of Utrecht (via the Treaty of Utrecht),** at which it was agreed that the ruler of Spain had to give up his or her claim to the French throne. Thus, Philip was recognized as the King of Spain, but the unification of France and Spain was barred. Spain also lost its territories in Belgium and Italy at the Peace of Utrecht, a source of much resentment of Spaniards towards their new government. (2)

Louis XIV died in 1715. Absolute rule did not die with Louis XIV. His enemies in Prussia and Austria had been experimenting with their own forms of absolute monarchies.

Section 2 Review

1. How did the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre shape the absolute monarchy in France?
2. Explain how Louis XIII and Louis XIV rose to power in France.
3. How does Louis XIV personify what it means to be an absolute monarch?
4. How important was the palace of Versailles to the reputation of Louis XIV?
5. What was the War of Spanish Succession?

Central Europe

The Thirty Years' War

Prior to the world wars of the twentieth century, the most devastating conflict in European history was the **Thirty Years' War.** The conflict began as a civil war over religion in Germany but escalated into a continental conflagration involving territorial and political ambitions. Years before war started, German Catholics and Protestants geared up for battle by forming alliances with outside powers. These alliances, the **Protestant Union** and **Catholic League**, ensured that when war did come, it would involve the great powers of Europe. (1)

Following the Peace of Augsburg, Germany stood divided between Lutheran and Catholic states. However, the treaty did not take into account the fastest growing denomination, Calvinism. It became apparent that neither Protestant nor Catholic leaders had any intention of treating Augsburg as a permanent settlement to Germany's religious division. What complicated matters was the elective nature of the Holy Roman Emperor, nominally the political leader of Catholicism and still a

position of importance. According to the Golden Bull of 1356, the emperor was elected by seven states, three of which were controlled by Catholic rulers and three by Protestants. To gain control of the last electoral state Bohemia, the next Hapsburg in line **Ferdinand II**, promised the Bohemian nobles he would respect their religious liberties if they would elect him the king of Bohemia. After Ferdinand was elected king in 1618, he betrayed his promise to the Bohemian nobles, thus initiating the conflict. (1)

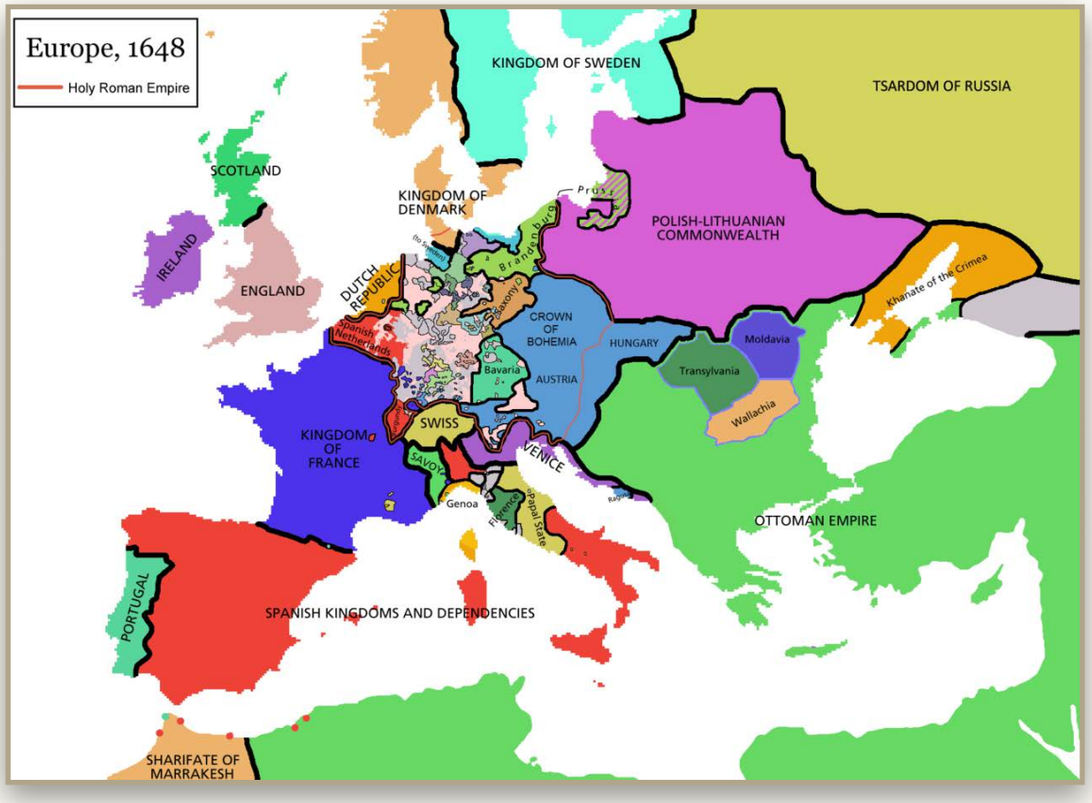
The Thirty Years' War lasted from 1618 to 1648. During the first twelve years, Hapsburg armies crushed the troops hired by the Protestant princes. The Hapsburg victories would not last. In 1630, Sweden's great military leader, **Gustavus Adolphus**, entered the conflict to revive the Protestant cause and to secure trade in the Baltic. With the help of Cardinal Richelieu and Louis XIII of France, Gustavus's armies drove the Hapsburg armies out of northern Germany. However, Gustavus Adolphus was killed in battle in 1632.

Peace of Westphalia (2)

The war did great damage to Germany. The population dropped by four million people. Both trade and agriculture were disrupted, and Germany's economy was ruined. The Peace of Westphalia ended the war. The treaty had these important consequences:

•Weakened the Hapsburg states of Spain and Austria
•Strengthened France by awarding it German territories
•Made German princes independent of the Holy Roman emperor
•Ended religious wars in Europe
•Introduced a new method of peace negotiation whereby all participants meet to settle the problems of a war and decide the terms of peace

Historians often view the Westphalian settlement as the "final nail in the coffin of the Middle Ages" because it recognized the internal sovereignty of each nation over its own religious affairs and ended any hopes of the future religious unity of Europe.



Central Europe

One of the powerful families of Central Europe was the Hapsburgs of Austria. In 1711, **Charles VI** became the Hapsburg ruler. With the diversity of people he was responsible for - Czechs, Hungarians, Italians, Croatians, and Germans, it made it difficult at first to rule. Only the fact that one Hapsburg ruler wore the Austrian, Hungarian, and Bohemian crowns kept the empire together. (2)

Charles VI spent much of his reign persuading leaders of Europe to sign an agreement to recognize Charles's eldest daughter **Maria Theresa** as the heir to all his Hapsburg territories. In theory, the agreement guaranteed Maria Theresa a peaceful reign. However, that will not be the case since her main enemy was Prussia, a state north of Austria. (2)

The rise of Prussia in the seventeenth century was a surprise. A scattered nation with a small population and few natural resources, Prussia relied heavily on three factors for its amazing rise to power:

•Skillful & resolute leadership from the Hollenzollern dynasty
•Efficient use of resources & an outstanding military tradition

Frederick William, the "Great Elector" (1648) was the first in a line of great Prussian rulers. To gain the support of the Prussian nobility, the Junkers, Frederick William gave them important positions in the army and allowed them almost complete power over their serfs. In exchange, the aristocracy agreed to accept Hohenzollern leadership and an excise tax to fund the activities of the state. With these funds, Frederick William erected the skeleton of the Prussian state. To collect the taxes, Frederick William created the General War Commissariat, which at first provisioned the army but later evolved into a state bureaucracy. The Hohenzollern rulers generally lived a Spartan existence, allowing most of the state's revenues to flow into the army. Frederick William's raising of a large army was not intended to be used for expansion but rather protection of Prussia. (1)

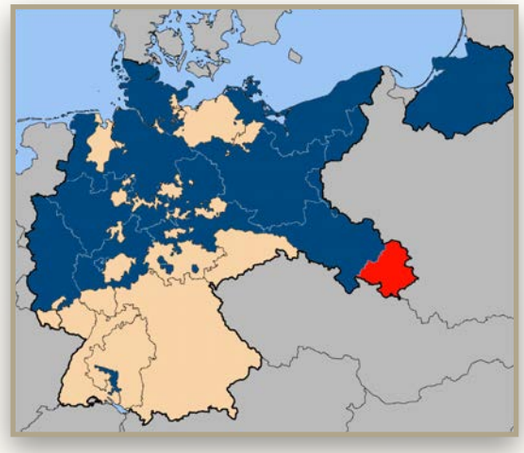
During the War of Spanish Succession, the Hapsburg emperor called on the support of Prussia to drive out the French from Germany. As a reward for his support, the duke of Prussia earned himself a new title, King of Prussia. The first great King of Prussia proved to be **Frederick William I**, not to be confused with Frederick William, the "Great Elector." Frederick William's per-

sonality and approach to governing were strict, paternalistic, and austere. State funds were used judiciously to augment the size of the army (up to 83,000 at Frederick William's death) and often came at the expense of the royal household budget. Another curiosity of Frederick William's was his penchant for tall soldiers. In the Potsdam Regiment, men were required to be between 6 to 7 feet in height, perhaps to intimidate the potential enemies. However, Frederick William fought no wars in the region. This feat he left for the son with whom he never got along, Frederick II. (1)

War of Austrian Succession, 1740 - 1748 (1)

The War of Austrian Succession began with a cynical attack by **Frederick II "The Great,"** King of Prussia, on Austria in defiance of the Pragmatic Sanction. Like a swarm of vultures, other nations (Bavaria, Saxony, Spain) rushed in to claim territorial prizes from the threatened empire. In continuance of their longtime opposition to the Hapsburgs, the French joined the assault in alliance with Prussia. To prevent the dismemberment of Austria and maintain the balance of power on the continent, Britain joined the fray on the side of the new Hapsburg ruler, Maria Theresa. In this way, the two primary rivalries in European politics merged into a complex conflict, which would be fought in the two phase (Seven Years' War is the second phase).

Frederick was almost equally matched to Maria Theresa. In the act of political theater, Maria Theresa held aloft her newborn son (the future Joseph II) before the Hungarian nobles in 1741 to appeal for their support, which they gave in a spasm of chivalric fervor. Though Maria eventually lost **Silesia**, she did well to hold onto most of her other possessions by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. The treaty reflected an Anglo-French agreement in which the Hapsburg ruler had little say.



Seven Years' War, 1756 - 1763 (1)

The Seven Years' War stands as Frederick II's darkest and finest hour. Though outnumbered by his enemies almost 10 to 1, Frederick fought brilliantly, even when his capital Berlin was burned to the ground and all seemed lost. Britain provided primarily financial support in order to concentrate its energies on the colonial conflict in America with France. Frederick was aided by the disorganization of his opponent, who never seemed able to coordinate their attacks, and the French lack of enthusiasm for their new Austrian alliance. Despite his sometimes desperate situation and aging seemingly 20 years in 7 years' time, Frederick once again was able to hold onto Silesia by the Treaty of Hubertusburg.

Fighting between France and Great Britain proved more decisive. Under the brilliant leadership of William Pitt the Elder, Britain won victories on land and sea in North America, the Caribbean, and in India. France found itself again depleted by fighting major wars on the continent of Europe and overseas. France and Britain both used their East India companies to exploit the decaying Mogul Empire in India, enlisting local rulers and warlords in pursuit of their interest. However, with its superior naval forces, Britain emerged victorious on balance, a fact that was reflected in the Treaty of Paris (1756). This treaty gave Great Britain sole access to North America east of the Mississippi River and gained the dominant position in India.

Russia

Ivan IV, called Ivan the Terrible was three years old when he became into power in 1533. His young career was disrupted by struggles for power among Russia's landowning nobles called boyars. Ivan's "bad period" of rule began in 1560 after Anastasia died and he blamed the boyars of poisoning his wife. He turned on his people and organized a police force, whose job was to hunt down and murder people Ivan considered traitors. (2)

When Ivan died in 1584, the throne was left to his second and weakest son (the older one was killed three years earlier by his own father). Ivan's son was weak and died without an heir and in 1613, representatives from many Russian cities choose Michael Romanov, grandnephew of Anastasia to rule. The Romanov dynasty was formed and will last for 300 years. However, it is considered that the greatest of Czar's was **Peter the Great**. (2)

Peter installed an absolute monarchy in Russia, with absolutely no concept of the social contract. Serfdom still remained strong in Russia, with no middle class nor urbanization. In Russia, advancement was based upon merit rather than birth or blood line. (3)

The ultimate goal of Peter's foreign policy was to obtain warm water ports for his nation, which were essential for trade, naval power, and access to the west. He battled Sweden for a port on the Baltic and with the Ottoman Turks for a port on the Black Sea. In the Great Northern War against Sweden, Russia defeated the Swedish army in Poltava by using the scorched earth policy, in which the Russians retreat, burn the crops or villages in the town, and wait for winter to take its toll upon the enemy troops. As a result, the Russians successfully obtained their warm water port on the Baltic,

which was named St. Petersburg and known as the "window to the west." (3)

Peter enacted the "Great Embassy," which was a tour of Peter and his nobles through many Western European nations. The ultimate goal of the Great Embassy was to use the information collected to westernize Russia, as Peter was afraid of increasing Western power. Through the Great Embassy, Peter acquired many important technological skills, especially military technology, such as naval instruments, army tactics, ship building techniques, and naval strategy. He imported foreign workers with technological skills as well, and introduced new attire that was being worn across the rest of Europe. He implemented the Julian calendar, which although was not the modern Gregorian calendar at the time, was more modern than what was being used in the past. He established much better education, and he also established the first modern Russian army with 200,000 men. Nobles were required to perform state service in either the army or the bureaucracy. (3)

Section 3 Review

1. Summarize the Thirty Years' War, War of Austrian Succession and the Seven Year's War.
2. Identify what you consider who are the most important people in this section and explain why they are important.

England

Stuarts England 1603-1714 (1)

In 1603, Elizabeth I died without leaving an inheritance and her nephew, James VI of Scotland (who was also the son of Mary Queen of Scots who was ordered to be executed under Elizabeth's orders in 1589) took the English throne as James I, making both Scotland and England ruled under the same monarch, and establishing the Stuart dynasty. However the two nations were anything but united - they each had different religions, laws, courts, parliaments, churches and customs, not forgetting a 700 year old mistrust and hatred.

James I (1603-1625) (1)

James I Stuart ruled as an absolute monarch, who despised Parliament. He went as far as to dissolve parliament, and ruled without the voice of the people. He declared that the monarch was God's Lieutenant and reigned supreme over the land. He began the absolute rule of England, followed by his family for the next several generations. James advocated the divine rights of kings, and in turn wrote a book advocating the divine right of kings entitled The True Law of Free Monarchies in 1598.

Charles I (1625-1649) (1)

When **Charles** took the throne, he inherited an angry Parliament, but he shared his father James I's beliefs in autocracy. He appointed Archbishop Laud to make the Anglican Church more ceremonial, like Catholicism, instilling fears among the populace about a return to Catholicism. In 1628 the Parliament issued the **Petition of Right**. This document declared that Charles could not enact taxes without Parliamentary consent.

Charles proceeded to levy the ship money tax without Parliamentary consent, ordering all towns to pay taxes to support the English navy. This angered most of the populace as ship money was traditionally paid by coastal towns. The Parliament of 1640, dominated by Puritan landowners, fired Laud and repealed taxes imposed by Charles. These occurrences resulted in the outbreak of the English Civil War.

English Civil War (1642-1649) (1)

The war pitted supporters of the Parliament against supporters of the king, and at stake were both political power and control of English economics.

The war also pitted Puritans, known as **"roundheads**," against Anglicans, or **"cavaliers."** The supporters of Parliament were led by **Oliver Cromwell**.Other movements sprang up during this time, including Baptists, and Quakers who equated the clergy with nobles.Charles I was captured, and members of Parliament were torn. Presbyterians opposed the killing of the king, while Independents advocated the regicide, or the killing of the king. In "Pride's Purge," Cromwell forcibly removed all members of Parliament who opposed the killing of the king.

In 1649, Cromwell and the Puritans brought Charles to trial for treason against Parliament. They found him guilty and sentenced him to death. The execution of Charles was revolutionary. Kings had often been overthrown, killed in battle, or put to death in secret. Never before, however, had a reigning monarch faced a public trial and execution.

The Governments of Cromwell (1)

Afterwards, Cromwell formed a new government called the Commonwealth, which lasted from 1649 until 1653. This government was a democratic republic. However, in 1653, Cromwell formed the Protectorate, which was effectively a military dictatorship. He created the **New Model Army**, a paid force of devoted Puritans. His reign involved strict laws, including no playing cards or dancing. He, like many English monarchs, found Parliament difficult to control. It was when he disbanded Parliament the only English Constitution was written called the Instruments of Government.

Stuart Restoration and Charles II Stuart (1)

In 1660, Cromwell resigned, resulting in the restoration of Charles II Stuart and thus the Stuart line to the throne. Charles II is commonly known as the "Merry Monarch" because he engaged in highly festive court life and encountered many mistresses. He did, however, drive England deeply into debt, and continued a war with the Dutch started under Cromwell from the 1650s until the 1670s. He practiced mercantilist policies. During Charles II's reign, England encountered the Great Plague in 1665 and the Great Fire in 1666.

In 1670, Charles signed the Secret Treaty of Dover with Louis XIV, secretly pledging France and England as allies to work together to return England to the Catholic Church. In 1673 he signed the Declaration of Indulgence, which stated that Catholics could hold political and military office. Parliament responded that same year, issuing the Test Act that stated that citizens would have to profess Anglicanism to join the Parliament and military by taking Anglican Communion.

In 1679, Parliament passed an important guarantee of freedom called ***Habeas Corpus***. This law gave every prisoner the right to obtain a writ or document ordering that the prisoner be brought before a judge to specify the charges against the prisoner. The judge would decide whether the prisoner should be tried or set free. Because of the Habeas Corpus Act, a monarch could not put someone in jail simply for opposing the ruler. Also, prisoners could not be held indefinitely without trials.

James II (1685-1688) (1)

James II, an overtly Catholic monarch, took the throne in 1685. With his first wife he bore two daughters, Mary and Anne, who were both Protestant, but with his second wife he bore a son, James, who was baptized Catholic. He upset Parliament at his demand to repeal the Test Act, and instituted the Declaration of Indulgences, which allowed for freedom of worship. Angry Protestants would call in William of Orange and Mary to bail them out.

Glorious Revolution of 1688 (1)

Out of fear of James' open Catholicism and the birth of a male Catholic heir, Parliament invited **Mary Stuart and William Stuart of Orange** to rule England in 1688. Known as the Glorious Revolution or Bloodless Revolution because it was peaceful, William and Mary took the throne and signed the Bill of Rights. The bill guaranteed that the king would call Parliament every three years and not dismiss them and that taxation and war must be approved by Parliament. England was no longer an absolute monarchy but rather a **constitutional monarchy.**

During the 1700s, if both Parliament and the King came to a standstill on a topic, this potential problem was remedied by the development of a group of government ministers, or officials, called the cabinet. These ministers acted in the ruler's name but in reality represented the major party of Parliament. Therefore, they became the link between the monarch and the majority party in Parliament.

Queen Anne Stuart and the End of the Stuart Line (1)

Queen Anne ruled from 1702 until 1714, and issued the Act of Union in 1707, creating Great Britain by combining Wales, Scotland, and England. Under her, the House of Commons took dominance in Parliament. When she died in August 1714, she was succeeded by George I, the first of the Hanoverian line to rule in Britain. The expansion of parliamentary power at the expense of the Crown that had taken place since 1688 would continue under the Hanoverian monarchs, with the first Prime Minister, Sir Robert Walpole, taking office in 1721. By the accession of George III in 1760, the Crown had very little ability to influence national politics, and largely left the formation of governments to the parties that were slowly evolving in Parliament.

Section 4 Review

1. Identify James I, Charles I, Charles II, Oliver Cromwell, James II, William and Mary, Queen Anne.
2. Who were the Roundheads?
3. What was the Petition of Right?
4. What is *Habeas Corpus*?
5. What is a constitutional monarchy?

Chapter 14

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

"Oer-Weimarer Musenhof" by Theobald von Oer. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Oer-Weimarer_Musenhof.jpg#/media/File:Oer-Weimarer_Musenhof.jpg

The Enlightenment

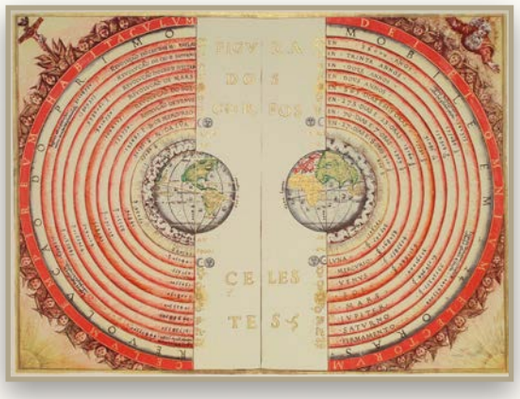
The great philosopher **Immanuel Kant** wrote the eighteenth-century Enlightenment: "We live in an age of Enlightenment, but not an enlightened age." Kant considered the eighteenth century a time of significant reform and a questioning of established traditions, optimistically pointing toward progress. At the same time, Kant realized how far Europe still had to go toward the ideals of reason, equality, individualism, and secularism - all principles of the Enlightenment. (1)

Science and Technology

The Scientific Revolution began with discoveries in astronomy, most importantly dealing with the concept of a solar system. These discoveries generated controversy, and some were forced by church authorities to recant their theories.

Pre-Revolution: Aristotle and Ptolemy

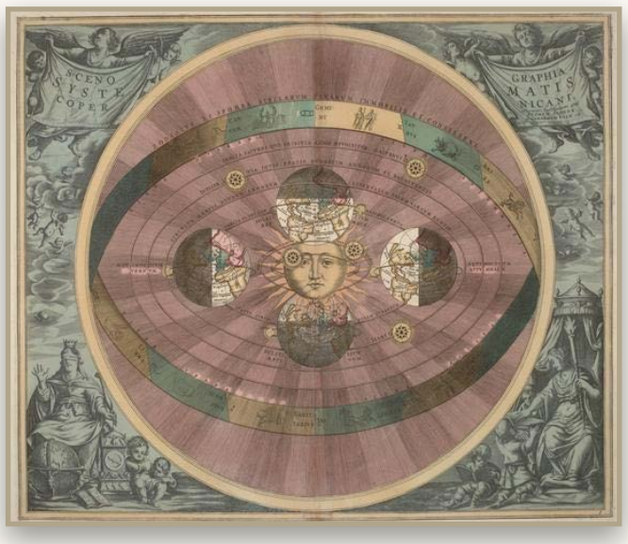
The **geocentric** (earth-centred) view of the universe had been taught since the days of Aristotle. Ptolemy's Almagest was the standard text used to teach students astronomy and remained so for hundreds of years. Ptolemy's theories are a mixture of science and religion and to modern readers may come across as unusual though it must always be borne in mind that Ptolemy was building upon the works of earlier astronomers. Surprisingly a Greek philosopher called Aristarchus (B.C 310 BC - B.C 230 BC) suggested that the earth moved around the sun and though this was common knowledge amongst all who studied astronomy it would be over a thousand years before he was proved right. The early christian church adopted the Ptolemaic system since it was in accord with biblical teaching. A universe without the earth at its center would negate divine purpose and Ptolemy's idea of the spheres in harmony strengthened the creationist argument. The Enlightenment, which is also referred to as the **Age of Reason**, was a period when European philosophers emphasized the use of reason as the best method for learning the truth. (2)



A Revolutionary Model of the Universe

During the Renaissance, study of astronomy at universities began. Regiomontanus and Nicolas of Cusa developed new advances in mathematics and methods of calculation.

Nicolaus Copernicus, although a devout Christian, doubted whether the views held by Aristotle and Ptolemy were completely correct. Using mathematics and visual observations with only the naked eye, he developed the Heliocentric, or Copernican, Theory of the Universe, stating that the Earth revolves around the sun. Fearing ridicule or persecution, Copernicus did not publish his findings until 1543, the last year of his life. He received a copy of his book, On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies, on his deathbed. (2) (3)



While revolutionary, Copernicus's book caused little stir because he was unable to scientifically prove Heliocentrism. However, over the next century other scientists will build off the foundation that Copernicus started. A Danish astronomer, **Tycho Brahe** created a mass of scientific data on astronomy during his lifetime; although he made no major contributions to science, he laid the groundwork for Kepler's discoveries. (2)

After Brahe's death in 1601, his assistant, **Johannes Kepler**, used Brahe's body of data to write Kepler's *Three Laws of Planetary Motion*, most significantly noting that planets' orbits are elliptical instead of circular. (2)

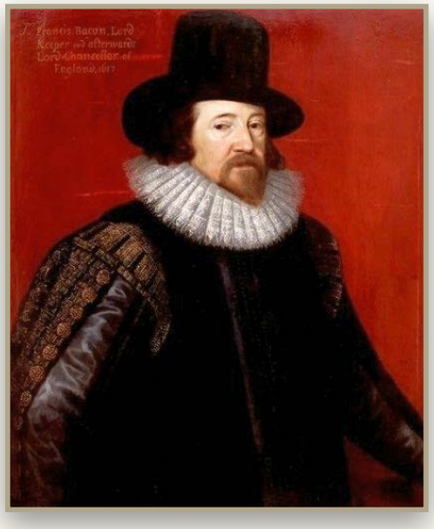
An Italian scientist named **Galileo Galilei** is generally given credit for invention of the telescope; although the device itself is not of Galileo's design, he was the first to use it for astronomy. With this tool, he proved the Copernican Theory of the Universe. In his work *Starry Messenger*, he announced that Jupiter had four moons and that the sun had dark spots. He also noted that the earth's moon had a rough, uneven surface. This shattered Aristotle's theory that the moon and stars were made of perfection. Though warned by Protestant leaders and the Church to stop defending Copernicus's ideas, Galileo continued his research. In 1632, Galileo

published *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems* which supported Copernican theory. (2) (3)

Galileo spread news of his work through letters to friends and colleagues. Although the Church forced him to recant his ideas and spend the rest of his life under house arrest, his works had already been published and could not be disregarded.

The Scientific Method

The revolution in scientific thinking that Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo began the development into a new approach to science called the scientific method. This method is a logical procedure for gathering and testing ideas. This method was not developed overnight. Two important thinkers who assisted in the advance of this approach were Francis Bacon and Rene Descartes.



Francis Bacon was an English philosopher, statesman, scientist, jurist, orator, essayist and author. He served both as Attorney General and Lord Chancellor of England. After his death, he remained extremely influential through his works, especially as philosophical advocate and practitioner of the scientific method during the scientific revolution. (4)

Bacon has been called the father of **empiricism**, the theory that all knowledge is derived from sense-experience and stimulated by the rise of experimental science. His works established and popularised inductive methodologies for scientific inquiry, often called the Baconian method, or simply the scientific method. His demand for a planned procedure of investigating all things natural marked a new turn in the rhetorical and theoretical framework for science, much of which still surrounds conceptions of proper methodology today. (4)

In France, **Rene Descartes** developed analytic geometry, which linked algebra and geometry. Rather than using experimentation, Descartes relied on mathematics and logic. He believed that everything should be doubted until proved by reason - *"I think, therefore I am."*

Newton Explains the Law of Gravity

Newton is often considered the greatest scientific mind in history. Newton studied mathematics and physics at Cambridge University. He was able to develop breakthroughs under a single theory of motion. His 1687 work called *The Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy* included Newton's Law of Gravity, an incredibly ground-breaking study. It also explained the universe like a giant clock and also support Copernican theory. (2)

Section 1 Review

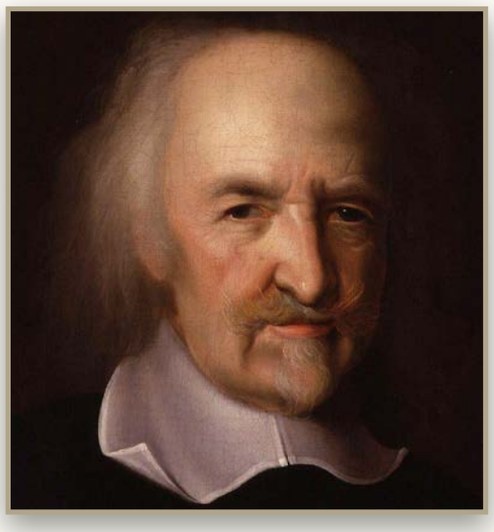
1. What was the difference between the geocentric and heliocentric theory?
2. Identify the following: Copernicus, Kepler, Galileo, Bacon, Descartes, Newton.
3. Explain in your own words the quote:

"I think therefore I am."

The Views on Government

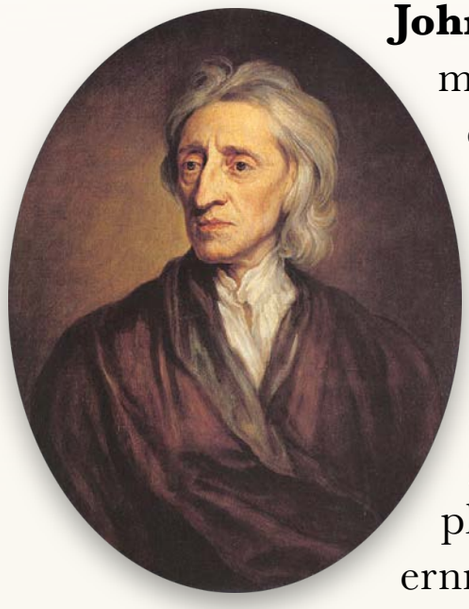
In the wake of the Scientific Revolution, and the new ways of thinking it prompted, scholars and philosophers began to reevaluate old notions about other aspects of society. These people efforts spurred the Enlightenment, a new intellectual movement that stressed reason and thought and the power of individuals to solve problems. (1)

Some would say that the Enlightenment was started by two English political thinkers of the 1600s. Both men grew up during the political turmoil of the English Civil War but had totally two different views of government.



Thomas Hobbes was an English philosopher, best known today for his work on political philosophy. His 1651 book *Leviathan* established the social contract theory, the foundation of later Western political philosophy. (2)

Though on rational grounds a champion of absolutism for the sovereign, Hobbes also developed some of the fundamentals of European liberal thought: the right of the individual; the natural equality of all men; the artificial character of the political order (which led to the later distinction between civil society and the state); the view that all legitimate political power must be "representative" and based on the consent of the people; and a liberal interpretation of law which leaves people free to do whatever the law does not explicitly forbid. (3)



John Locke took a rather more optimistic view of human nature, and specifically refuted Hobbes humanity is only governed by laws of nature, man has right to life, liberty, and property. Locke felt there is a natural social contract that binds the people and their government together. This contract is that the people have a responsibility to their government, and their government like-

wise has a responsibility to its people. In his most famous work *Two Treatises on Government*, Locke goes on to justify the supremacy of Parliament. (4)

The Philosophes Advocate Reason

The Enlightenment reached its height in France in the mid-1700s. Paris became the meeting place for people who wanted to discuss politics and ideas. These social critics in France were called philosophes. The philosophes believed that people could apply reason to all aspects of life, just as Isaac Newton had applied reason to science. These philosophes had certain core principles:

•**Reason** - Belief in human reason's ability to discover the relevant laws of nature and humanity expresses the assumption that the world itself is inherently "knowledgeable" to the human mind and optimism in the advance of human understanding. (5)

•**Secularism** - Not all philosophes demonstrated hostility to organized religion or advocated atheism. Most Enlightenment thinkers did believe that the dogmatism often accompanying organized religion should not be allowed to intrude into public affairs. In place of organized religion, many intellectuals adhered to belief in God based on reason, not revelation. This deism portrayed God as kind of Newtonian "clockmaker" who designed the world with scientific natural laws and then simply allowed it to function. With this "natural religion," the prophets, holy books, dogma, clergy, and rituals of organized religion were considered unnecessary. (5)

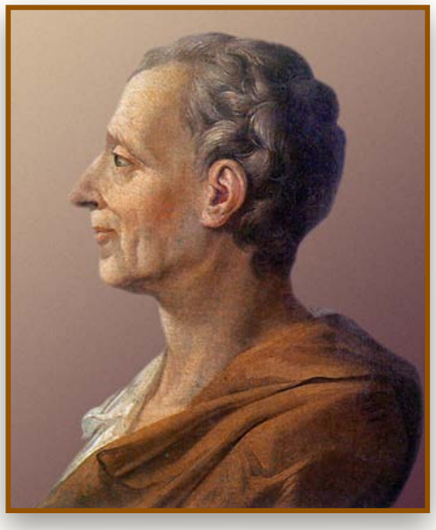
•**Equality** - Though many phlosophes noted that crushing inequality present in European institutions, few trusted the masses to rule. Belief in the betterment of the lower classes did not necessarily translate into support for democracy. (5)

•**Progress** - A natural byproduct of belief in human reason, the notion of progress lay at the heart of the Enlightenment project. According to the foremost American advocate of the Enlightenment, Benjamin Franklin, the pursuit of knowledge should ultimately yield practical benefits for humankind. (5)

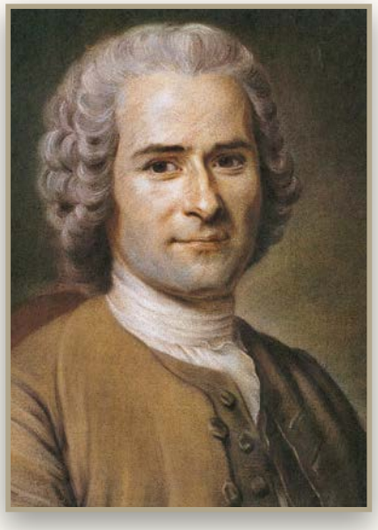
Voltaire Combats Intolerance

Francois-Marie Arouet took the famous pen name "Voltaire" because he attacked the absurdity and inconsistencies of contemporary society with such delicious wit that, ironically, he became popular in the pampered and privileged aristocratic circles he was criticizing. Voltaire's most famous work was *Candide*, and extended fable about a naive young lad who trust in the assurances of his teacher, Pangloss, that 'All is for the best in the best of all possible worlds' despite abundant evidence in their travels that it is anything but that belief. (5)

Montesquieu and Separation of Power



Montesquieu's experiences as a French Protestant and member of the Bordeaux parliament influenced his writings. Keeping with the new travel literature, Montesquieu's most important work was *The Spirit of the Laws* (1748). This book was based on his investigation of history and contemporary nations, to determine the forms of government and laws of each nation. Large nations tended toward despotism (like Russia), medium-sized nations toward monarchy (like France), and smaller nations toward republics (like Switzerland). Montesquieu favored a government like Britain's which incorporated checks and balances to restrain the vices associated with each major political interest: monarchy - tyranny, oligarchy - factionalism, democracy - anarchy. (5)



Jean -Jacques Rousseau Champions Freedom

This Swiss philosopher built on Locke's idea that people are born equal, except that, of course, in reality they're not: "Man is born free but everywhere he is in chains." Rousseau argued that inequality was not only unnatural and wrong, but ultimately inefficient. Rousseau believed in handing more power over to the people. He would make clear of this in his work The Social Contract. Rousseau wrote that the fundamental dilemma of any political system was to find a form of political association in which the General Will of the entire society could be realized through pursuit of the common good. (5)

Beccaria Promotes Criminal Justice

Governments of the eighteenth century lacked modern police forces and prisons. When criminals were captured, punishments tended to be public and harsh in order to set an example. An Italian jurist, **Cesare Beccaria**, condemned the traditional approach in his *On Crimes and Punishments*. According to Beccaria, reason and the certainty of punishment should act as guides to law and the penal system. Torture, breaking on the wheel, and drawing and quartering all served as horrifying spectacle but tended to excite people's bloodlust and fear of power rather than respect for the law. (5)

Women and the Enlightenment

The philosophes challenged many assumptions about government and society. But they often took a traditional view toward women. Women writers tried to push the envelope to improve the status of women. In 1694, *Mary Astell* published *A Serious Proposal to the Ladie*s to address the lack of educational opportunities for women and how the social roles between men and women need to change. (1)

Women clearly participated in the culture of the Enlightenment. Importantly, **Mary Wollstonecraft**, a writer and collaborator in radical political movements, penned the first modern statements of the feminist movement. Wollstonecraft defended the movement for equality with *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, which held that no legitimate basis, other than physical strength, could be devised to discriminate between men and women. (5)

During the Enlightenment, reason took center stage. The greatest minds of Europe followed each other's work with interest and often met to discuss their ideas. Some of the kings and queens of Europe were also interested and will seek to apply some of the philosophes' ideas to create progress in their own countries.

Section 2 Review

1. Explain the major philosophies of Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, Baron de Montesquieu, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Voltaire, Cesare Beccaria, Mary Astell, Mary Wollstonecraft.

Interactive 14.1 *Mr. Buckley's Wisdom*

Click on the image to learn more about the political theories of famous Enlightenment thinkers.

SECTION 3

The Ideas Spread

The philosophes' view of society usually led them into trouble with the monarchy and the church. Nevertheless, the Enlightenment spread throughout Europe with the help of books, magazines, and word of mouth. In time, Enlightenment ideas influenced everything from the artistic world to the royal courts across the continent.

The World of Ideas

To really experience the Enlightenment, one needed to be in Paris. Many of the great philosophes' hailed from France, and French served as the unifying language of intellectual discourse. The movement took its tone and spirit from the salons of Paris. The women who ran the salons, known as salonnieres, attracted philosophers, economists, and writers from all over Europe in an effort to stimulate an ongoing conversation regarding the key issues facing Europe. For twenty five years, **Madame de Geoffrin** hosted intellectuals at her dinner, acted as mediator and financial patroness, and invited foreign thinkers and rulers to her famous **Parisian salon**. (1)

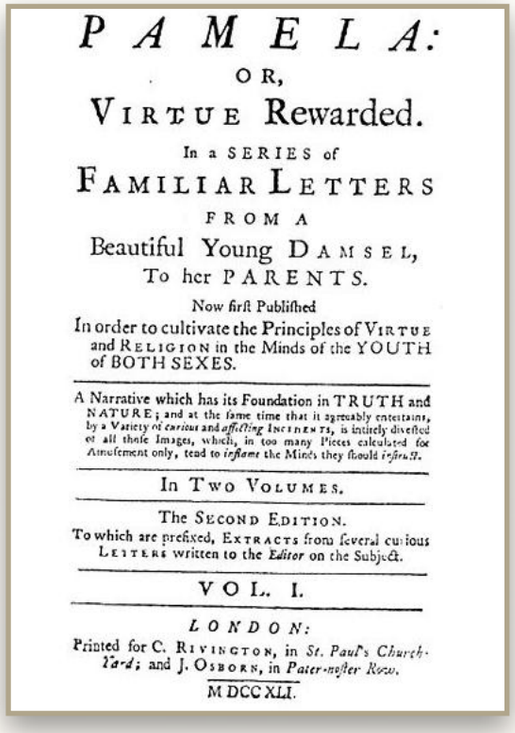
Madame de Geoffrin also helped finance a project that was taken on by philosophe' named **Denis Diderot**. Diderot achieved fame for his editing of the *Encyclopedia*, a seventeen volume reference work that ambitiously set out to arrange the sum total of human knowledge alphabetically, deference to ecclesiastical (religious) or political authority. In addition, the Encyclopedia provided illustrations designed to convey practical knowledge of science, the military arts, and manufacturing. Salons and the Encyclopedia helped spread the spirit of the Enlightenment to all people throughout Europe. (1)

New Artistic Styles

Though the Baroque style in the arts and music continued well into the eighteenth century, by the 1720s the **neoclassical** style had taken hold, especially in France. Whereas the Baroque expressed power, illusion, and movement, the arts of popes and kings, neoclassical style drew from stories of ancient Greece and Rome. With works of **Joseph Haydn**, **Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart**, and **Ledwith von Beethoven**, we move into the great Age of Classical Music. Compos-

ers experimented with full orchestration, writing symphonies of several movements that develop simple themes into complex musical patterns. (1)

Writers in the 18th century also developed new styles and forms of literature. A number of European authors began writing novels, which are lengthy works of prose fiction. **Samuel Richardson's** *Pamela* is often considered the first true English novel. It tells the story of a young servant girl who refuses the advances of her master. Another English masterpiece, Tom Jones, by Henry Fielding, tells the story of an orphan who travels all over England to win the hand of his lady. (2)



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Enlightenment and the Monarchy (3)

A new form of government began to replace absolutism across the continent. Whilst monarchs were reluctant to give up their powers, many also recognized that their states could potentially benefit from the spread of Enlightenment ideas. The most prominent of these rulers were Frederick II the Great Hohenzollern of Prussia, Joseph II Hapsburg of Austria, and Catherine II the Great Romanov of Russia.

In order to understand the actions of the European monarchs of this period, it is important to understand their key beliefs. Enlightened despots rejected the concept of absolutism and the divine right to rule. They justified their position based on their usefulness to the state. These rulers based their decisions upon their reason, and they stressed religious toleration and the importance of education. They enacted codified, uniform laws, repressed local authority, nobles, and the church, and often acted impulsively and instilled change at an incredibly fast rate.

Frederick II the Great (1740-1786)

Frederick II Hohenzollern of Prussia declared himself "*The-First Servant of the State,*" believing that it was his duty to serve the state and do well for his nation. He extended education to all classes, and established a professional bureaucracy and

Interactive 14.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click to learn more about Prussia and the Enlightenment.

civil servants. He created a uniform judicial system and abolished torture. During his tenure, Prussia advanced agricultural techniques by using potatoes and turnips to replenish the soil. Also, Frederick established religious freedom in Prussia.

Joseph II Habsburg (1765-1790)

Joseph II Habsburg (also spelled as Hapsburg) of Austria could be considered perhaps the greatest enlightened ruler, and he was purely enlightened, working solely for the good of his country. He was anti-feudalism, anti-church, and anti-nobility. He famously stated, "The state should provide the greatest good for the greatest number." He created equal punishment and taxation regardless of class, complete freedom of the press, toleration of all religions, and civil rights for Jews. Under Joseph II a uniform law code was established, and in 1781 he abolished serfdom and in 1789 ordered the General School Ordinance, which required compulsory education for Austrian children. However, Joseph failed because he angered people by making changes far too swiftly, and even the serfs weren't satisfied with their abrupt freedom.

Catherine the Great (1762-1796)

Catherine the Great came to power because Peter III failed to bear a male heir to the throne and was killed.
Her enlightened reforms include:

•Restrictions on torture

•Religious toleration

•Education for girls

•1767 Legislative Commission, which reported to her on the state of the Russian people

•Trained and educated her grandson Alexander I so that he could progress in society because of his merit rather than his bloodline

She was friends with Diderot, Rousseau, and Voltaire. However, Catherine also took a number of decidedly unenlightened actions. In 1773 she violently suppressed Pugachev's Rebellion, a massive peasant rebellion against the degradation of the serfs. She conceded more power to the nobles and eliminated state service. Also, serfdom became equivalent to slavery under her.

Foreign Policy

Catherine combated the Ottoman Empire. In 1774, Russia gained a warm water port on the Black Sea.

Inspired by Enlightenment ideas, the people of France decided to do the unthinkable: they started a revolution!

Interactive 14.3 *Mr. Buckley's Wisdom*

Click on the Image to learn more about Peter and Catherine the Great.

Section 3 Review

1. What was the importance of the salons and the Encyclopedia for the spread of Enlightenment ideas?
2. Click on the names of the classical musicians and listen to pieces of their musical accomplishments.
3. How important was Prussia in changing the mindset of how a monarch should rule?
4. Identify the importance of Joseph II and Catherine the Great.

Chapter 15

FRENCH REVOLUTION

"Bataille de Fleurus 1794" by Jean-Baptiste Mauzaisse - http://www.fontainebleau-photo.com/2012/10/le-bas-breau.html. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bataille_de_Fleurus_1794.JPG#/media/File:Bataille_de_Fleurus_1794.JPG

The Causes

The French Revolution is where modern history began. The revolution started as a struggle for human rights against a bankrupt and corrupt monarchy, but soon the French revolutionaries instituted rule by terror. Napoleon tried to instill order by imposing military rule, which certainly brought stability but did nothing for human rights. Nevertheless, the ideals of the revolution have inspired people to our own day.

The Old Regime: Social Causes

France remained separated into three estates, each with its own legal status and privileges. The **First Estate,** the clergy, amounted to around one percent of the population, and was a social, cultural, and economic force. The church owned about ten percent of land in France and collected the tithe, a tax that amounted to about three to five percent of individual income. (1)

The **Second Estate**, the nobles, comprised of about two percent of the population, and owned approximately twenty five percent of France's land. The French nobility had privilege in spades and got all the top posts in the government. The biggest privilege by far was that the nobles did not have to pay taxes. (1)

The vast majority of French people belonged to the **Third Estate**, obviously not a monolithic group. Members of the Third Estate varied from the wealthiest merchant down to the few serfs or landless laborers still existing in France. The **bourgeoisie** increased in numbers and economic power significantly in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries with the growth of commerce. In addition to their mercantile and professional interests, the bourgeoisie owned about twenty five percent of the land in France. Many resented the privileges of the aristocracy while at the same time envying their status and imitating their fashions and interests. The bourgeoisie of artisans, shopkeepers, and small business owners felt the pinch of rising prices for goods, while on the other, stagnant wages. (1)

Political Causes

The conflict between the resurgent nobility and a theoretically absolute monarchy constitutes the fundamental political cause of the revolution. French aristocrats accepted and often admired the monarchy, but wished it to evolve along English lines. However, many condemned the nature of the monarchy. Hated symbols of arbitrary government were the lettres de cachet, which allowed the king to arrest and imprison any individual without judicial procedures. The personalities of **King Louis XVI** and his Austrian wife, **Marie Antoinette** acted as a magnet for discontent with the regime. By all accounts, Louis was a pious, well-meaning family man. However, as events unfolded, it became clear that Louis lacked the energy and purpose to see his nation through its crisis. The king's behavior during key moments of the revolution often escalated conflict and fueled radicals' demands for a republic. (1)

As for Louis XVI's wife Marie Antoinette, she was widely condemned

for her extravagance, extreme even for a queen, and the most quoted remark never said; when told that the peasants of France were so poor that they could not put bread on the table, she was said to have replied, "let them eat cake," which supposedly "proved" that she was out of touch with the general populace. Although it is unlikely that the queen ever said such a thing, it is still an example of the French citizens' opinion of their royalty, that they would create such a story. As the historian Munro Price suggests, though, much of the criticism of Marie-Antoinette came from the fact that there was no one else to blame for bad policies. Under Louis XIV and Louis XV, both of whom were prolific womanizers who had many official mistresses during their respective reigns, public opinion often leveled the blame for society's ills at the King's current ministers who, more often than not, owed their position to the royal mistress. (2)

Intellectual Causes and The Events of 1789

Countless ideas from the Enlightenment contributed to the French Revolution. Locke's ideas of overthrowing government that does not respect the social contract, as well as Rousseau's ideas of the general will and the French government's failure to represent the general will of the people, were major factors. The Enlightenment also stripped away at religion, es-

pecially Catholicism, directly attacking the divine right theory that Louis XVI of France used to justify his position. (2)

Additionally, there were massive food shortages across France; there was a constant war, anger over social inequality, and a weak queen and king. Moreover, a harsh winter had resulted in no harvest and the lack of food, especially bread, causing poverty, death, and destruction. (2)

The immediate spark of the French Revolution, however, was the financial crisis in France. This problem stemmed from a number of issues. One of the most prominent of these issues was the fact that the nobles were tax-exempt, and the nobles resisted any attempt by Louis to tax them. In addition, France had accrued massive debt from assisting in the American Revolution, as well as from the Seven Years War. Finally, French tax collectors were corrupt. As a result, Louis called the Estates General for assistance and advice to resolve the financial crisis. (2)

The Estates General consisted of three estates and met at the Palace of Versailles. The third estate, angry over their disproportionate representation and their inability to act according to their needs, rebelled, and declared itself the **National Assembly**. Three days later members of the third estate took the **Oath of the Tennis Court**, swearing allegiance to the French nation and drawing up a list of grievances (cahiers de doléances) against the king. They aimed to democratically represent the will of the people and give the people a constitution, and they were clearly motivated by the Glorious Revolution of 1688 in England. (2)

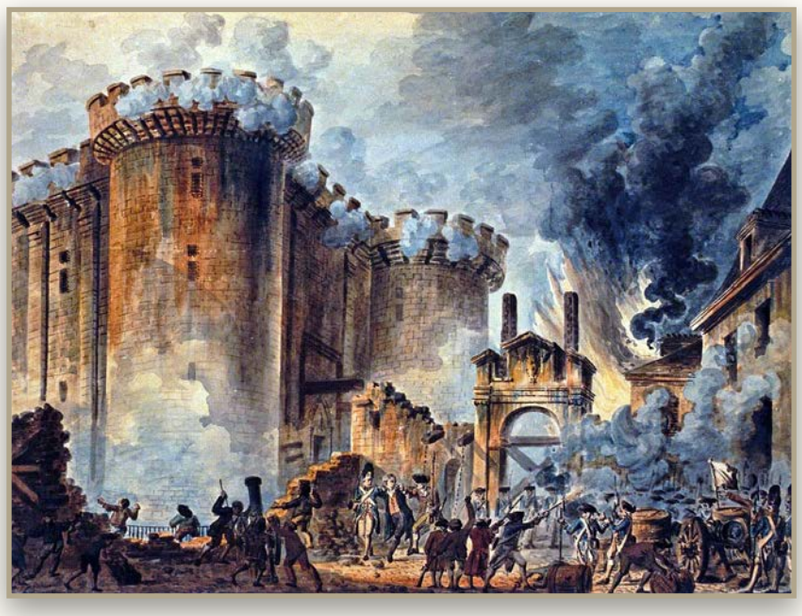
To the Bastille!

In response to these recent events, Louis XVI employed a mercenary army of Swiss guards to be surrounded around Versailles. In Paris, rumors flew as some people suggested that Louis was intent on using military force to dismiss the National Assembly. Others charged that the foreign troops were coming to Paris to massacre French citizens.

On **July 14, 1789**, the revolting Paris mob stormed the **Bastille**. The Bastille was a major prison and armory in Paris. While only seven prisoners were housed behind its walls, none of whom could be considered political in any way, this event was essential because it symbolized that the people were no longer standing for the power of the nobles and the king, or the rising of the people against the tyranny of absolutism. The fall of the Bastille was also the first time, but certainly not the last, during the Revolution that popular mobs would rise up and take action outside of the legislature. These later risings, known in French as journees, would prove to be both extremely influential on public opinion and a

cause for major hand-wringing on the part of the legislature, who did not want to risk a massive popular revolution as opposed to the controlled "bourgeois" revolution. (2)

The terrified King Louis XVI, Queen Marie Antoinette their two young children on the October 6, 1789 were forced back to Paris from Versailles by a mob of market women. In a carriage, they traveled back to Paris surrounded by a mob of people screaming and shouting threats against the King and Queen. The mob of people forced the King And Queen to have their carriage windows wide open. At one point a member of the mob waved the head of a royal guard killed at Versailles in front of the terrified Queen. Despite Marie Antoinette's best efforts to please the mob in giving out bread from the carriage, it was thrown back, as the people refused to eat it as "It is sure to be poisoned." This senseless wave of panic throughout France called the Great Fear was only the beginning of this revolution. (2)



Interactive 15.1 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn more about the causes of the French Revolution.

Section 1 Review

1. Identify the First, Second and Third Estate and their role in the early French government.
2. Identify Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette's role in the causing the Revolution.
3. How important was the Third Estate in starting the Revolution?

The Revolutionary Spirit Grows

Louis XVI Gets One Last Chance...

In August of 1789, the National Assembly took a number of actions to remake society. They established social equality, and signed the **Declaration of Rights of Man and Citizen**, which was a social contract. It provided for freedom of religion, taxation of equality, legal equality, and freedom of press and expression. They wrote a constitution that established a constitutional monarchy with a parliament. The parliament was to be run by the bourgeois, who were considered "active" citizens, while the rest of the citizens were considered "passive" citizens and would not be allowed to take part in government. People in government were to progress based upon merit. Finally, the National Assembly established the **Civil Constitution of the Clergy (1790)**, which clergymen would eventually be required to swear an oath to in 1791. In addition to nationalizing church property, the civil constitution also abolished religious vows and turned all church clerics (including monks and nuns) into civil servants who received their pay and assignments not from Rome, but from Paris. While this was initially well-received by many Frenchmen who applauded the "bringing home" of the church, the subsequent punitive measures taken against clergy who did not swear the oath (also known as the refractory clergy) would be a cause of great resentment in the Western provinces. (1)

... and Blows It!

When the Pope condemned this new Civil Constitution of the Clergy, Louis decided that the time had come to get out. In June 1971 at the dead of night, Louis and his family crept out of Paris and headed for the Austrian frontier. As they

neared the border, however, they were apprehended and returned to Paris under guard. Louis's attempted escape increased the influence of his radical enemies in the government and sealed his fate.

Divisions Develop

With the king proving that he cannot be trusted, in September 1791, a constitution was created and formed a limited constitutional monarchy. It stripped the king of much of his authority. It also created a new legislative body called the **Legislative Assembly**. However, the Legislative Assembly failed quickly for a number of reasons. The lower third estate felt abandoned by the bourgeois politically. In addition, the Legislative Assembly failed to fix the food and unemployment problems. As a result, the working men of France, or the sans-culottes, rose against the Legislative Assembly. (1)

At the same time another group called **Emigres**, or nobility that had fled France during the Revolution, in Austria wanted the Austrian government to crush the Revolution. Other nations feared revolution in their own countries. Austria signed the **Declaration of Pillnitz** (1791), which stated that if the other powers attack France, so would Austria. The French interpreted this as a virtual declaration of war. In April 1792, the Legislative Assembly declared war on Austria. Prussia would also join Austria in this war to crush the revolution. (1)

In July 1792, with the war going badly for France, Austria and Prussia stood on the verge of invading Paris. Together the nations issued the Brunswick Manifesto, stating that the Prussians would punish the citizens of Paris if they did anything to harm Louis XVI or Marie Antoinette. Prussia and Austria allied for the balance of power, in order to weaken France. The draining of war on the newly formed government also contributed to its downfall. (1)

In September 1792, rumors were spreading that the royal family and political prisoners in France were going to break out and aid the advancing Austrian-Prussian army. In response, revolutionaries broke into prisons across France and massacred thousands in what became called the September Massacres. At the same time the Parisian sans culottes busted into the Tuileries palace, massacred the king's Swiss guards, and hauled Louis and Marie Antoinette off to prison. Under pressure from radicals in the streets and among its members, the Legislative Assembly set aside the Constitution of 1791. It declared the king deposed, dissolved the assembly, and called for the election of a new legislature. This new governing body, the **National Convention**, took office on September 21. It quickly abolished the monarchy and declared France a republic. (2)

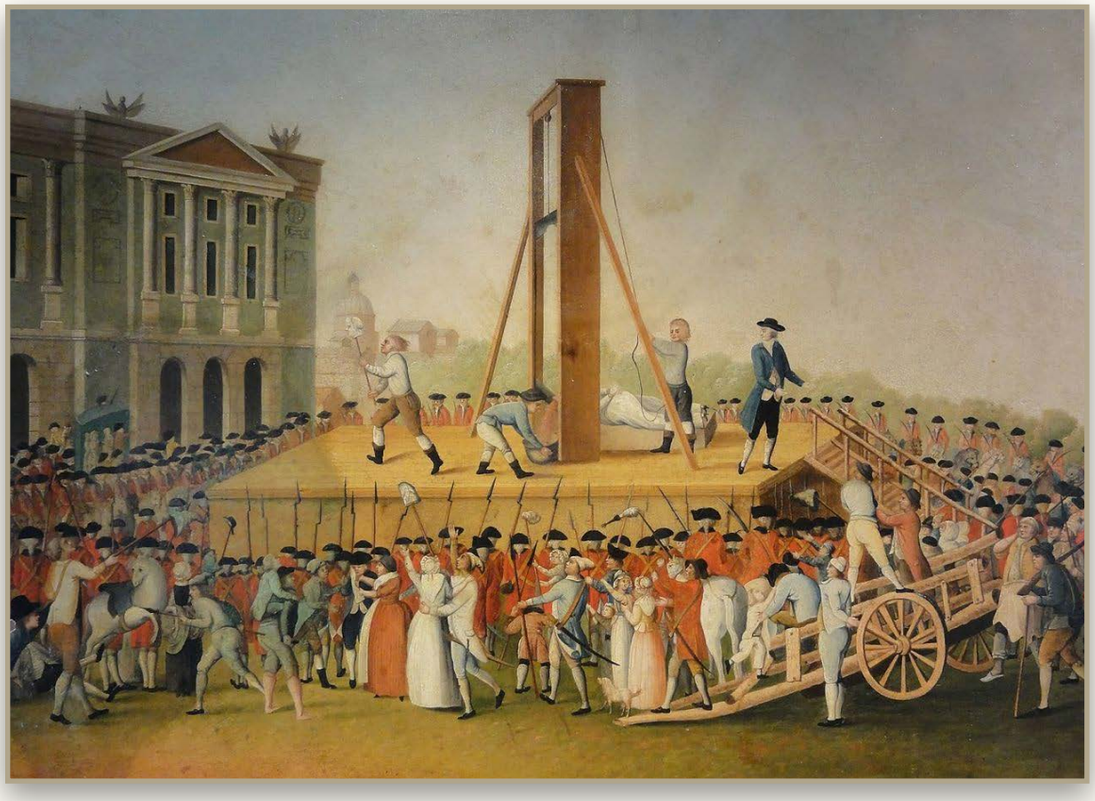
Rule by Terror

At this point of the revolution most people involved in government were part of a radical political organization called the **Jacobin Club.** This club became popular because of people like **Jean Paul Marat**, a vehement journalist who demanded the deaths of traitors and for heads to roll, and **Georges Danton**, skilled politician who worked to create a

revolutionary government in the capital called the Paris Commune. (3)

The National Convention had reduced Louis XVI's role from that of a king to that of a common citizen and prisoner. Now, guided by radical Jacobins, it tried Louis for treason. The Convention found him guilty, and, by a close vote, sentenced him to death. On January 21, 1793, the former king walked with calm dignity up the steps of the scaffold to be beheaded by a machine called the **guillotine**. (2)

In response to the execution of the king, Great Britain, Holland, and Spain joined Prussia and Austria against France. Forced to contend with so many enemies, the French suffered a string of defeats. To reinforce the French army, Jacobin leaders in the Convention took extreme steps to protect the revolution. (2)



The Convention became an emergency republic with universal male suffrage. The leading body of the Convention was the Committee of Public Safety, who worked to suppress dissent and protect the revolution. The Committee was composed of twelve members, of whom the dominant individual was **Maximilien de Robespierre**. The leadership of the Convention split into two factions: the Montagnards (or "Mountain"), who was more radical and included Robespierre, and the **Girondin**, which was more middle class. (1)

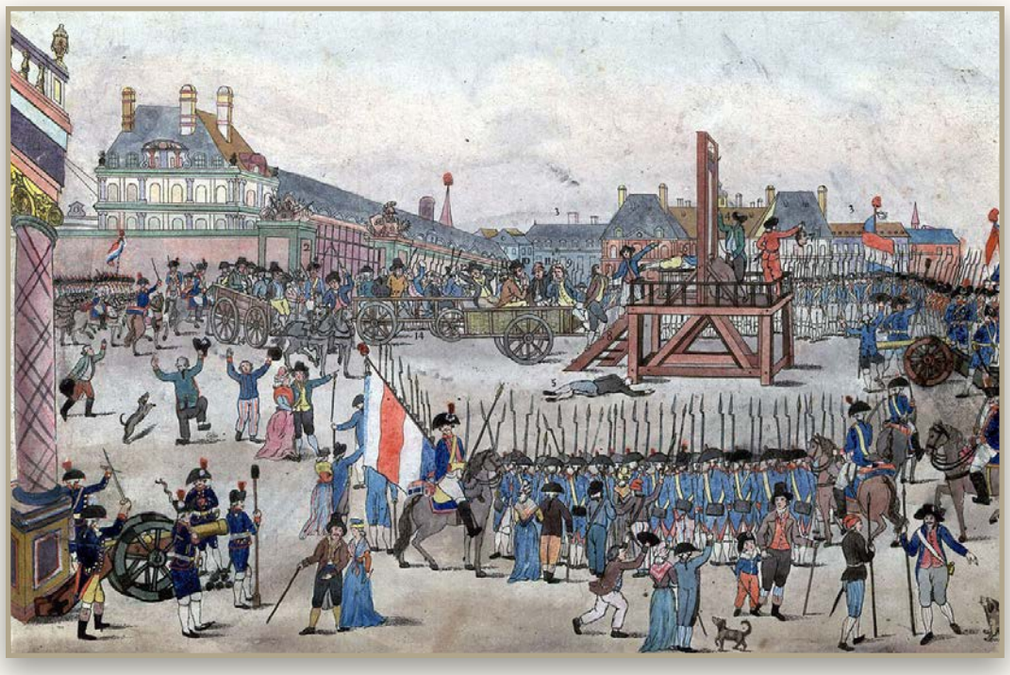
The Convention had a number of issues to address. First, and perhaps most importantly, they were actively engaged in war with Prussia and Austria. They instituted the first draft, called the levee en masse, and a nationalist feeling rose among troops. In 1794, the French army invaded Austria and was successful. (1)

In addition, the Convention needed to remake society. Members instituted "dechristianization," which was essentially the purging of Christians in France. (1)

The Convention also needed to address the food problem, and established the "General Maximum" that controlled bread prices and wages. (1)

Finally, the Convention needed to stop the counter-revolution and write a new constitution. During a period known as **"The Terror,"** Robespierre and the Committee of Public Safety utilized the guillotine to kill tens of thousands of counter-revolutionaries. The Convention successfully wrote a new constitution, establishing a government known as the Directory as a permanent republic. (1)

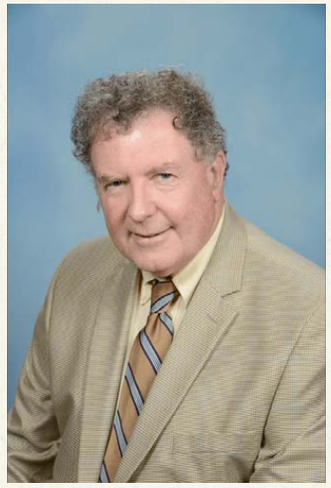
On July 27, 1794, Robespierre himself was arrested, and was executed the next day. The resulting **"Thermidorian Reaction"** was a response to France's swing to the left, during which the government briefly went to the right, and finally back to the center. The Jacobins and other Montagnards were replaced with the more moderate Girondins (Bourgeois), and many Montagnard members were executed. (1)



The Directory

The Directory was the first constitutional republic, which had an executive body of five directors, as well as a bicameral legislative body consisting of the Council of Ancients and the Council of 500. In 1797, the first free elections were held, and the people of France astonished members of the Directory by electing a majority of royalists to the legislature. People grew fearful of a possible return of the Terror, thus, when Napoleon Bonaparte launched the coup to end the Directory and instead establish the Consulate, there was little opposition. (1)

Interactive 15.2 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom



Click on the Image to Learn More about all of the Events of the French Revolution

Section 2 Review

1. Look at the Declaration of the Rights of Man. Which sections in your opinion are the most important and why?
2. What was the Civil Constitution of the Clergy?
3. What was the role of the National Assembly, Legislative Assembly, National Convention and the Directory?
4. Did the Reign of Terror help or hinder the goals of the French Revolution?

The Rise of Napoleon

The Rise of Napoleon

Some have labeled **Napoleon Bonaparte** the "first modern man." His rise to power owed nothing to traditional aristocratic or political institutions. Napoleon was a self-made man of immense talent and ambition, qualities that account for both his stunning successes and his crushing defeats. Born into a minor Italian family on the island of Corsica, which the French had annexed in 1768, Napoleon set out to prove he was the equal to every Frenchmen he encountered in his military academy and the army. (1)

In October 1795, fate handed the young officer a chance for glory. When royalist rebels marched on the National Convention, a government official told Napoleon to defend the delegates. He was able to protect the National Convention and in 1796, the Directory appointed Napoleon to lead a French army against the forces of Austria and the Kingdom of Sardinia. With every victory his reputation continued to grow. It grew so much that in the newspapers he was no longer addressed by his name rather he was addressed as "The General." However, it would in Egypt that the great general would receive a bruised ego. In an expedition to strengthen French sea trade while weakening British trade in India, Napoleon would confront his military rival British Admiral Horatio Nelson. Though Nelson will successfully disrupt Napoleon's plan, the general made sure that news of this defeat never make it back to France.

By 1799, the Directory had lost control of the political situation and the confidence of the French people. When Napoleon returned from Egypt, his friends urged him to seize political power. Joined with two other conspirators, Napoleon's **coup d' etat** succeeded in creating a new government, the Consulate (with three Consuls). Chosen as First Consul, Bonaparte quickly outmaneuvered the other two consuls and in 1801 proclaimed himself First Consul for life. At the age of

thirty two, Bonaparte commanded France and set out to institutionalize the principles of the revolution. (1)

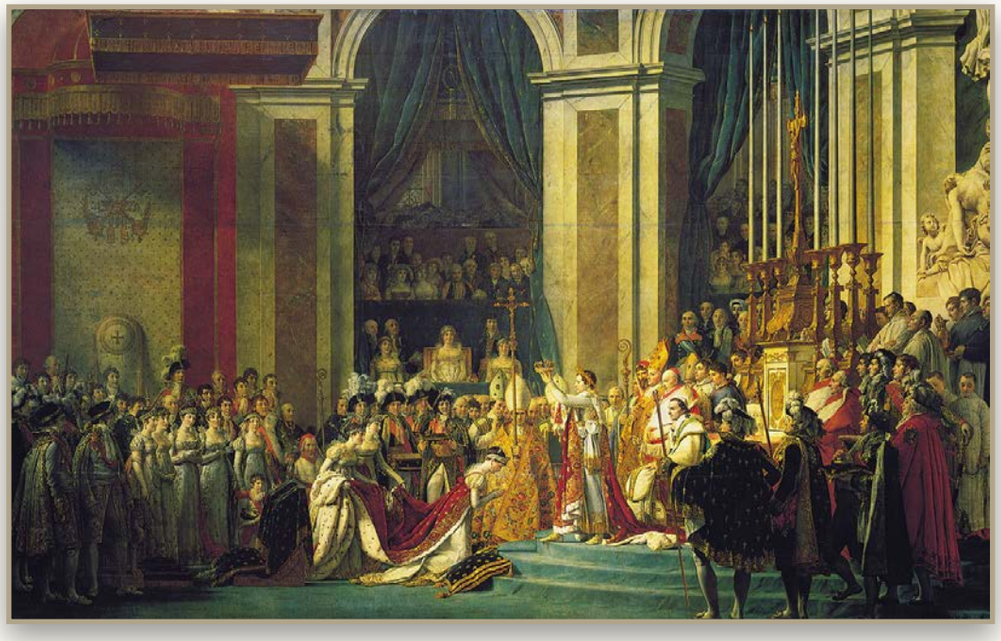
Napoleon's Domestic Policies

To present himself as a man of the people, Napoleon used **plebiscites**, "vote of the people," on specific issues, often after the fact, such as whether the people agreed with Napoleon's proclamation of the empire. Napoleon also enhanced industry by establishing the Bank of France. The bank helped in finally eliminating the budget deficit and modernizing the tax system. As for educational policies, to modernize France and promote opportunity, Napoleon established a nationwide system of secondary schools called the **lycee**. These schools were open to all social classes. However, out of all of his domestic policies the most important one was the Napoleonic Code. These set of laws represented the revolution's ideals of merit and equality and was guided by the enlightened impulse toward rational systemization. Napoleon created a single legal code for all of France, as well as many nations he conquered, which stand to this day. (1)

Though Napoleon did live up the many of the revolutionary ideas, the one policy that he did not embrace the revolution was in his relationship with the church. Napoleon ended the war between the revolution and the Catholic Church with his signing of the **Concordat of 1801** with Pope Pius VII. Both sides agreed to stay out of each others affairs (powers of church and state). (1)

Napoleon Crowned as Emperor

In 1804, Napoleon decided to make himself emperor, and the French voters supported him. On December 2, 1804, dressed in a splendid robe of purple velvet, Napoleon walked down the long aisle of Notre Dame Cathedral in Paris. The pope waited for him with a glittering crown. As thousands watched, the new emperor took the crown from the pope and placed it on his own head. With this gesture, Napoleon signaled that he was more powerful than the Church, which had traditionally crowned the rulers of France. (2)



Time for An Empire!

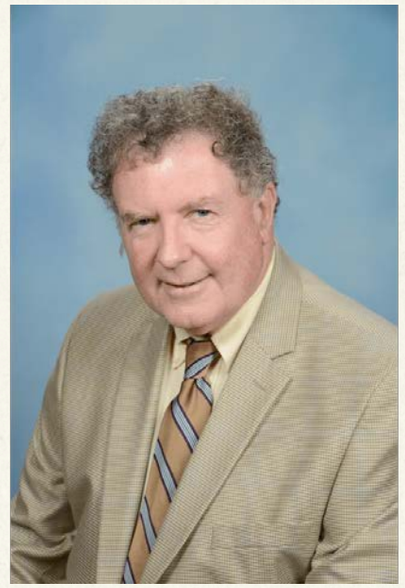
Napoleon was not just contempt in controlling France. Rather he wanted to not only control the rest of Europe but he wanted to establish an western empire. He believed where

this western empire began was on the sugar-producing colony of Saint Domingue (now called Haiti) on the island of Hispaniola.

In 1789, when the ideas of the Revolution reached the planters in Saint Domingue, they demanded that the National Assembly give them the same privileges as the people of France. Eventually, enslaved Africans in the colony demanded their rights too—in other words, their freedom. A civil war erupted, and enslaved Africans under the leadership of **Toussaint L'Ouverture** seized control of the colony. (2)

In 1801, Napoleon decided to take back the colony and restore its productive sugar industry. However, the French forces were devastated by disease. Following these events Napoleon wanted to cut his ties with his western empire and basicly "cashed out" and focused all of his attention to his European expansions. The French Empire was huge but unstable. Napoleon was able to maintain it at its greatest extent for only five years, from 1807 to 1812. Then it quickly fell to pieces. Its sudden collapse was caused in part by Napoleon's actions. (2)

Interactive 15.3 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom



Click on the Image to Learn About Napoleon's Foreign Affairs

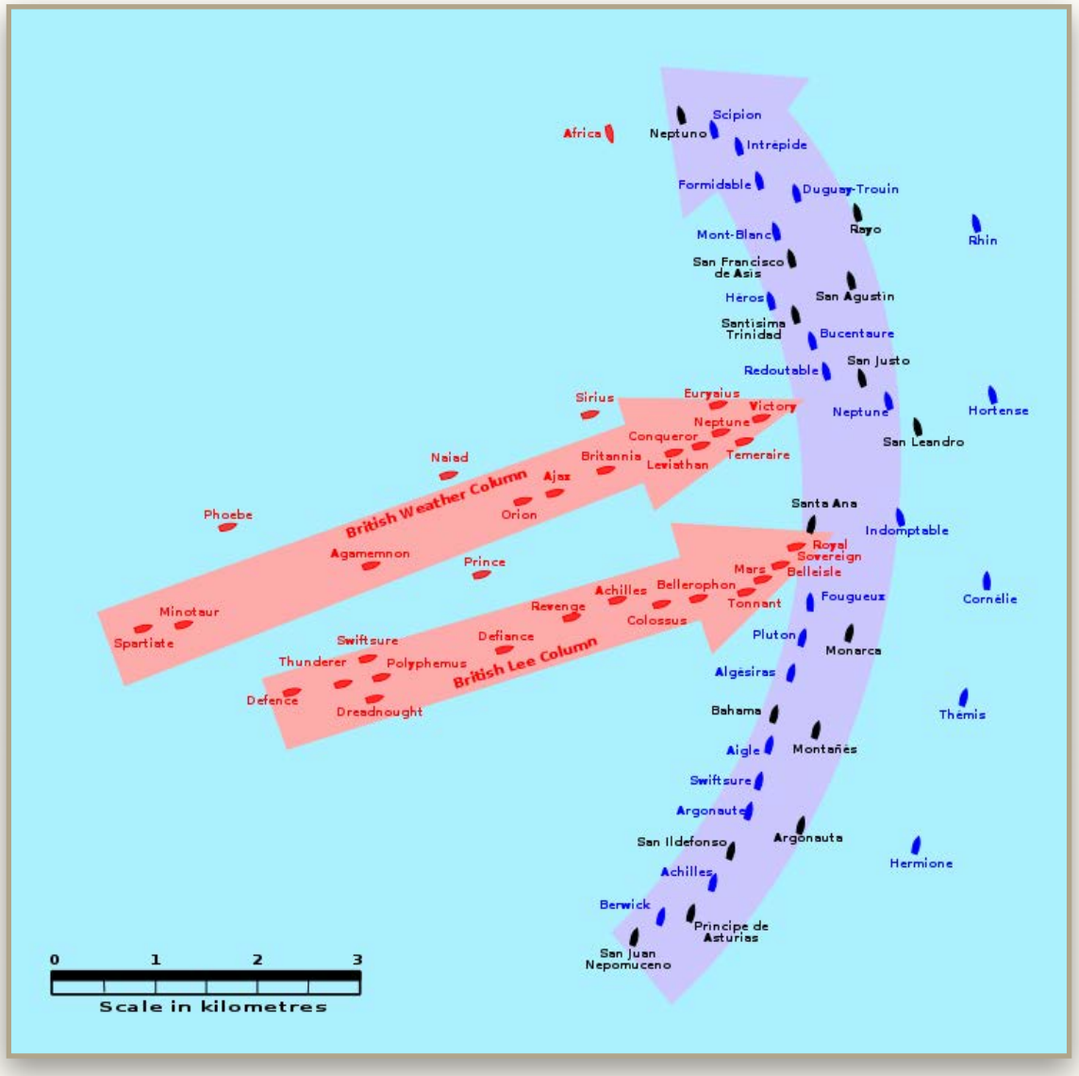
Section 3 Review

1. Read the biography of Napoleon and outline his life.
2. How effective was Napoleon as a ruler in the early days of his leadership?
3. What was so important about the foreign policy of Napoleon? Read Mr. Buckely's document!

The Collapse of the French Revolution

The Collapse of the French Empire

Napoleon declared himself French Emperor and became a military dictator. Napoleon was undefeated against his three main continental enemies, defeating Austria, Russia, and Prussia multiple times. During his tenure, he took control of large amounts of mainland Europe. However, Napoleon failed to subdue England, and was defeated in his attempt to crush the English Navy at the **Battle of Trafalgar** (1805) by Admiral Horatio Nelson. (1)



Strike One - Continental System

As a result, Napoleon employed the Continental System, a method of economic warfare. He prohibited trade with the British by blockading all coasts of Europe from English export. Unfortunately for Napoleon, this failed, as the British still were able to smuggle goods into Europe, and were also able to trade with their colonies, Asia, and the United States. Napoleon eliminated the Holy Roman Empire, and in 1806 consolidated it into 40 states and named it the Confederation of the Rhine. (1)

Strike Two - Peninsular War

In 1808, Napoleon coerced the Bourbon king of Spain to abdicate and then replaced him with his brother Jerome. The

Spanish resented Napoleon's high-handed tactics and toleration of religions other than Catholicism. Due to the people of Spain's insubordination towards Napoleon, he orders 300,000 soldiers to invade Spain and Portugal. With British support, the Spanish bogged the French down in a guerilla war, sapping resources and men. (2)

Strike Three - Invasion of Russia

After Alexander I of Russia withdrew from the Continental System, Napoleon invaded Russia in 1812. For the first time, Napoleon failed, as the Russian army employed scorched earth tactics to defeat Napoleon's army. However, Napoleon quickly raised a new army, but this army was crushed by the Quadruple Alliance of England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia at the **Battle of Nations/Leipzig in 1813**. Napoleon was exiled to the island of Elba, but he managed to escape and return in 1815 in a period known as the Hundred Days. The Quadruple Alliance again crushed his new army at the **Battle of Waterloo**, led by the great British General Wolsey (Duke of Wellington). Napoleon was then exiled to the island of Saint Helena where he died in 1821. (1)

Interactive 15.4 Mr. Buckley's Wisdom

Click on the image to learn more about Napoleon's Costly Mistakes

Section 4 Review

1. After studying the costly mistakes of Napoleon, write a detailed essay as to why each one caused Napoleon to lose his power.

Congress of Vienna

After the French Revolution and Napoleonic Wars, the great powers of Europe met in Vienna to rebuild a stable diplomatic order. Twenty-five years of violent upheaval and warfare had convinced conservatives of the need to reestablish "legitimate" governments and create mechanisms to subdue revolutionary movements. Negotiations were interrupted by the escape of Napoleon from Elba and his Hundred Days campaign culminating with his defeat at Waterloo. (1)

The **Congress of Vienna**, led by foreign minister of Austria **Klemens von Metternich**, was guided by the following three principles:

•**Legitimacy -** "Rightful" monarchs were restored to those nations that experienced revolutions. This meant the Bourbons back in France (Louis XVIII, brother of the executed king), Spain, and Naples. Though some monarchs conceded constitutions in deference to public opinion, power remained in the hands of conservative interests - "throne, altar, and estate" - that is, monarchy, church, and aristocracy. (1)

•**Balance of power** - Key to the Congress's deliberations, balance - of - power considerations led to the creation of a series of buffer states to quarantine to quarantine France should revolution break out there again. The new Kingdom of the Netherlands combined the former Dutch republic and Austria Netherlands. Prussia gained extensive territory on the Rhine, and Piedmont-Sardinia in Italy was strengthened on France's southern border. (1)

•**Alliances** - To ensure peace and stability, the great powers formed the Quadruple Alliance, which was termed the Quintuple Alliance with the inclusion of France after 1818. In addition, the three conservative central and eastern European

powers - Austria, Prussia, and Russia - created the Holy Alliance, envisioned by Alexander I as a break on revolutionary movements. (1)

•**Collective Security** - To ensure peace and stability, the great powers agreed to meet periodically to discuss issues of mutual concern, especially related to war and revolution. The Concert of Europe provided a degree of informal security in the first half of the nineteenth century. However, Britain disagreed with Metternich's vision of collective security as committing the members to the suppression of revolutionary movements. (1)

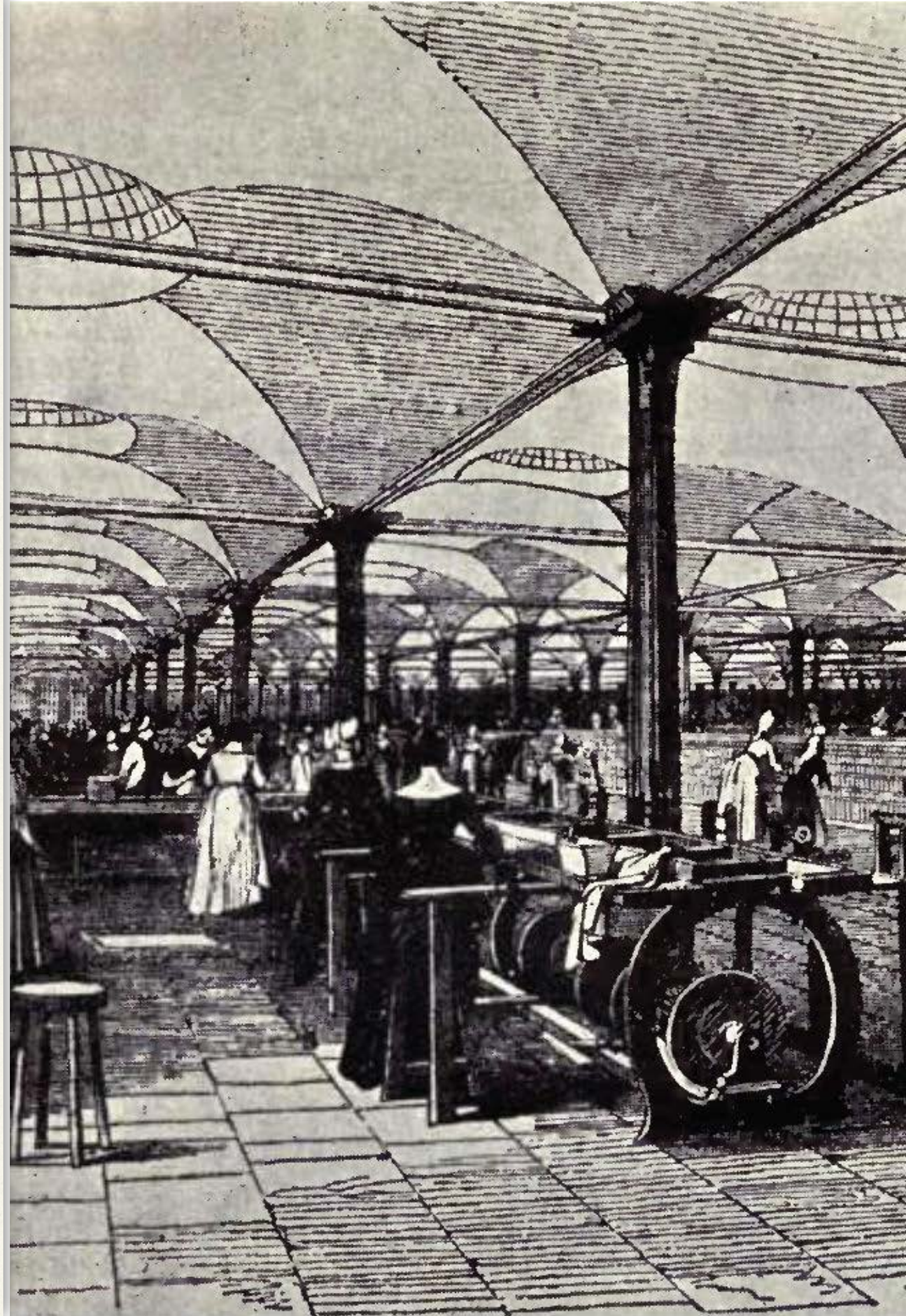
Many of the territories occupied by Napoleon during his Empire began to feel a new sense of nationalism. During the occupation, Napoleon destroyed and disallowed many nations' individual cultures, and the people of these nations greatly resented this. As a result, Napoleon's conquests spurred a new nationalism in the occupied nations, particularly in Germany and Italy, at a level that had never previously existed. (2)

Section 5 Review

1. After researching the Congress of Vienna, explain its importance to restructuring Europe after the French Revolution.
2. Did the Congress of Vienna hinder the future development of Europe? Explain.

Chapter 16

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION



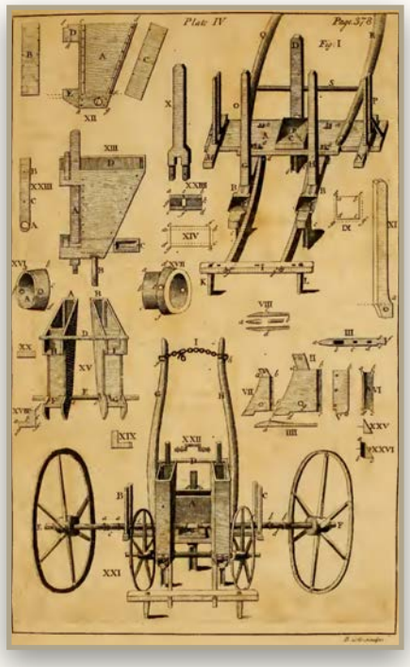
"Marshall's flax-mill, Holbeck, Leeds - interior - c.1800" by No picture credit in book - From The Story of Leeds by J. S. Fletcher, available from the Internet Archive. Licensed under Public Domain via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Marshall%27s_flax-mill,_Holbeck,_Leeds_-_interior_-_c.1800.jpg#/media/File:Marshall%27s_flax-mill,_Holbeck,_Leeds_-_interior_-_c.1800.jpg

The Beginnings of Industry

The shift that precipitated many of the conflicts of the early nineteenth century was the industrial revolution. The growing industrial base of many European countries was to encourage urbanization, often at the expense of the living conditions of the workers. This was coupled with new agrarian technologies which required fewer people to work the land, whilst producing greater agricultural yields. In some countries this precipitated an industrial revolution, where urban industry played an increasingly dominant role in the economy. This process was first seen in Britain, Prussia and the Netherlands in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century whilst other countries, such as France, Italy and the United States of America were to industrialize in the late nineteenth century. Some states, such as Russia and Austria, failed to industrialize significantly in this period, a factor that would lead to later difficulties during the First World War. (1)

Agricultural Revolution

For any industrial revolution to happen, society needed to find ways to produce more food so there were no longer a high demand for farmers. This process would begin with the use of enclosures. After buying up the land of village farmers, wealthy landowners enclosed their land with fences or hedges. The increase in their landholdings enabled them to cultivate larger fields. Within these enclosures, landowners experimented with more productive seeding and harvesting methods to boost crop yields. This would be successfully done through proper crop rotation and the creation of an invention called the **seed drill**. **Jethro Tull** was one of the first of these scientific farmers. He saw that the usual way of sowing seed by scattering it across the ground was wasteful. Many seeds failed to take root. He solved this



problem with an invention called the seed drill in about 1701. It allowed farmers to sow seeds in well-spaced rows at specific depths. A larger share of the seeds took root, boosting crop yields. (2)

Why Britain?

Britain's unique island status insulated it from continental strife, freeing it from supporting a standing army while at the same time promoting an overseas empire. No place in Britain was more than seventy miles from the ocean. Profits from trade could be reinvested in manufacturing enterprises. In addition, Britain possessed natural resources, such as coal and iron ore, necessary for industry. (3)

Promotion of the Agricultural Revolution allowed for a larger population and the resulting mobile labor force to man the new factories. Also, no nation could boast a better financial network of banks and credit institutions able to supply entrepreneurs with the capital necessary for industrial enterprises. (3)

Textile Innovations

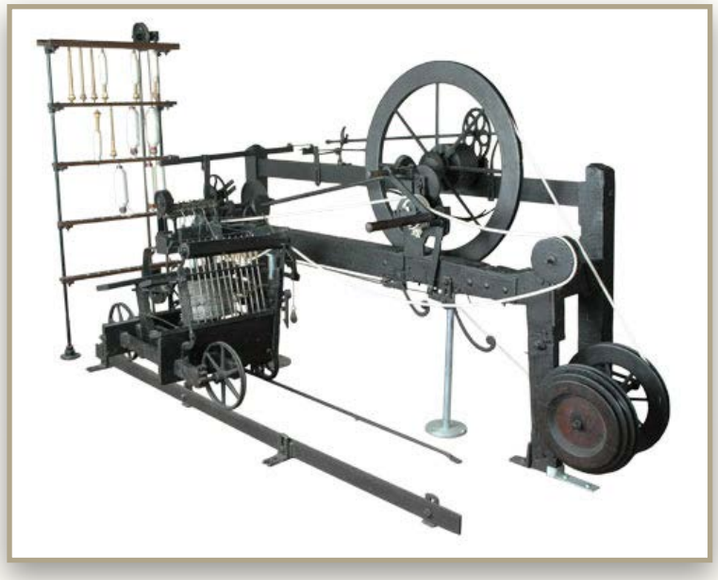
Textiles led the way in the early Industrial Revolution. The many processes of textile production lent themselves to the development of cottage industry, which took hold in Britain in the eighteenth century. Several simple technological breakthroughs, beginnings in the 1730s, paved the way for the mechanization of spinning under one roof, or the first factories. It is important to keep in mind that production processes such as mechanization and the putting-out system often complemented each other in industries with multiple steps, such as textile production. Further, mechanization did not penetrate production in other industries for several generations. (3)

•**John Kay (Flying Shuttle - 1733)** - Allowed single loom operator to work with wider cloth by creating a shuttle that could be operated with one hand.

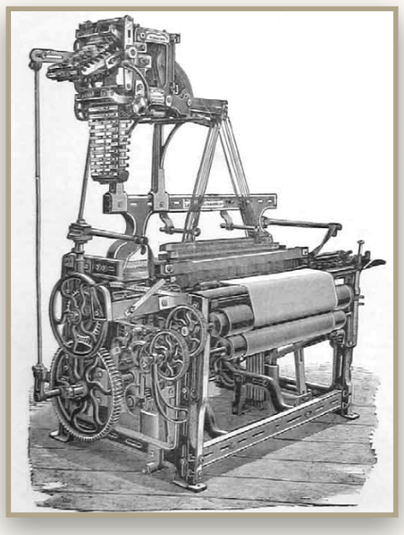
•**James Hargreaves** (Spinning Jenny - 1768) - Allowed the operator to spin eight or more threads with the additional spindles.

•**Richard Arkwright** (Water Frame - 1771) - Added water power to the principle of the jenny allowed the development of factories near rivers.

•**Samuel Crompton** (Spinning Mule - 1780) - Crompton combined the mechanical principles of the jenny and the water frame.

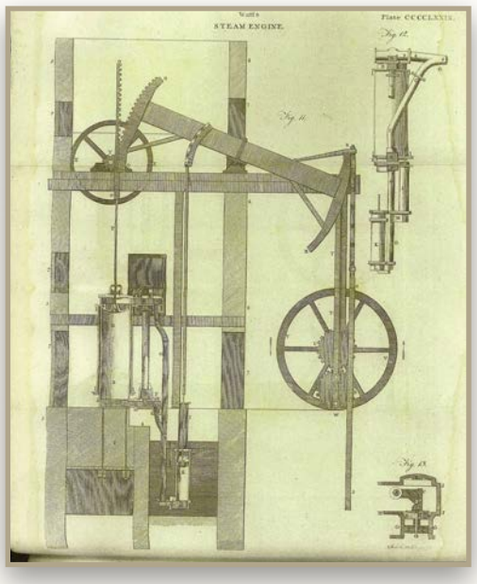


•**Edmund Cartwright** (Power Loom - 1785) - Quickly drove the many handloom weavers out of business after several generations to perfect.



Improvements in Transportation

The first steam engines in the early eighteenth century pumped water out of coal mines, but did so inefficiently, using more energy than they produced. **James Watt**, in partnership with the entrepreneur Matthew Boulton, perfected the steam engine by employing a separate condenser to cool the steam and later added rotary motion, essential to the development of locomotion. Watt's invention provided a much-needed source of power for factories, which could now be located anywhere. (3)

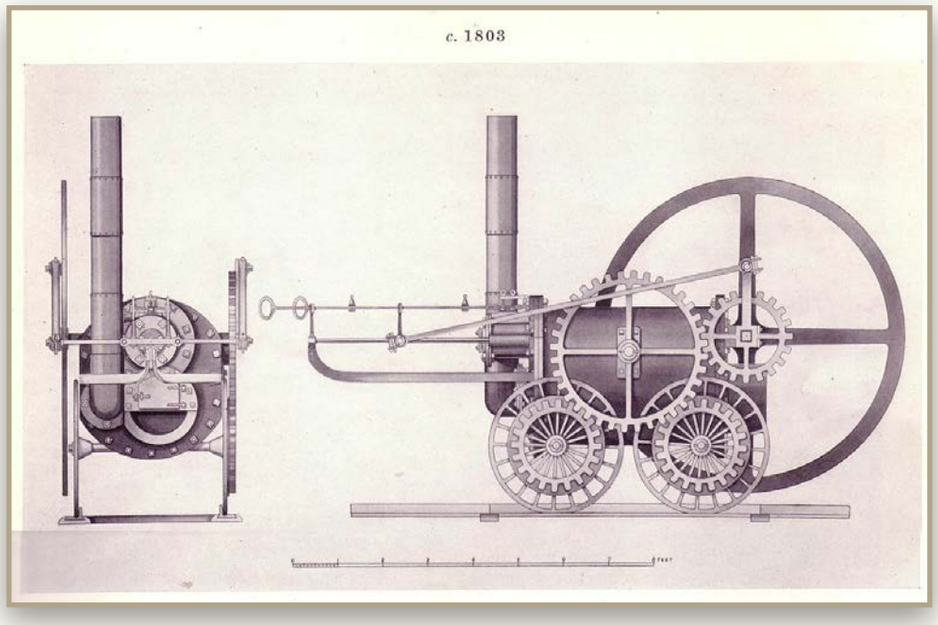


Watt's engine would be used in a variety of ways. The engine did spark interest to an American engineer and inventor named Robert Fulton. Fulton was widely credited with developing a commercially successful steamboat called Clermont. That steamboat went from New York City to Albany with passengers over a 300-mile distance in 62 hours. In 1800, he was commissioned by Napoleon Bonaparte to design the "Nautilus," which was the first practical submarine in history. (4)

British roads improved, too, thanks largely to the efforts of **John McAdam**, a Scottish engineer. He invented a new process, "macadamisation," for building roads with a smooth hard surface, using controlled materials of mixed particle size and predetermined structure that would be more durable and less muddy than soil-based tracks. (5)

Modern road construction still reflects McAdam's influence. Of subsequent improvements, the most significant was the introduction of tar (originally coal tar) to bind the road surface's stones together – "tarmac" (or Tarmacadam.) (5)

In the eighteenth century water transportation proved to be the most reliable and cut the costs of bringing good to market. However, with the advent of cheaper iron and the power of the steam engine, railroads replaced canals as the most efficient form of transportation. At first, railways consisted of horse-drawn wagons over wooden rails, used to transport coal out of mines to foundries. In 1804, **Richard Trevithick** designed and built the first steam-powered locomotive. Soon after, engineer George Stephenson created a faster engine, "The Rocket," which could travel at the amazing



speed of twenty four miles per hour! Across Britain, railroads were providing cheaper goods and new form of reliable passenger transportation. Railroads decreased isolation and allowed for geographic and social mobility, making them one of the most important inventions of the nineteenth century. Like a locomotive racing across the country, the Industrial Revolution brought rapid and unsettling changes to people's lives. (3)

Section 1 Review

1. How important was the agricultural revolution in relationship to the industrial revolution?
2. In your opinion, which textile invention was the most creative and vital to the growth of industry?
3. Identify how transportation was made easier during the Industrial Revolution.

SECTION 2

The Social Impact & Responses to Industrialization

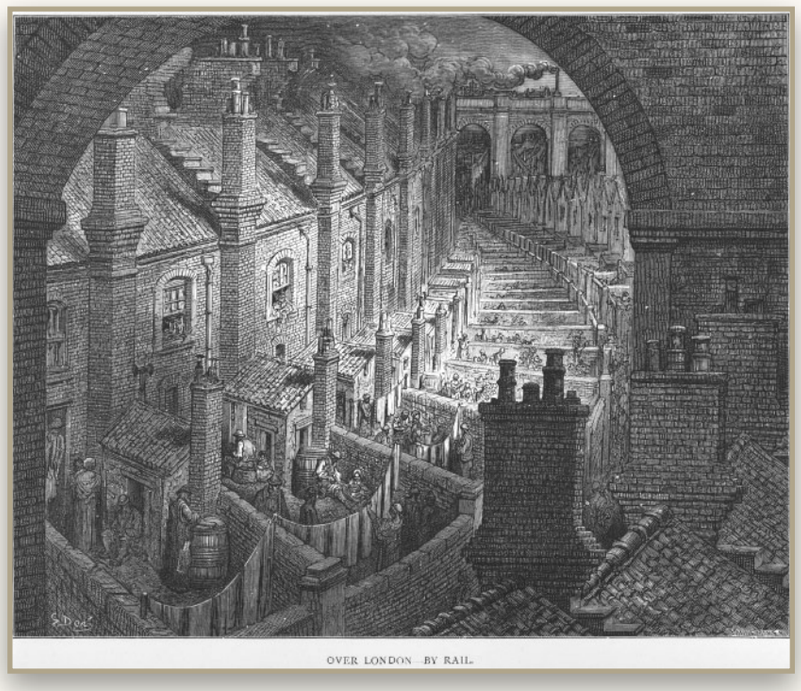
The Industrial Revolution profoundly influenced first British and later European society. Problems such as overcrowding, pollution, worker discontent, and inequality compelled governments, reformers, and radicals to devise a range of contending responses to such issues. (1)

Population Increase

Industrialization supported a marked increase in population. From 1750 to 1850, the population of the British Isles rose two hundred percent, from ten to thirty million. This population would find themselves flooding towards the factory jobs creating a movement of urbanization, city building and the movement of people to cities. Though many found work in the new factories and mills, urban problems followed closely behind. (1)

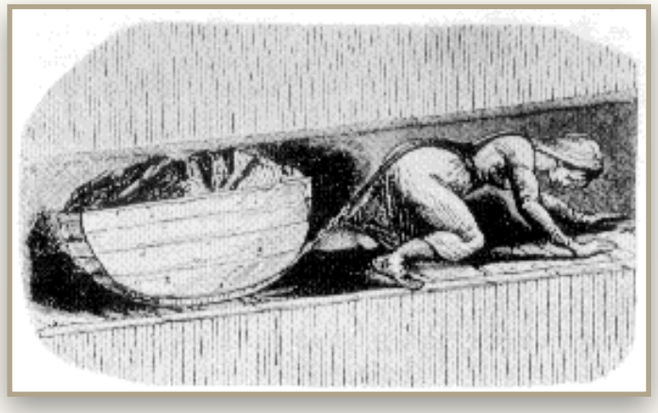
Working and Living Conditions

The Industrial Revolution resulted in poor urban living conditions with no sanitation. Urban and industrial growth went beyond the state's control. Cities found that their infrastructure of streets, housing, and sewage disposal could not keep up with the onslaught of new residents. Public drunkenness as a reaction to the dismal lifestyle became prominent, and the cities were filthy and living conditions tight. Life expectancy was short, and disease was rampant. The standard of living decreased for many, with low wages and high prices. (2)



OVER LONDON—BY RAIL.

Initial factory conditions were deplorable. Workers were expected to labor up to fourteen hours per day with inadequate light and ventilation. Strict rules punished tardiness and fraternization among workers. Owners, often preferred children as laborers, for their small hands able to reach into machinery, as well as women, considered more docile and willing to work for lower wages than men. In coal and factories, laborers were exposed to toxic substances and particulates, causing lung and other diseases. Finally, because machines often determined the pace of labor, workers found themselves living by a regimented schedule and subject to fatigue that could be deadly if they should fall into the moving parts of machines. (1)



New Industrial Classes

Industrialization created new classes. At the top, the industrial middle class gained wealth and status from the profits of industry. Though they were still few in number, this growing bourgeoisie set a social tone of frugality, respectability, and hard work, exemplifying the ideal of social mobility through self-help. (1)

Noticing the poor crowded city conditions and impoverished workers in industrial Europe, several economists expressed their pessimistic predictions on the future of the industrial society. (2)

Section 2 Review

1. After reading this section, what were some of the positive and negative aspects of industrialization?

SECTION 3

Reforming the Industrial World

In industrialized countries in the 19th century, the Industrial Revolution opened a wide gap between the rich and the poor. Business leaders believed that governments should stay out of business and economic affairs. Reformers, however, felt that governments needed to play an active role to improve conditions for the poor. Workers also demanded more rights and protection. They formed labor unions to increase their influence. (1)

The Rise of Capitalism

Economically, the Enlightenment embraced a ***laissez-faire***, "let people do what they do," feeling between the government and its work force. The term laissez-faire refers to the economic policy of letting the business and industry owners set working conditions without government interference. This feeling was strongly supported by a professor from Scotland named **Adam Smith**. In his work The *Wealth of Nations*, according to Smith, economic liberty guaranteed economic progress. As a result, government should not interfere. Smith's arguments rested on what he called the three natural laws of economics:

- **The law of self-interest**— People work for their own good
- **The law of competition**— Competition forces people to make a better product
- **The law of supply and demand**— Enough goods would be produced at the lowest possible price to meet demand in a market economy (1)

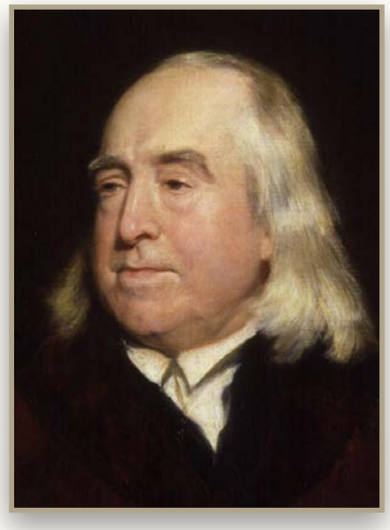
These basic ideas were strongly supported by two British economists Thomas Malthus and David Ricardo.

Thomas Malthus, an English economist with a grim prediction for the future. *An Essay on the Principle of Population* stated that the population was outgrowing the food supply, and that this would inevitably cause a "great hunger," or massive food shortage. Malthus suggested, as a solution to this problem, marrying later in life to slow the population growth, but he was not optimistic that this plan would ever come to fruition. (2)

David Ricardo, in his *Principles of Political Economy* and Taxation, he predicted that the income of wage-earning workers would remain below or just near subsistence levels, despite any attempts to raise wages. Ricardo believed that a permanent underclass would always be poor. In a market system, if there are many workers and abundant resources, then labor and resources are cheap. (1)

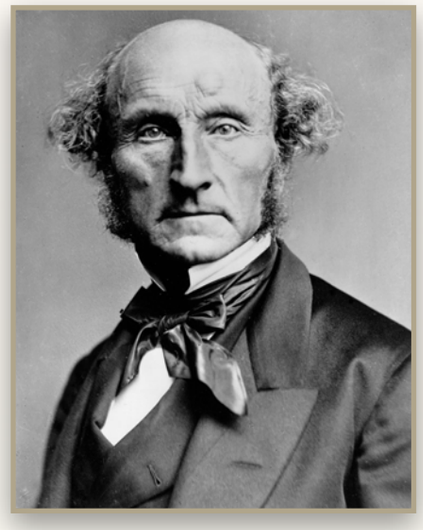
Laissez-faire thinkers such as Smith, Malthus, and Ricardo opposed government efforts to help poor workers. They thought that creating minimum wage laws and better working conditions would upset the free market system, lower profits, and undermine the production of wealth in society. (1)

The Rise of Socialism



In contrast to laissez-faire philosophy, which advised governments to leave business alone, other theorists believed that governments should intervene. These thinkers believed that wealthy people or the government must take action to improve people's lives. (1)

British philosopher **Jeremy Bentham** articulated the related approach of *utilitarianism*, wherein "good" was defined as providing pleasure and "evil" as causing pain. Holding that the purpose of government was to promote the "greatest good for the greatest number," Bentham argued for separation of church and state, women's rights, and the end of slavery. (3)



Following the utilitarian tradition, **John Stuart Mill** later provided in his *On Liberty* one of the most eloquent defenses of freedom of expression and the dangers of the "tyranny of the majority." Mill also collaborated with his wife, Harriet Taylor, and defended the cause of female suffrage in Parliament. (3)

Socialists believed the capitalist system was unequal and unjust, and wished to replace it with social and economic planning. One of the earlier socialist, ironically, was textile entrepreneur, **Robert Owen**. Robert Owen was a Welsh manufacturer. In his mills at New Lanark in Scotland he proved that investing in the welfare of employees could be profitable. He provided his workers with schools and free accommodation. By doing this Owen was rewarded with a hard-working and loyal workforce, and his mills were some of the most profitable and productive in Britain. (2)

Owen was later to invest his profits in the community of New Harmony in the United States of America. The community was heavily reliant upon the leadership of Owen and quickly foundered. Although Owen's communities did not long outlast his lifetime, his thinking was highly influential amongst later socialists, and the term communist was originally coined to describe Owen's followers. (2)

Radical Socialism

Probably the most important socialist thinker of the nineteenth century was the German writer **Karl Marx**. Marx's rise to prominence began in the Year of Revolutions, 1848, with the publication of The *Communist Manifesto*, a volume which he wrote with the help of *Frederick Engels*. The book was an attempt to create political tension between economic classes around the world. He also wrote *Das Kapital*, a critique of capitalism that argues as to why Marx believed capitalism should fail. He sought to incite the violent revolution of the proletariat against the bourgeois. The proletariat described the working class, while the bourgeois described the middle and upper classes that owned the means of production. This revolution would be caused by what Marx described as a historic class struggle between these two groups. After this revolution, Marx argued for the formation of a classless society, in which no private property, religion, or government existed. (2)

Marx also advocated the concept of dialectical materialism. The theory states that history is driven by economic conditions and material private property inequality. This theory was based on Hegel's dialectic theory, in which a thesis and antithesis are resolved into a synthesis. The end of Marx's concept of dialectical history is the synthesis of communism because private property is prohibited. Marx believed that the rise of the proletariat was inevitable, even if he had never existed and written his book. This is what separates Marxism from Utopian Socialism - Utopian Socialism required the benevolent and peaceful surrender of the means of production by capitalists. (2)

Make sure to refer to Mr. Buckley's Wisdom in Chapter 3 to refresh your memory on Marxism!!

Working Class Responds to Industrialization in England

Luddism

The Luddites were a group of workers opposed to the effects of the mechanization of industry, particularly in textiles. The advent of large scale spinning and weaving machines meant that textiles could be produced at lower costs than previously, undercutting the prices of the traditional cottage industry of handloom weavers. (2)

The attacks of the Luddites began in 1811 and were targeted at the machinery of factory and workshop owners. The campaigns of the Luddites were often closely targeted at specific forms of machinery and, despite the modern connotations of the name; the group were not opposed to progress in principle. (2)

The name of the group is derived from its fictional leader, **Ned Ludd**. This figure was used as a focal point for demonstrations, and to distract attention from the real leaders of various protests. (2)

The Luddites were followed some years later by the Swing rioters who, following a mythical leader, Captain Swing, opposed the mechanization of agriculture. The Swing riots mostly occurred during the early 1830s and were put down with often severe force. (2)

Trade Unionism

The Luddites were, in essence, part of a reactive movement, fighting against the modernization of methods of production. An alternative, and often more effective, method of action was the organization of workers into trade unions, where rights could be secured through collective bargaining and the threat of strikes. Whilst such movements were often not illegal in themselves, many of their actions were. It was, for instance, considered a criminal offence for a workman to break his contract and striking workers could be charged for offences relating to conspiracy or breaches of public order. (2)

Despite this there was a sustained demand on the part of the workers that their rights be recognized and the persistent campaigns of workers eventually achieved the legal recognition of unions. (2)

In the 1820s and 1830s, for example, Parliament began investigating child labor and working conditions in factories and mines. As a result of its findings, Parliament passed the Factory Act of 1833. The new law made it illegal to hire children under 9 years old. (1)

During the 1800s, democracy grew in industrialized countries even as foreign expansion increased. The industrialized democracies faced new challenges both at home and abroad.

Section 3 Review

1. Identify every philosopher from the Industrial period and summarize their main points.
2. Of all of the philosophers, whose idea was the most relevant and why?

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