

MODULE I

1

RENAISSANCE

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1.0 OBJECTIVES

1. To introduce the students to the modern world and modern ideas.
2. To explain the causes and significance of Renaissance and Humanism.
3. To illustrate the works of artists, writers and scientists during Renaissance

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This paper is called Land marks in World History. We have to study the major events in modern world that affected mankind. These events have left a mark on the evolution of modern politics, society, economy, religion and culture in Europe.

The first significant landmark is the Renaissance. With the beginning of Renaissance we enter the modern age of European history. The earlier period was marred by chaos, conflict and confusion. After that life became more comfortable. This was possible due to political stability, education, trade and prosperity. This is where modern age begins. Though the period changes from country to country, the common bond between European states is the emergence of Renaissance. It is the rise of intellectualism and humanism. In the following lesson we shall examine the causes of Renaissance and its effect on art, architecture science and literature.

1.2 MEANING OF RENAISSANCE

Renaissance is the cultural movement that started in Italy in late 15th Century. Then it spread to **United Kingdom, France, and Germany** etc. It is one of the most important events in history because it is affected on every aspects of human life.

The literary meaning of the term renaissance is rebirth. The period brought about the revival of interest in Greek and Roman literature and art. The people of the times wanted to revive the culture by adding their own ideas. They felt that ancient Greek and Roman traditions were rich in cultural heritage. The medieval ideas which dominated on the society were considered backward and were rejected by the leaders of renaissance e.g. church It controlled by the society. Man was a slave in the hands of

religion. The renaissance put in a sense of inquiry. Thus there arose rationalism instead of dogmatism.

The main theme of the movement was the ideal of Humanism. It means the development of human personality, regarding man as the center of activity. Earlier god was the center of all activities and man was just a creature waiting for salvation. Artists turned attention to draw and sketch human beings.

The renaissance movement produced a spirit of curiosity. Man was told not to accept philosophy and theology simply because he was told to be curious about all things. He was encouraged to study more about himself and his surroundings. The period encouraged original thinking and study of texts including the Bible. However, the emphasis was on revival of secular literature.

It was known that many ancient classics of Greece and Rome were lost in the dark period. The leaders set themselves the task to rediscover, decipher and translate the texts. Thus, literature and art was wanted for the sake of art and not for religion.

There is no doubt that the movement was an urban phenomenon. It was the movement of classes and not masses. The leaders were intellectuals. Most of them were from the bourgeoisie class, who had some time to spend on literature and art. Though it's a fact that the renaissance brought in a new era and changed the entire culture, the changes were not sudden. It was a gradual process. In the height of the movement too, few accepted the changes. However, gradually as the ideas spread to newer lands, they engulfed the entire human kind. Scholars agree that the modern era began with the renaissance.

1.3 CAUSES OF THE RENAISSANCE

The renaissance originated in Italy and spread to other parts of Europe. The movement did not begin overnight. The causes of it lay in the middle ages. Many believe that it started in 1453, when Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, after the fall of Constantinople, the middle class people including the scholars of the city ran away, carrying their texts. They went to Italy and enlightened the people with a sense of inquiry. This was the immediate cause of the renaissance, but ideas were already gaining root. The event hastened the movement. The important causes are as follows.

1.3.1 Rise of Intellectuals:

An important feature of the middle ages was the rise of literacy. People learnt to read and write Latin and also vernacular languages. Encouragement was provided by a large number of clergy, bureaucrats, teachers, lawyers and merchants. They needed some sort of education to carry governmental activities. Therefore in the 14th Century the schools

were started to established. In Italy even commoners got interested in reading classics. They sent children for higher education. The period saw the emergence of new universities at Paris, Naples, Oxford, Cambridge etc. This spread of knowledge created a new approach to thinking and learning.

1.3.2 Discovery of the Printing Press:

The earliest printed paper in Europe was in 1454, printed on movable type. There no evidence that how and when Europeans learnt printing. In 12th century designs were printed on textiles, but books were written by hand. Therefore the spread of knowledge was slow and costly. Gradually people developed the art of printing in Mainz in Germany. Soon, there was a demand for printed books. Within years, presses were introduced all over Europe. Books were produced quickly and cheaply and in greater quantity. This was a revolution of the time. Printing made the spread of literacy easier. This was welcomed by the renaissance leaders as it greatly contributed to the movement.

1.3.3 Patronage of Rulers, Popes and Nobles:

In the 15th century Italian city states came under the rule of influential families. In other states there was republican form, where ruling classes controlled government e.g. Florence and Venice. They spent a lot in construction and sponsoring artistic and intellectual activities. The Medici family dominated the city state of Florence. They controlled European finances and made the state prosperous. Lorenzo patronized arts. Venice was also a center of renaissance art, supported by its rulers. King Francis of France, Henry VIII of England patronized scholars and invited them to the court. Popes encouraged the revival of Greek and Roman classics. Pope Nicholas V, asked for classics, for whatever price. He gathered a band of writers, for the job, of translating and composing texts. He collected about 5000 classics. All books were to be copied, according to him. He even encouraged religious literature. Pope Leo X was a lover of classical art and literature and donated funds to patronize activities.

1.3.4 The Crusades:

The Crusades were expeditions of Christians, to reconquer the lost areas from infidels. The first crusade was launched in 1088 by Pope Urban. There were 7 more major and some minor crusades. The purpose was to take back Palestine from the Muslims. It was the land where Christ lived and died. The Crusades failed in their religious purpose, but brought in great effects in culture and economic life of Europe. They encouraged trade and commerce, which made Italian state prosperous. There was contact with the Arab world. Scholars could bring back many texts which were lost, since the Roman Kingdom ended. They translated Greek and Arab writings. People discovered Aristotle's classics and discussed his views. This encouraged a new era in learning. This contact with the new

world brought in new ideas and gave an impetus to Renaissance. Similarly, geographical discoveries brought in a change in the outlook of Europeans. They developed a spirit of adventure spirit which encouraged the rise of Renaissance.

1.3.5 Trade and Prosperity:

Since the 11th Century, they developed trade and commercial relations with other areas. Thus there was a changed of economy from agriculture to commerce. Secondly due to trade and commerce people shifted from rural to urban towns. As long as economic life remained static, there was no Renaissance. As economic life became better there was an upsurge of art and literature. Prosperity was the cause. Trade and prosperity brought leisure. In agricultural economy man is throughout busy. He has no time and energy to appreciate art. But with the change of economy people got more money, which they could spend on patronizing renaissance art and literature.

1.4 UPSURGE OF HUMANISM

The most consistent ideal of renaissance was humanism, which meant the development of human personality. Humanists were those people who believed in the idea. They cultivated the use of classical Latin and Greek and searched ancient manuscripts of it. **They felt that ancient Greek was humanists.** This was against the prevailing system. Greeks had made man as the center. There was hardly any emphasis on God. As against this the Middle Ages were called Age of Faith, where God was glorified.

Humanism in the Renaissance period was an intellectual movement. Humanists were scholars who studied subjects which would develop man's personality e.g. literature, philosophy. Old classics contained the subjects, but they were in ancient languages. So the humanists first studied Latin. They studied history to understand more. They then tried to search for more material. They went to various libraries to search manuscripts. They collected ancient coins, statues. They were either teachers, or clergymen or tutors of princes.

Already since late 14th century Italian humanists had visited Constantinople to learn Greek language manuscripts. Verona, a humanist returned with 50 manuscripts. There were others who brought many classics. In fact the Popes encouraged the import of Greek literature. Humanists even tried to apply humanist methods to the study of Christianity, by editing texts on which Christianity was based - Bible, Letters of St. Paul, Augustine and other saints.

The most important humanist of the Renaissance was Francesco Petrarch. He wrote in Latin and Italian. He wrote some of the best love lyrics, but is

more known for his epics. He had searched from manuscripts and found one of Homer, but could not read as it was in Greek.

Petrarch came from a middle class family. He was criticized for his interest in classics. His parents forced him to study law. But after his parents died he was free to search for lost knowledge. His Sonnets on his lady love Laura are famous. He expressed his feelings in the poems. He appreciated her physical beauty. This would be a sin in middle ages. Even in those times he sometimes worried about his own salvation for his so called sinful poems.

Boccaccio studied classical literature. He wrote a collection of stories called Decameron. He tried to describe human feelings and situations which could happen to common people.

Humanism was evident in the works of painters and sculptors also. While earlier artists concentrated on religious theories, renaissance artists wanted to portray people. Erasmus and Thomas More were Christian humanists. Erasmus was aware of evils in the church. He criticized those in his “The Praise of Folly”. He questioned the morality of priests. He also said that Christianity of the day was full of rituals and not of true spirit. Thomas More was beheaded for objecting to Henry VIII’s divorce and not saying that Pope was above the king. In his ‘Utopia’, he attacked church evils.

Thus the renaissance left an intellectual and artistic heritage. Since the times scholars have used renaissance methods of humanism.

Check Your Progress:

1. What were the major causes responsible for the renaissance in Europe?

1.5 RENAISSANCE IN LITERATURE

Renaissance literature reflected the spirit of humanism and secularism. It was written in local languages. While Italy was the home of famous writers, typical renaissance literature was produced in France, UK, Spain and Germany. Interest in scientific study of languages emerged. Scientific dictionaries were prepared. There was a comparative study of philology. As said earlier literature revolved around human activities.

The main writers of the period were:-

1.5.1 Dante:

Dante was born in Florence. He was a renaissance poet. His collection of 31 poems, 'The New Life', described his love to Beatrice. He is known for his epic poem 'The Divine Comedy'. It focuses on the theme of life after death. It can also be a summary of medieval thought. He had a tremendous influence on later writers. Besides, these he has composed a number of other works.

1.5.2 Petrarch:

Petrarch was also from Italy. He had written sonnets of love. He was deeply in awe of ancient writer Cicero. To spread interest in classical literature he toured widely. Petrarch wrote about 400 poems on Lady Laura. One is not sure whether she was an imaginary figure or really lived. Poems describe the beauty of Laura. Petrarch goes on admiring the physical prettiness of Laura. His poems describe human hopes and aspirations.

1.5.3 Machiavelli:

Machiavelli was an Italian diplomat. He is called the father of modern political science and is the most famous political thinker of renaissance. He was a government official. In his duty he came across various crucial situations. He gave a framework of an ideal state - that which is united, strong and peaceful. Machiavelli is famous for his book 'The Prince' written in 1513. The book describes how an ideal ruler should behave in various circumstances. He describes the things a king should possess. He gives ideas, about an ideal army, bureaucracy and state government. Machiavelli gives a perfect understanding of diplomacy.

1.5.4 Geoffrey Chaucer:

Geoffrey Chaucer was a great English poet. His 'Canterbury Tales' is group of stories, which made him popular. In this he criticized church abuses, in a satirical manner. In his tales he discusses social issues like marriage, domestic harmony etc. Due to his excessive travel, Chaucer was influenced by French and Italian writers. He read Latin classics and theology. His famous romantic poem is 'Troilus and Criseyde'. Here he explored the beauty of love and the mystery of fortune.

1.5.5 William Shakespeare:

William Shakespeare was an English poet and playwright - considered to be the best dramatist. He wrote 37 plays - comedies, tragedies and histories. In these he wrote about social issues, including people of all walks of life. Antony and Cleopatra, Othello, Julius Caesar, Hamlet, As

you like it, 12th Night, Merchant of Venice, Romeo and Juliet etc. are his popular plays. He has written 2 long poems. He had composed a sequence of 154 sonnets.

1.5.6 Erasmus:

Erasmus was a Dutch priest. He realized the drawbacks in religion and sought to reform the church. Earlier he supported Martin Luther in his criticism. But later, when he realized that Luther wanted a separate church, he did not support Luther. He wanted a united Christian population. He wrote philosophy of Christ, where he stressed piety, morality and dedication to truth. He wrote New Testament in Greek which was not available earlier.

1.5.7 Montaigne:

Montaigne was a France essayist; a typical renaissance writer. For him everything that concerned man was important. He wrote 107 essays, which show his independent mind and judgment.

1.5.8 Sir Thomas More:

Sir Thomas More was an English author and statesman. He served as Lord Chancellor, the highest judicial officer. But he resigned since he objected to King Henry VIII's plan to divorce the queen. He was beheaded in 1535 for refusing to accept the King as the head of the church. He was a patron of arts. He wrote Utopia, about his dream of ideal society where justice and equality would prevail.

The renaissance has produced many writers of great fame like Edmund Spencer, Boccaccio, Juan Boscan, Cervantes, Rabelais, Martin Luther, Francis Bacon, Milton etc.

The renaissance produced literature in all areas - drama, essays, stories, politics, religion, ethics, history and fantasy. There is no doubt that it had revived interest in classical literature. But literary activity was not limited to classical style. There was a tendency to break away from Greek and Latin and seek expression in vernacular languages. This brought about development of national literature, and national politics. Religious literature tried to reach the masses with propaganda.

Check Your Progress:

1. Give an account of the renaissance literature?

1.6 RENAISSANCE IN ART - PAINTING

In the renaissance period specific progress was made in art and architecture. Art was an aspect of renaissance and it was a reflection of the period in which it was produced. In the middle ages, art was dominated by the church. Since there was a dogmatic approach, artists had little freedom. Therefore art tended to be hard, conventional and grotesque. It was the spirit of humanism that brought a simpler and restrained form, which was an adoption of classical art form.

Artistic revival in Italy began with Giotto. He had a sense of humor and love for realism. He combined secular and religious themes in his paintings. Since paintings of classical days were few, renaissance painters had an opportunity to be original. The renaissance produced the following great painters.

1.6.1 Leonardo da Vinci:

Leonardo da Vinci was one of the greatest painters. Besides he was a poet, artist, musician and engineer. He also studied anatomy, botany, geology and astronomy. Leonardo studied painting under Verrocchio. He then built his studio in Florence. Of the many paintings he finished, 4 are recognized as masterpieces. Mona Lisa, has a mysterious smile. The painting has no rival in its beauty of posture, grace and background. The 'Last Supper' is extremely beautiful. Christ surrounded by 12 apostles, announced that one of them would betray Him. His face is serene, but the psychological effect on other faces is noteworthy. The Virgin of the Rocks and the Virgin and child with St. Anne are also masterpieces of the world.

In 16th century - Rome became the center of Italian painting. The Popes spent large sums to make Rome glorious. Raphael and Michelangelo worked in Rome. Their style is called High Renaissance, combining earlier art with Roman realism.

1.6.2 Michelangelo:

Michelangelo was also an genius - a painter, an architect, sculptor, poet and engineer. He studied anatomy and physiology. His pictures have strong emotions, a sense of grandeur and power. The Popes invited him to decorate Sistine Chapel in the Vatican. The frescoes show 9 scenes from Old Testament, 3 of God creating the world, 3 of Adam and Eve and 3 of Noah and the Flood. These are surrounded by 12 huge, prophets. Most well-known of these is The Creation of Adam - God moving on a cloud and raising his arm to Adam to receive the spark of life. Michelangelo also painted The Last Judgment on the entire ceiling. Others include Crucifixion of St. Peter and Conversion of St. Paul.

1.6.3 Raphael:

Raphael was an influential Italian painter. His grace and skill are remembered till today. He painted frescoes of historical and mythological scenes and portraits. He was invited by Pope Julius II to work in Rome. He painted Marriage of the Virgin, Sistine Madonna, School of Athens and others.

1.6.4 Other Painters:

Venice was the second center for art in 16th century. Venice was a commercial center and had contact with East. So we find influence of Eastern art, special fascination for colour. Venetian painters mastered in oil painting Giorgione, and Titian was famous oil painting artists.

Jar Van Eyck was a Flemish style painter. Rembrandt was Dutch artist. He has 600 painting works, 300 etching and 1400 drawing. The range includes landscapes, nudes, portraits, animals, birds as his subjects. El Greco, Holbein and Durer were other renaissance painters.

1.7 RENAISSANCE IN SCULPTURE

Sculpture is associated with architecture. Effect of renaissance could be seen on sculpture. It was due to ancient monuments in Italy. Archaeological discoveries, of 15th century encouraged sculpture. Medici family promoted it.

Humanism in sculpture began with Nicola Pisano and his San Giovanni in 13th century. But in 15th century there arose a great sculptor called Lorenzo Ghiberti. He carved doors for the Baptistery of Florence. They were grand and beautiful.

Donatello:

Donatello of 14th century was a great Renaissance sculptor. He produced statue of David, which was a theological subject, but the approach was renaissance. With it he revived nude figures. It was first nude after Roman art. He also decorated churches in Florence.

Michelangelo was a well-known sculptor too. The Medici family patronized him. He sculptured tomb of Lorenzo Medici. He is known for the emotional feelings on his statues. His statue of David is a masterpiece. Michelangelo carved 3 statues in Sistine ceiling. The 16th century sculptor copied Roman styles. Renaissance sculptor was found outside Italy. Sculptors were called to UK and France.

1.8 RENAISSANCE IN ARCHITECTURE

Architecture of renaissance style originated in Florence in 15th century. There was a trend towards classical style. The Gothic style which was Christian was discarded. Instead the arches domes and columns of Greek and Rome models were adopted. In Italy Gothic was not very popular. Rome became center for the new style.

Brunelleschi aroused interest in remains of structures in 14th century. He pointed the virtues of classical art. He did his project of the dome of cathedral of Florence. Besides he designed many other structures. Alberti wrote a book on renaissance architecture. He designed church of Santa Maria Novella in Florence. However the greatest project of renaissance was the St. Peter's church in Rome. The work began in 1506 and was completed in late 17th century. The huge dome was designed by Michelangelo. Nine other architects worked till it ended. The renaissance architecture spread to France, UK and Spain by 16th century.

1.9 RENAISSANCE IN SCIENCE

Science had made some progress in middle Ages but the spirit of modern science was born with the renaissance. In middle ages there were restrictions on every aspect. Church opposed scientists, Superstitions were common and to masses they were more acceptable than scientific explanations. Physicians were looked down upon as atheists. Renaissance brought interest in things pertaining to man.

The main cause for the beginning of progress in science was the loss of religious monopoly on man's intellect. The Protestant Reformation challenged the authority of the church and encouraged personal expression. The rise of national state with stable society aided the progress of science. The discovery of new lands brought new ideas from unknown people.

Science of the 16th century made effective protest against existing scientific method. Francis said that classical conclusions did not represent mature nature. Descartes questioned the knowledge of ancient world. We give the idea of doubt and doubt is the fore runner of new age.

1.9.1 Geography and Astronomy:

Discovery of new lands proved that some ideas were wrong. It was proved that theologians spread incorrect ideas Voyages of discovery revealed a new earth. There was hardly any progress done since the theory of Ptolemy in 2nd century. The theory was challenged by Copernicus in 15th Century. He said that the sun was the center of universe and the earth revolved round and the sun. Copernicus' theory was revolutionary because

it challenged the church. He was afraid of the Pope, due to religious hold on the people.

1.9.2 Kepler:

Kepler gave mathematical laws to support Copernicus. He said that planets revolve in elliptical paths. Both Catholics and Protestants condemned the theory. It was put on Papal Index and Luther called it as contradictory to Holy Scriptures.

1.9.3 Galileo:

Galileo brought fresh evidence by inventing the telescope. Through experimentation he discovered principles of mechanics. He saw mountains on the moon and rings round Saturn. He said that world was controlled by mechanical order. He was punished to death for saying heretic things.

1.9.4 Newton:

Newton concluded that movements of all things are controlled by gravitation. This he wrote in his book 'Principia'. His studies in lenses and prisms laid the foundation for the study of optics.

1.9.5 Halley:

Halley predicted the appearance of the Comet that now bears his name. He shattered the old belief that comets brought disaster. With the new astronomical knowledge the Julian calendar was reformed in 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII. The calendar was moved back 10 days and extra leap year day was omitted from centenary years, except those which were multiples of 400. This calendar is adopted by most countries.

1.9.6 Chemistry and Medicine:

Halley brought interest in these subjects. Works of Hippocrates and Galen were revived. Vesalius wrote his work on anatomy. He corrected mistakes of earlier scholars. He gave details of skeleton, veins and arteries, digestive and reproduction systems, lungs and brain.

Harvey discovered that blood circulates from heart to arteries and then to vein and back to heart. Helmond discovered carbon dioxide and explained about various gases.

1.9.7 Mathematics:

In the field of math's, west got rich heritage from east. Arabs contributed the elements of algebra and Arabic numerals. Arithmetic and geometry came from Greece. In 16th century proofs were needed for knowledge. Math's provided simple numerical data. Physics and mechanics developed

due to math's. Gilbert and Galileo were prominent physicists. Galileo made the telescope. He also invented air thermometer and astronomical clock. Other important machines of the period are balance for knowing weight, compass needle, the barometer, printing press, gun powder etc.

All new knowledge led to the foundation of the Royal Society in London in 1660 and the Academy of Sciences in Paris in 1666. These societies aimed at promoting science.

Check Your Progress:

Trace the development of renaissance art and architecture?

1.10 SUMMARY

It is difficult to determine the exact date of modern age. This is because different nations experienced the new phase at different times. Certain societies became modernized earlier than others. Still we can say that in general, the modern age begins with the Renaissance.

The main feature of the Renaissance was humanism. We have already examined the meaning of Renaissance. During the period; all beliefs were based on reason. If it did not appeal the mind, the idea was not accepted. As a result every idea was re-examined. Earlier society had believed in superstitions and blind beliefs. People were told to obey, the elders and their thoughts. Man was not supposed to question existing knowledge. He had to accept it as it was. There were some scholars who refused to accept some ideas but they were punished for their behavior.

The Renaissance meant that old ideas had to be doubted. If proved right, then they had to be accepted. Man was given the opportunity to test the existing knowledge. This made man alert. It led to the discovery of new knowledge. No longer, was man convinced with what was told to him. This feature, in human beings, led to progress.

Men even questioned God and religion. In the beginning, the church declared such people as heretics. Church could not tolerate any criticism against religion. Average man was god-fearing and was afraid to raise questions about priests and their activities. But soon, it became a regular feature, which led to Reformation.

The effect of Renaissance was felt on every aspect of human life. This was because humanism made man superior. Human emotions, which were earlier hidden, were now in open. Poems on love were written, and a

whole lot of new literature on human behavior sprang up. Dramatists and novelists, poets, etc. wrote on human actions. William Shakespeare, Petrarch, Machiavelli etc. were some of the well-known men. During the Renaissance, subjects like political science, history, geography were studied with great interest.

Renaissance enlightenment influenced arts and crafts. Earlier all painting and sculpture, was limited to theology. Artists had to depict God only. But with the emphasis on humanism, painters took interest in picturing men and women. Leonardo-da-Vinci created several masterpieces of which Monalisa is world famous. It was no longer a sin to draw pictures of women. Secondly, the period also witnessed nude portraits and sculptures.

The period at saw the emergence of scientific knowledge. Astrotony, mathematics, anatomy became popular. Several duettists worked in their laboratories to discover new ideas. This led to new inventions of machines All this improved human life. Discovery of medicines and progress in medical science made man healthier. Renaissance in the true sense be ustered in the new era in history.

1.11 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the factors that caused the renaissance in Europe.
2. What do you mean by humanism?
3. What was the contribution of Dante, Petrarch and Shakespeare to renaissance literature?
4. Write in detail about architecture during renaissance period.
5. Write short notes on:
 - (a) Leonardo da Vinci
 - (b) Michelangelo's Paintings
 - (c) Renaissance in Science

MODULE I

2

GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES

Unit Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Causes of Geographical Discoveries
 - 2.2.1 Wealth of East
 - 2.2.2 Fall of Constantinople in 1453
 - 2.2.3 European knowledge of the outside World
 - 2.2.4 Advancement in Science
 - 2.2.5 Religious cause
 - 2.2.6 Patronage from kings
- 2.3 Various Geographical Discoveries
 - 2.3.1 Christopher Columbus (1451-1506)
 - 2.3.2 Vasco-da-Gama (1469-1524)
 - 2.3.3 Ferdinand Magellan (1480-1521)
 - 2.3.4 Other explorers
- 2.4 Consequences of Geographical Discoveries
 - 2.4.1 Colonization
 - 2.4.2 Commercial Revolution
 - 2.4.3 Rise of Imperialistic Rivalries
 - 2.4.4 Growth of Monarchy
 - 2.4.5 Spread of Christianity
 - 2.4.6 Cultural effects
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 Unit End Questions

2.0 OBJECTIVES

This unit will enable you

1. To understand the meaning and causes of Geographical Discoveries.
2. To study about various voyages undertaken by major explorers.
3. To get a knowledge as to how European countries claimed new lands.
4. To analyze the consequences of the discoveries.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit of Renaissance, we have studied about new ideas that gripped mankind. There was a spirit of inquiry. Man wanted to know more about the world. People had heard about the Eastern nations. They, however did not have details, due to lack of geographical knowledge. Travellers like Marco Polo had gone to China. They brought stories about the unknown lands. They told about the wealth of the East. There had been some trade and commerce between European countries and Middle East. As time passed there was a need to search new lands for trade and other purposes. European kings were interested in funding voyages to Eastern nations. They sponsored naval expeditions. Some of these failed but some were successful. These discoveries happened due to a number of factors. We shall examine the causes course and effects of these geographical explorations.

2.2 CAUSES OF GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES

In the renaissance period there was an emphasis on the history of mankind. There was an interest in the outside world. This led to geographical discoveries. The main reasons are: -

2.2.1 Wealth of East:

India and China had ancient culture. They were known for their richness. Europeans read accounts of travellers like Marco Polo. Crusaders brought strange stories of new lands. Besides, they brought spices with them. Food became tasty and there was a demand for spices. Secondly other items like fragrant wood attracted Europeans. All these encouraged them to find routes to the East.

2.2.2 Fall of Constantinople in 1453:

Europeans brought products from East through Constantinople. In 1453 Turks captured it. It was the capital of Byzantine Empire and also controlled main land routes. Turks were not as tolerant as Arabs. It became difficult for European merchants to pass through Constantinople. They had to pay high taxes to the Turks. Thus the traders needed another route to the Asian areas. Secondly, with the fall of Constantinople Greek authors fled with their classics. They gave a new outlook and adventurous spirit. So there were geographical discoveries.

2.2.3 European Knowledge of the Outside World:

In middle ages, Europeans acquired knowledge of geography and navigation partly from practical experience and partly from Arabs. They read traveller's accounts. As early as 1307, the Pope had patronized a monk to China and India. Some Italians followed, but the interest was

temporary. In 15th century with more geographical knowledge scholars understood that earth was round and so Asia could be reached sailing from Europe. Different geography books were written by merchants and travellers. This brought additional interest.

2.2.4 Advancement in Science:

The discovery of printing press enabled rapid spread of information. European sailors developed the art of navigation. New inventions helped them. The Mariners Compass was the main reason for geographical discovery. The magnetic needle, in the dark, showed the direction towards north. Besides, the Astrolabe-quadrant and accurate maps and chart making were useful. At the same time they learnt to make better ships. The telescope made travel easier.

2.2.5 Religious Cause:

Christianity believed in spreading itself. By 15th Century it had travelled all over Europe. The missionaries were zealous and prepared to risk their lives. Their attention went to Asia and Africa. Kings, nobles and other rich patronized missions, because they felt that conversions could lead to political control. Many times merchants, missionaries and adventurers sailed together to new lands.

2.2.6 Patronage from kings:

Kings had money to support the cause. Spain and Portugal were most interested in discovering new routes. These countries wanted to break the monopoly of Italian City states of trade with East. Prince Henry of Portugal wanted to find a route to India. He established a school for navigators. Prince (The Navigator), encouraged making of new charts, maps, equipment's etc. Every year he sent expeditions of brave navigators, merchants and missionaries. They colonized Madeira and Azores Islands. They moved further into the African continent. He was mainly responsible for the discovery of new routes to Asia and Africa.

Check Your Progress:

1. What were the major causes of geographical discoveries?

2.3 VARIOUS GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES

Due to the patronage of Henry, Portugal ranked first in the field of naval expedition. The Prince died in 1460, but the spirit of exploration

continued. Subsequent kings also took interest in sponsoring seamen. In 1486 a sailor called Bartholomew Diaz sailed to the southern coast of Africa. He named it the Cape of Storms, because he was caught in a storm. However, the king of Portugal gave it the name of Cape of Good Hope. He said that it would bring hope and luck to sailors, who were trying to find a route to India.

Name of the Explorer	Discoveries
1. Bartholomew Diaz Portugal	Cape of Good Hope Southern coast of Africa.
2. Christopher Columbus	Atlantic route to America Venezuela. Central America
3. Vasco da gama	The Cape route to India.
4. Amerigo Vespucci	Atlantic route to South America.
5. Magellan	Circumnavigation of the earth. Crossed Atlantic and reached North America
6. Cabot	Parama route to east coast of America
7. Balboa	Bays and mouths of rivers from North Caroling to New York
8. Verazen	Brazil.

2.3.1 Christopher Columbus (1451-1506):

He was one of the greatest explorers. He was from Genoa in Italy. It is said that he discovered America, but in reality, America had been explored earlier. He studied the globe and concluded that Far East could be reached through Atlantic Ocean also. He was financed by queen Isabella of Spain. He left Spain in August 1492 with 87 men and 3 ships called Nina, Santa Maria and Pinta. It was a long and tedious voyage. For weeks the sailors did not see land. Finally on October 12, 1492, they were happy to see land. Columbus said it was some island of Indies. Actually he was wrong. He had reached West Indies, but continued to call the people Indians. He went further and explored central America. He rounded the islands of Cuba and Haiti. Some men were left at Haiti to form a colony, while Columbus went back.

He was received with honour in Spain. Later he went for three more voyages. He carried merchants, missionaries and colonists with him. He went to North America and northern coast of South America. A regular communication began between Europe and America. Columbus died in 1506, after discovering a new world.

2.3.2 Vasco-da-Gama (1469-1524):

He was a Portuguese sailor and explorer. He was the leader of the group of seamen, who were sent to find a route to India. He started his journey with

four ships and 170 men in July 1497. He then proceeded to Mozambique and Malindi. They faced some opposition from Arab traders, but they continued their journey.

In May, 1498, Vasco-da-Gama reached the port of Calicut. He was given a warm welcome by the king called Zamorin. He stayed for some days and collected precious stones, spices and other items of trade. It was a beneficial trip. The cargo he carried was 60 times the cost of journey. However, the journey was difficult. Many sailors died of disease. Only 55 reached Lisbon. The Portuguese king was happy to greet Vasco-da-gama.

In 1502, Vasco-da-Gama made another voyage to India. Soon Portugal became an important trader, in Indian Ocean. In 1524, he went as Portuguese Viceroy to India. Portugal sent Christian missionaries and merchants with voyages. They established themselves on African coast. The Portuguese captured Goa in 1510. Missionaries spread their religion in the west coast. Later the Portuguese occupied naval posts Ceylon, Java etc.

2.3.3 Ferdinand Magellan (1480-1521):

In 1519 he sailed from Spain with five ships. He crossed the Atlantic Ocean and went to Southern tip of South America. He saw a new ocean and named it Pacific. It was peaceful compared to Atlantic. It was a difficult journey. The ocean was large for 98 days; he did not see any land. Many sailors died on the way. Finally he reached the Philippine islands. He stayed there for a number of days. Unfortunately, he developed enmity with the local people and was killed by them.

The other seamen proceeded further. They loaded the ships with spices. However, due to disease, rivalry and other misfortunes only one ship returned to Spain, via the Cape of Good Hope. Thus, Magellan's was successful in proving that the earth is round. He started from Spain and the ship returned to Spain after completing a round of the earth. It is one of the best sea voyages.

This successful exploration inspired other sailors. One of them was an Italian adventurer called Amerigo Vespucci. He travelled to the new world i.e. America. He explored the interior of the land. He supplied geographical and other details. He wrote about the people. This proved that an entire unknown world existed. To honour Vespucci for his work, the new world is called America.

2.3.4 Other explorers:

The English also took interest in geographical explorations. In 1547, John Cabot was financed to discover new islands and provinces, which were unknown to the world. Cabot crossed the Atlantic and went to North East

North America. He claimed the land for England. Thus the British were first to capture mainland America. Later they claimed Canada.

The Portuguese explorer Cabral wanted to travel to India. But due to strong winds, he lost his way and reached eastern coast of South America. He landed in Brazil and claimed it for Portugal.

In 1513 a Spanish adventurer Balboa, led an expedition in the hope to find gold from new lands. He went to Panama and from there to eastern coast of America.

The French too sent some expeditions. Verrazano explored bays, rivers and other areas of eastern coast of North America. Cartier went to Canada.

These explorations continued in the 16th century. The countries which found new lands claimed those. Regular trade began. Secondly missionaries spread religious faith in the new lands. Thus explorations proved to be profitable politically, economically and for religion also.

2.4 CONSEQUENCES OF GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES

2.4.1 Colonization:

Geographical discoveries led to colonialism, imperialism and exploitation. In 15th century Spanish and Portuguese were involved in colonization. There was rivalry between the two, so Pope Alexander VI divided the world between the two. Roughly Asia, Africa went to Portuguese and North America and South America to Spain. Later they increased their hold. Portugal had a vast overseas empire. It gained great wealth from spice trade and gold. It also traded in slaves. Spanish colonized San Domingo and thereafter captured large area in South America.

2.4.2 Commercial Revolution:

Colonization led to rising trade between Europe and Eastern nations. Trade was basically in Mediterranean area earlier. For the first time ships of maritime powers sailed in all big seas. Italy lost its monopoly of trade with East. European traders brought spices and other luxuries from Asia. They traded in potatoes, cocoa, quinine maize etc. from South America. From Africa they got ivory, ostrich feathers and slaves. Slavery had disappeared from Europe, but now it was revived. Colonists acquired huge tracts of land in America. They needed people to cut dense forests, dig mines, and make roads. Besides slaves were needed in plantations. Spanish and Portuguese enslaved West Indians and "South Americans and forced them into work. They were even converted to Christianity.

2.4.3 Rise of Imperialistic Rivalries:

In the 15th and 16th century, new sea routes were discovered. New lands were found. The country which sponsored the navigation claimed the land. It could establish commercial relations in the colonies. It was profitable position. Naturally there was a rush to acquire new lands. Most of the American lands were rich in gold and silver. There were colonial wars, for acquiring newer areas.

2.4.4 Growth of Monarchy:

This was an effect of geographical discovery. There was an increase in trade and communication. A new class of merchants and manufacturers emerged. A new middle class became strong. These classes needed the support of rulers. They were ready to contribute money for the kingdom. Thus strong and stable monarchies were found in Europe. Secondly, we find a decline in the position of landlords and clergy.

2.4.5 Spread of Christianity:

Missionaries had helped in the discovery of new routes. Popes patronized the movement. Missionaries went with navigators and merchants on voyages. They risked their lives in the process. Therefore, when new lands were found, they started spreading Christianity. Roman Catholics started activities in Spain and Portuguese colonies, which was the religion in Spain and Portugal. This was the period of Reformation and Counter Reformation. Catholics were losing people due to Reformation. So the Jesuits tried to be quick in gaining new members in colonies.

2.4.6 Cultural Effects:

Europeans destroyed ancient civilization and cultures in Mexico, Peru and Brazil, in the zeal of spreading Catholic culture. However a positive effect was that European culture was thereby enriched. Europeans learnt to use new things of luxury, brought by merchants. The explorers and navigators helped in bringing knowledge of Mankind. This encouraged study of new subjects, especially Science and Astronomy. European mental outlook broadened.

Check Your Progress:

2. Bring out the various consequences of geographical discoveries?

2.5 SUMMARY

We have examined in the earlier lesson that since the 13th century there was an interest in learning. People were eager to know about the world unknown. Till then knowledge had been limited to ones surroundings only. All literature centered round God. Later in the period of renaissance getting new ideas was encouraged. This resulted in the study of various subjects, besides God.

Man had some idea about faraway lands, especially India, China and others. However, people were not having proper details. There was some commercial contact with the East. Traders and adventurers told stories about the Eastern nations. They described the wealthy lifestyle of Asians. European monarchs were influenced. They wanted to expand their power far and wide. Missionaries wished to spread Christianity. Due to encouragement to learning, scientific and technological progress was achieved. Various new tools and machines were discovered. This made travel easier. The fall of Constantinople, closed land route to European merchants and others. Thus there was a strong need to find sea route to India and the Eastern nations.

Monarchs in Europe were ready to sponsor travellers and explorers. There were political, economic and religious motives behind. The most well-known patronage came from Henry, king of Portugal Due to his active interest in explorations, he was called the Navigator. The rulers of Spain, Italy, France and England also followed. A large amount of money was spent on these geographical adventures.

Columbus discovered the east coast of America. He took a tiring journey, in the hope of finding a route to India. It was Vasco-da-gama who sailed round the southern tip of Africa and safely reached India in 1498. There after a regular trade began, between India and Portugal A few other explorers like Magellan, Amerigo Vespucci and Balboa did noteworthy sailings. As lands were found, they were claimed for the king who sponsored the sailing. Soon missionaries went to the new lands and spread their faith.

Although, these discoveries achieved a lot for the study of geography, Science and other areas, they produced consequences, which disturbed many. There was widespread colonization; Local people were illiterate and backward. Europeans had better weapons and knowledge. So they suppressed the inhabitants of the newly claimed areas. Secondly, these areas were economically exploited Race for acquiring colonies led to wars among European nations. Last, but not the least, Europeans destroyed the culture of the acquired land. They imposed European culture and religion on the colonies.

2.11 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Examine the factors that led to geographical discoveries?
2. Why did the Europeans discover the new world?
3. Comment on the voyages of Vasco-da-Gama and Christopher Columbus.
4. Critically evaluate the explorations sponsored by Portugal, Spain and England?
5. What were the consequences of geographical discoveries?
6. Write short notes on:
 - (a) Ferdinand Magellan
 - (b) Amerigo Vespucci

MODULE I

3

REFORMATION

Unit Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Causes of the Reformation
 - 3.2.1 Political Causes
 - 3.2.2 Economic Causes
 - 3.2.3 Spirit of Renaissance
 - 3.2.4 Religious Causes
 - 3.2.5 Attack by Priests
- 3.3 Role of Martin Luther in Reformation
 - 3.3.1 Luther and the issue of Indulgences
 - 3.3.2 95 Thesis - 1518
 - 3.3.3 Luther's excommunication
 - 3.3.4 Peasants' revolt
- 3.4 Rise and Spread of Protestant Church
 - 3.4.1 Zwingli
 - 3.4.2 Calvin
- 3.5 Counter Reformation
 - 3.5.1 The Early phase
 - 3.5.2 The second stage
 - 3.5.3 The third stage
 - 3.5.4 The Inquisition
 - 3.5.5 The Society of Jesus
- 3.6 Results of the Reformation
 - 3.6.1 Division in the Christian world
 - 3.6.2 Religious wars
 - 3.6.3 Religious intolerance
 - 3.6.4 Rise of nationalism
 - 3.6.5 Rise of Absolutism
 - 3.6.6 Rise of Individualism and capitalism
 - 3.6.7 Change in morals and art
- 3.7 Summary
- 3.8 Unit End Questions

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit the students will be able:

1. To understand the religious conditions in Europe in the Middle Ages.
2. To examine the revolutionary change brought about by the Protestants.
3. To know about the consequences of reformation in Europe.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Reformation was basically a religious movement which was contemporary to Renaissance. The Leaders of the Reformation movements were sincere and devoted. They realized that there were many evil practices existed in Christian Church. The clergy of the church was followed a corrupt and immoral life. The leaders in Reformation movement understand the situation and wrong practices and revolted against the evil practices in religious matter in church. The Leaders of reformation movement organized themselves into groups; collectively they are known as Protestants. The organized group of protestants started protest against the established Roman Catholic Church for the reformation in Religion.

3.2 CAUSES OF THE REFORMATION

3.2.1 Political Causes:

Before the 16th century the church was religious and political body. It had its organization in all states. Pope and clergy were independent from the government. They could not be tried in state courts. Clergy had no civil duties, but could enforce spiritual matters on all. In those days, the Holy Roman Emperor was the head of kings other. Kings were below him. But in 16th century we find that kings were increasing their power. Monarchs in UK, Spain and France, tried to be free from church interference. They regarded Pope as a foreigner and opposed his authority. It was the rise of national states. Kings dreamt of being autocrats, and increased their wealth and prestige.

In fact, since 13th century there were frictions between the church and the states. There was a conflict between UK and France and Pope Boniface VIII, over the right to tax church property, which was exempted. The Pope declared that if a king taxed the church he would be excommunicated. But the Pope lost the battle and kings taxed the church. The Babylonian captivity 1309-1377, is an example when national governments challenged pope's intervention. The Papacy lost its prestige, when three Popes were elected instead of one.

3.2.2 Economic Causes:

Europe had an agricultural economy till the 12th century. But since then we find a change. This was due to rise in trade and communication. Urbanization followed. This led to a rise in capitalism. Germany became the leader of capitalist world. In 16th century there was a growth of towns, trades and crafts. With the discovery of new routes, merchants sent goods to various parts of the world. As a result they accumulated wealth. Besides, trade, Germany also had mining and metal industries. All this led to rise in education and learning. Commercial activities and education made people practical. They questioned about the wealth of the church. They wanted to use church property for noble causes. At the same time, kings also tried to confiscate church property. The new business and learned classes were willing to support politicians, in their struggle with religion.

3.2.3 Spirit of Renaissance:

Renaissance led to a revival of learning. Art and literature contributed in broadening the attitude of people. Before renaissance people never questioned the church. They were afraid of the clergy, because, it had the means and powers to punish people. In 13th century when people criticized the Church, in Albi, the Pope suppressed those. But the renaissance saw as upsurge of the spirit of humanism. People wanted to question everything that was kept a taboo. Earlier, also, clergy led a corrupt life, but few asked. In the 16th century the spirit of rationalism could not suppress the inquiring mind. Many scandals were exposed at that time. Renaissance brought in a study of ancient languages like Greek and Hebrew. People could read Holy Scriptures. They understood that Christianity had changed a lot. Evils had entered in the middle ages.

3.2.4 Religious causes:

The authority of the church was accepted as the final. It was called sacred, because it was founded by Christ. By the 16th century the church became absolute and uncompromising the clergy, were not educated. They were unaware of true religion.

The head of the Christian world was the Pope. He was regarded as the successor of St. Peter. He was elected for Life by cardinals, from churches in Rome Besides there were clerks, lawyers and officers. Together they were called papal court or papacy. By renaissance the papacy was regenerating. Many popes indulged in the immorality. Nepotism was another evil of those days. For ages Italians noble families were favored. Popes showered benefits on these families. Many European kings objected to the luxurious life the Pope led.

Naturally, the Bishops and other people in church also enjoyed life. They neglected their duties. They did not even stay in monasteries. Some involved in politics. They amassed huge wealth, and lived in comfort. To

obtain more money, they sold important positions in the church. There were many financial scams in those days.

Except a few priests and nuns, who involved in spiritual guidance, others were not sincere. They were in different to new learning and classical study.

Indulgences were means to salvation. If a person did a sin and was sorry, he could buy an indulgence, to be free of the sin. The Pope claimed that the right to grant indulgence, was given by Christ to St. Peter, the first Pope. To get an indulgence the person had to say prayers, visit the church or do same good deed. At the time of Luther good work meant paying funds to rebuild St. Peters church at Rome. Besides, the money also was used for increasing the dignity of the church authorities. Luther was especially against the practice of selling indulgences.

3.2.5 Attack by Priests:

When Alibi geneses opposed church practices, they were suppressed. In the 14th century John Wycliff of UK rebelled against the Pope, by calling him antichristian, evil, ineffective. He said that a Christian should consider the Bible as the only guide. He translated it into English. Followers of Wycliff increased in UK. They were called Lollards. Wycliff was excommunicated. He died in 1383.

John Huss followed Wycliff, in his state Bohemia. He became very popular, so the Pope excommunicated him. He burnt the Papal bull or order. He was called to Constance Switzerland and burnt alive.

Erasmus a Dutch priest. In his 'Praise of Folly', he exposed the immoral and corrupt practices of the church and the Pope. This book decreased the hold of papacy on peoples' mind. Erasmus, attacked superstitions. He hated open revolt. He did not want to separate from the church. What he wanted was a reformed church, without evils. Besides these there were people like Reuchlin, Savonarola, who abused church evils. They were called heretics. Albigenses and Waldeness were societies of people who opposed religious dogmas. They all were persecuted. Luther, Calvin and Zwinglis' are writings were influential. They laid the foundation of the Protestant movement.

Check Your Progress:

2. Discuss briefly the major causes of Reformation

3.3 THE ROLE OF MARTIN LUTHER IN REFORMATION

Martin Luther was born in 1483, to a German peasant of Saxony. He went to nearby schools. In 1501 he registered to the University of Erfurt. He then studied law, but he was inclined towards the study of theology. He decided to become a priest. He entered the monastery of Augustinian monks at Erfurt. He gave his first mass in 1507. He was sent to Wittenberg for delivering lectures in theology.

He went to Rome in 1510. He was disillusioned to see the level of corruption in the papacy. He developed a dislike to Italian practices. He returned and carried his research and got his doctorate in 1512. He was appointed Chairman of Biblical study at Wittenberg.

3.3.1 Luther and the issue of Indulgences:

It was the first controversy that he got involved in. It was a common practice to grant pardon by taking money. Indulgence had become the major financial income of the Papacy. A management house called Fugger's looked after the system. Luther marked that the Pope was rich enough to rebuild the church. It was wrong to collect public money. Luther was angry, because according to him, redemption was by acts of goodness and clear thoughts and not by buying pardon.

3.3.2 95 Thesis - 1518:

Luther wrote his objection in the form 95 Thesis. On October 31, All Saints Eve, he nailed the thesis to the door of Castle Church at Wittenberg. He challenged the indulgences. Secondly, he wrote that his ideas were to be discussed as it was a public call. 95 Thesis were translated into German. Due to printing press, they were printed, so they reached a large audience. He sent it to his superior, who further sent a copy to Rome.

Initially the Pope did not intervene, but the head of Dominican Order, issued instructions that Luther should not be allowed to preach. However, he got political support from the ruler of Saxony. In 1518, he was called at Augsburg to discuss, with Dominican head. He was told to be silent in future, but Luther argued. In 1519 Luther had a debate with John Eck, a theologian; Luther said that he believed in direct relation with God, without the mediation of the church. He denied the Supremacy of the Pope.

Luther brought out several articles and books, where he challenged the church and the priests. He laid down the basis of a new theology. He cut down 4 of the 7 sacraments. In the end of the year, he broke church laws and orders.

3.3.3 Luther's Excommunication:

It was too much of a revolt to tolerate. Pope Leo X excommunicated Luther in 1521. Luther publicly burnt the Papal Bull or Order. In April 1521 he was called by Charles V Holy Roman Emperor to a diet or council. It was attended by princes, nobles, and clergy. This diet of Worms asked him, if he was sorry and wanted to renounce his writings. He was not ready. He had to flee because the diet accused him as an outlaw. King Fredrick gave him protection and so he stayed in Wittenberg.

Luther translated the New Testament and then the whole Bible, in German. His Bible became as effective weapon, in Reformation and the infallibility of the church. Wittenberg became a center of the reformation movement. However Luther lacked the force to lead revolutionary tendencies. His friend Carlstadt helped him by attacking clerical celibacy, and demanding compulsory marriages for secular priests.

3.3.4 Peasants' Revolt:

Peasants in Germany got influenced by his writings. Peasants had suffered due to tax burdens and exploitation by the Kings and Clergy. When he preached the doctrine of equality of all men before God, the peasants interpreted the words for their convenience. In 1524, they rebelled. They demanded abolition of serfdom, free rights of fishing's and hunting and abolition of arbitrary punishments. Luther was sympathetic till they were against the church. But soon, the revolt, spread all over Germany. Peasants targeted landlords and nobles. They appealed to Luther. He urged them to be peaceful, but they did not. So he told nobles to suppress the revolt. It was severely put down. Some 50,000 peasants were killed. Luther immediately became unpopular in South Germany.

3.4 RISE AND SPREAD OF THE PROTESTANT CHURCH

The clash of Luther, with the church began, when he nailed his 95 thesis. He was told to be quiet and not challenge the Papacy. But Luther denied accepting the supremacy of the Pope. He found it difficult to remain a member of the church. Separation from it was the only course left. Secondly the Pope found him too aggressive and excommunicated him. Luther no longer was a Christian.

Thus Luther was the person to lay foundation of a new church - Protestant. He said that papacy had deprived the Christians of a true religion. There were too many unnecessary sacraments, which he cut down. Luther believed that true teachings could be found only in the Bible. The Bible is infallible but not the Pope. He said that every person could get salvation by following the Bible. The clergy had emphasized on sacraments to exploit the people.

Luther was well read. He got the support of his King Fredrick. There was a rise of nationalism in Germany. People felt that the man did something beneficial for Germany. Soon his ideas spread to commoners. Clergy had already known his sayings. He also got support from the educated. In Germany, they put many pictures ridiculing the clergy. The motive was to eradicate the evils, than organizing a separate church. The reformation was mainly a bourgeois movement, but the ideas spread rapidly to German towns. In many cities the struggle between old and new faith was indecisive. Councils maintained neutrality. Clergy retained control of churches, so Lutherans preached in open air. German patriots were influenced and wished to put an end to Roman and Italian influence. Princes confiscated church properties. Commoners accepted Luther's ideas. The movement then spread to other countries of Europe and to America. The main reason for its success was the sincere exploitation of evils. It was not only discontent of religious but also social, moral and political condition of the church. Luther's personal energy, courage and intelligence, were major causes for its spread. On the other hand the forces that opposed Luther were weak. Clergy were aware of the weaknesses. Pope Leo X excommunicated Luther and blocked chances of compromise. A reformist Pope could have averted a schism.

By the time Luther died in 1546, he was recognized as a major figure in the Christian world. He was the main force for the split within Christians. His reforms, were carried forward by Zwingli and Calvin.

3.4.1 Zwingli:

In the 16th century Protestant ideas spread to other parts of Europe. The leaders spread beliefs somewhat different from those of Luther. They were forerunners of Presbyterian Church though it was influenced by Luther. As a group it is called Calvinism. Calvin and Knox became exponents of the thought. It was influenced by an earlier reformer called Zwingli.

Zwingli was born in 1484 in Switzerland. He became a priest in 1506. He became a follower of Dutch priest Erasmus and Luther. He studied the writings of renowned theologians and worked out a theology of himself. The civil magistrates called a public meeting to choose between Catholicism and Zwingli's Protestant faith. People voted for Zwingli. Soon, the country abolished religious images and, closed monasteries. Rural areas remained Catholic. He preached salvation by faith and supremacy of the Bible. He disagreed with Luther on the issue of salvation. For Luther individual salvation was most important. Zwingli was more concerned with Renaissance of Christianity, which was rebirth of humanity and society. Zwingli had to lose life, during a war with the Catholics.

3.4.2 Calvin:

Calvin was born in 1509 in France. He did M.A. at University of Paris. He studied law and theology in Latin. In his extensive tours, he met

humanists, writers and philosophers. He himself wrote a lot. The most influential was "The principles of Christian tradition".

Will Durant speaks of Calvin as God intoxicated man. For him church and theology were important. God was the center of the cosmos and man was nothing. In 1529, he experienced conversion. In France there was no revolt against the church, but there were criticisms. Calvin believed that God himself had told him to be an exponent of pure Christianity. He adopted Protestant religion. He went to Basel and wrote Institutes of Christian religion. He became well known and his book is considered a masterpiece of.

In his work, he says that God is ultimate authority. The Bible is infallible. He also encourages prayers. But he was against, mass, priests, communion, images, sculptures, crucifixes etc. He said that nothing should remain in the church, which was not expressed in scriptures. The true church is made up of those who have faith in god, lead a good life, and participate in baptism.

All of Calvin's ideas were not original. Most of those were stated before, but he spoke elegantly and put those in practice. From Luther he took the doctrine of faith, and from Zwingli Spiritual interpretation.

In 1536 he was made leader of Geneva's first group of Protestant pastors. He thus entered the arena of politics, by getting a key position of managing the affairs of the town. He thus acted as a political and religious dictator. Church and state were not separate. Theocratic laws were to be respected. He banned begging and encouraged charity. He changed the life of people, fun was reduced but crime too, reduced. A well-organized city came into existence. For his stern activities and work, he was called 'Protestant Pope'. He wrote a lot on theology. He translated the Bible in French. He established Protestant schools and the University of Geneva. His ideas spread throughout - France, Scotland, Holland, Germany, U.K. and USA. It was known by different names in different countries. In Hungary and Poland, Calvin spread among nobles and middle class. Luther had lost support in peasant dominated South Germany where. Calvin became popular. The Protestant Reformation in Scotland was led by John Knox.

The cause for rise of Protestants in U.K. was refusal of the Pope Clement VII to allow the divorce of King Henry VIII to his wife Catherine. He wanted to marry Anne Boleyn hoping to get a male heir. In 1534, the Protestants passed the act of Supremacy, which made the Monarch head of the Church. Though Henry remained Catholic, Protestantism became popular under his son Edward VI. His successor Queen Mary restored Catholicism and suppressed Protestants. Elizabeth I established moderate Protestant faith called Anglicanism. Those who followed Calvin were called Puritans. Catholicism declined in England.

Check Your Progress:

2. Write a short note on the role of Martin Luther in reformation?

3.5 COUNTER REFORMATION

The Protestant Revolution was one phase of the great upheaval called Reformation. Counter Reformation was another. But Counter Reformation should not be viewed only as retaliatory movement or measures to control the rise of Protestants. The church had already started the reformation movement; before Luther nailed 95 theses.

The Counter Reformation can be divided into 3 phases.

3.5.1 The Early Phase:

The early phase, dates before Lutheranism, up to 1534. With the accession of Pope Paul III the second phase begins and The Counter Reformation gained momentum. It is rigid and dogmatic. The third phase is from 1559, with the accession of Pope Paul IV up to 1610. In this period Counter Reformation is offensive and rigid.

Counter Reformation was the movement to reform the Papacy. Cardinal Ximenes and Savonarola had sincerely tried to get rid of church evils. In Italy also there were attempts to revitalize and purify the church. Priests were instructed to have a pure and moral life. However the task was difficult. Evils continued and Protestantism was established.

By the middle of 16th century Protestantism became popular. Catholics were shocked by the increase in heresy. In retaliation the church rallied its forces and prepared an offensive called Counter Reformation. So Protestants never got complete success. In all areas there remained a considerable number of Catholics. It was because Luther's ideas were accepted at intellectual level. He raised theological controversies, which were difficult to understand. He discarded sacrifices, penance, image worship, saints. He said people should interpret the Bible for guidance. For a layman, it was difficult to understand. Those who agreed with Luther that reform was necessary supported reform from within. There was no need to break away from the existing Church.

3.5.2 The Second Stage:

The abuses under Pope Toe V had made Luther protest. The first Pope to initiate reform was Pope Adrian VI (But the movement became vigorous in 1534 with Pope Paul. New monastic orders infused with crusading zeal

were organized. He reorganized papal finances made appointment on merit, punished the idle and evil clergy).

Counter Reformation in Germany was launched, to answer Luther. To fight Luther, a man of equal status was needed. John Eck was chosen. He was an eminent theologian He argued with Luther. In U.K. Catholics wrote against Luther. Sir Thomas More was one of them.

From 1530s the Leaders realized that they had to be more aggressive, because Lutheranism was becoming popular. In 1534, Ignatius Loyola founded the Society of Jesus, better known as Jesuit Order which played a vital role in Counter Reformation. The Counter Reformation reached a new era in 1534 with the accession of Pope Paul.

On his initiative **The Council of Trent** was called in 1545. By the time the Catholics wanted to control Protestants at local level. But with the new Pope, the Counter Reformation became centralized. Actually the council was a series of meetings called to discuss reformation in the church. Hundreds of church officials were invited. Many criticisms and debates were initiated. Even Protestants were called, but they did not attend. The work of the council was both dogmatic and reformation at the same time.

The council did not compromise with Protestants. The dogmas of the church were reaffirmed. Clear authority of the Pope was recognized. He was recognized as The Supreme interpreter of the Canons. However, the council agreed that reform was necessary. There had to be a check on personal behavior of the church officials. The sale of church offices was prohibited. The priests had to abandon worldly pursuits and lead a simple and spiritual life. They had to learn theology in seminaries. Church service books were revised. Priests had to know Latin, but could give sermons in local languages. Favouritism, corruption etc. were to be punished.

All Roman Catholics had to agree to the discussions, accepted at Trent. The Council was ended in 1563, by Pope Pius IV.

3.5.3 The third Stage:

In 1566, with Pope Pius V, the Counter Reformation reached its final stage. The aim was to win all that was lost to the Protestants. It was an aggressive phase. The Pope took the lead and led a simple and frugal life. On the other hand, he was strict to heretics. Nobody was forgiven, including Queen Elizabeth I. All Roman Catholics were told to keep no relations with her. Merit and fitness were the criteria to enter papacy.

The next Pope Gregory XIII was mild man. He was a good administrator. He chalked out an ambitious plan to reform the church. He financed Jesuit schools, but he overspent church money and so was criticized. Pope Sixths I was effective and dynamic. He was iron willed and determined. He spread terror to a certain extent. Being highly educated he encouraged

theological activities. Thus by the end of the 16th century the church had carried various activities of Counter Reformation, from which some movements are noteworthy.

3.5.4 The Inquisition:

It was an institution of middle ages. It was popular in Spain. Kings used it to suppress heretics and also deal with political enemies. It was an organ, used as a pretext of protecting religious orthodoxy. Since Inquisition were a success in Spain, its exponent Cardinal Carafe, suggested it to the Pope Paul III. He was alarmed at the rising tide of Protestants. So he established Roman Inquisition. This strict method, checked heresy, but it was not as successful as in Spain.

3.5.5 The Society of Jesus:

In the 16th century, there were a number of new orders, to check Protestants and revive Catholic religion. But the most powerful was Society of Jesus founded by Ignatius Loyola. He was a Spanish soldier, but got interested in theology. He went to Paris University and studied more of Christianity. There he founded the Society, with a few followers. In addition to the vows of chastity, obedience and poverty, the Jesuits took a special vow, of allegiance to the Pope. By means of preaching and educating the Jesuits intended to win back the converts. They were successful in Poland, Belgium and Bavaria. Due to their efforts, Italy, Spain and Portugal remained loyal to Pope. In France, Protestantism was checked. In addition, they did excellent missionary work in North and South America, China and India. The Jesuits became effective educationists. They realized that teaching institutions formed key points in spreading ideas. By their wide learning and purity, they got respect from Catholic clergy.

Check Your Progress:

2. Write a short note on Counter Reformation

3.6 RESULTS OF THE REFORMATION

3.6.1 Division in the Christian World:

Since Protestant church was founded, it meant that there was schism in Christianity. There was no compromise between the new and old faiths. Germany, Denmark, became Lutheran, U.K. had her own form of Protestantism. Scotland, Denmark, Switzerland followed Calvinism.

Spain Portugal, Italy was mainly Catholic, but there too, there were a number of Protestants.

3.6.2 Religious Wars:

A lot of bloodshed and battles happened in Europe due to the Reformation. The first was waged by Holy Roman Emperor against German Protestants princes. Though he won the war, he could not force the people back to Catholicism. Peace of Augsburg was signed by which each prince was free to choose his faith. In spite of it 30 years wars took place between Holy Roman emperor and King of Bohemia. Sweden and France supported Bohemia. The war left the Holy Roman Empire weak and exhausted.

3.6.3 Religious Intolerance:

Religious intolerance was an obvious result. Both groups believed that they were correct. While Catholics said they defended traditional Christianity, Protestants said that they removed evils. Monarchs sought to strengthen their political power. They forced the people to accept one faith. Kings of Catholic countries used all means to keep Protestants away. They used inquisition, spies, and police to suppress Protestants. Queen Mary of U.K. massacred Protestants. She was known as Bloody Mary. Similarly Catholics were tortured under Edward VI and Elizabeth I. In France Protestants were called Huguenots. They were in a minority, but were influential in financial field. When a powerful Catholic government came into force, it persecuted Huguenots. Finally in 1598, freedom was granted to people to follow any faith. The birth of a Dutch Republic was a result of religion in toleration. When Spain forced Catholic faith in Netherlands, the people revolted. The war established a new Free State of Denmark. Belgium remained Catholic.

3.6.4 Rise of Nationalism:

It was a cause and effect of Reformation Protestants appealed to national thoughts. They objected to foreign influence in their country. So we find national churches being established in England and elsewhere Lutheran church was regarded as national church in Germany. Similarly in Catholic countries the Catholic churches were looked as national churches.

3.6.5 Rise of Absolutism:

Protestants weakened the Papal hold on many areas. Kings took advantage. Already they had an eye on church property. They disobeyed church orders, confiscated church property, and checked the clergy. Even Catholic Kings, enjoyed the difficulties of the Pope and asked for concessions at the expense of the church. Instead of Divine Right of Pope, Divine right of Kingship was asserted. Thus Reformation gave rise to strong monarchies in Europe.

3.6.6 Rise of Individualism and Capitalism:

Protestants liberated man from the clutches of the church. They set an example of challenging exploitation. It led to rise of several isms - socialism, communism, Nazism, fascism etc.

Protestants challenged the wealth of the church and demanded confiscation of church property. Bankers, traders etc. who wanted capital supported this view. Thus the monopoly of church in economic matters came to an end. Protestantism became popular in commercial and economically development countries.

3.6.7 Change in Morals and Arts:

Protestants had exposed moral degradation of the church. Luther and others emphasized on moral values. Naturally, they had to have higher moral standards. To defend themselves the Catholics too had to be highly moral. Thus there was rise of Puritan thought. They criticized dancing, blasphemy, bull fights, theatre and immoral literature.

In 16th century there was Christian art. Popes patronized art and architecture and continued so after reformation. But Protestants did not believe in huge structures and decoration of buildings. They supported simplicity. They denounced painting, sculpture, religion images, glass windows, altars etc. They believed more in secular art.

Check Your Progress:

3. Discuss the main results of the Reformation

3.7 SUMMARY

The Renaissance instigated the people to question ideas. People started inquiring about religion and the church in particular. The church had a strong hold on the people. As a result the church officials had become powerful. Soon evils crept in, in the church. There were learned people who spoke against church evils. These people were severely punished. Still Martin Luther, criticized the evils. He targeted the Pope. He put forward his ideas, opposing the office of the Pope. He got many followers, and this led to the new Protestant faith. They believed in Christ, the Bible and the scriptures. But they were against the Pope and his officials.

Some people were loyal to the Pope and supported him. This led to the division of the Christian Church. Both churches wanted to prove that they were pure. In defense and later offense, the Catholics launched the Counter Reformation. The movement created an ill feeling among the two groups, many times leading to serious clashes. The Reformation brought in revolutionary changes in the religious life of Europe.

3.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the causes of the Reformation.
2. Illustrate the role of Martin Luther in the Protestant movement.
3. What is meant by Counter Reformation?
4. Explain the consequences of Reformation.
5. Write short notes on: (a) Zwingli (b) Calvin

MODULE II

4

THE AMERICAN, FRENCH AND INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Unit Structure

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4.0 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this lesson are as follows:

- 1 To understand the factors responsible for the cut-break of the American Revolution.
- 2 To examine the main events that culminated in the revolution.
- 3 To briefly survey the course of the revolution.
- 4 To assess the consequences of the revolution and its impact on the history of the world.
- 5 To introduce to the students the Importance of the French Revolution as a landmark in the history of the world.
- 6 To understand the courses for the outbreak of the Revolution.
- 7 To study the course of the Revolution.
- 8 To evaluate Napoleon Bonaparte role in history.
- 9 To assess the effects of the French Revolution
10. To understand the meaning of the Industrial Revolution.
11. To examine the unique features of the Revolution.
12. To survey the circumstances of why the Revolution started in England.
13. To briefly study the course of the Revolution.
14. To critically assess the impact of the Revolution in the lives of mankind.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The 16th century was the great age of conquest and cultural diffusion on the part of the Europeans. The continent of America was discovered by an Italian sailor Christopher Columbus in 1492. From then on great strides were made especially by the French and English in colonizing America.

Among all the Europeans, the British were the most successful. They gained control of all 13 Colonies in North America stretching from Massachusetts and New Hampshire to South Carolina and Georgia.

Over the period of time, a new world economy no longer dependant on the mother country and a new social pattern from the integration of many groups emerged. Population grew, and a new American spirit and culture began to emerge. Traditional European values were now questioned in America. This led to a fight for 'freedom' from traditionalism and exploitation from the mother country in England. For years before the actual outbreak of the revolution, feelings of discontent began manifest themselves. During the year 1759-1796, grievances culminated into the first wave of concerted colonial opposition to the crown.

The American Revolution helped to spark the French Revolution of 1789. Which proved to be the most violent and far reaching of all the liberal upheavals. Not only were liberal ideas ushered in, but also drastic changes in the legal, social and economic order was introduced in France the most populous country in Western history. As Tocqueville later wrote; 'The French Revolution had no territory of its own; indeed, its effect was to efface, in a way all old frontiers. It brought men together, divided them, in spite of laws, traditions, character and language—turning enemies sometimes into compatriots and kinsmen into strangers.....'.

All throughout the 19th century, revolutions aimed at political and social reform engaged the attention of Europe. These were sporadic movements that arose and declined at various times and various places. Less noticed, but more important was the technological revolution that was taking place. The chief actors in this never stirred anything. On the contrary their attention was concentrated upon the homely operations of everyday life. They made discoveries destined to alter the habits ideas and prospects of the great mass of the people.

A. AMERICAN REVOLUTION

4.2 CAUSES FOR THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

4.2.1 Political Causes:

1. Dissatisfaction with the System:

The English colonists had brought political ideas and institutions from England to the colonies. In each colony, the legislative was modelled on the House of Commons. However the colonists went a step further than the mother country. They claimed that no tax could be imposed and no law passed without the consent of the assembly. English leaders argued in vain, that the colonies enjoyed 'Virtual' representation since members of the Parliament, in theory represented not individual constituencies, but national and imperial interests as a whole. However this argument did not impress the colonists. They began to demand self-government and asserted that there can be 'No taxation without Representation'.

2. Character of King George III and Lord North:

In the moment when discontent was manifesting itself, there was a need for a sound and sane leadership. However both the monarch king George III and his prime-minister lacked the qualities of sound leadership.

3. Distance from England:

The colonies were geographically far away from Britain, and communications were slow. It was bit easy for Britain to control the colonies. British politicians did not understand the colonist; hence there was ignorance, indifference and at times misunderstanding concerning colonial affairs and sentiments.

4.2.2 Social Causes:

Heterogeneous Character of the Colonies:

The Colonies could be divided into 3 categories:

- (1) **The Northern colonies** viz New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island were jarred with a burning desire for political independence and hatred for any kind of external control and interference. They had migrated to the 'America's' to seek their destiny away from restrictions.
- (2) **The Middle Colonies** viz. New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland and Delaware were Catholic and resented control from Protestant England.
- (3) **The Southern Colonies** viz. North Carolina, South Georgia and Virginia were mostly loyal to the British government.

4.2.3 Economic Causes:

The Colonies were considered valuable chiefly for economic reasons – as a source of raw materials and as a market for exports. But the cost to the mother country for defence and administration probably equalled or exceeded the commercial returns. After 1750, therefore Parliament tightened up the regulation of trade and the collection of duties.

Until this time, the colonists had part with more than the local taxes levied by their colonial legislatures. They had achieved this ‘immunity’ by means of wholesale smuggling and a flagrant disregard of the British Navigation acts. At the same time they showed little interest to provide for their own military defence.

The English therefore began to impose a number of new taxes, and also to collect existing taxes more strictly. This was resented by the colonists. Some of them are as follows:

(a) The Navigation Acts:

These contained 3 main provisions (i) all goods were to be exported only through British Ships (ii) Certain goods and commodities were to be sold only to British merchants (iii) Commodities were first to be shipped to Britain and from there to any part of the world. This made the process of shipping long and increased the prices of goods and commodities.

(b) Prohibition of Manufacture of Certain Goods:

The manufacture of certain commodities like cloth was disallowed in the colonies. This was done to boost industrial production in England. However it was a death blow to industries in the colonies.

(c) The Sugar act of 1733:

This act imposed a prohibitive duty on the import of foreign colonial molasses. The enforcement of this act would cripple if not destroy the extremely important trade of the Northern British colonies with the foreign, colonial possessions in the West Indies and South America

(d) The stamp act of 1765:

Under this act, every document in order to be ‘legal’ should carry a ‘stamp’. The legislatures of the leading North American colonies petitioned against this act, but it was of no use. The colonists realised the only way to halt further encroachments on colonial self-government was to resist this act even at the risk of war.

(e) The American Act of 1764:

This act imposed new restrictions on colonial trade and levying taxes in the colonies to support an enlarged British standing army in America without consulting the colonial governments as to the number or composition and distributors of the troops and without offering

commissions to any former colonial officers many of whom had served creditably in the recent French and Indian wars.

This was distasteful to the colonists specially when the army miserably failing to protect the colonial frontiers from the ravages of the western Indian in an uprising caused mainly by the blunders of the British commander in chief in North America, General Sir Jeffery Amherst.

(f) Writs of Assistance:

This empowered British officers to search the house for smuggled goods as well as ships for taxable goods. This was viewed by the colonists as violation of their basic human rights.

(g) English officers to be tried in England:

English Officers accused of violations of the law were tried in England. This was viewed by the colonists as an act of acquittal of the criminals, because the English courts would naturally favour the accused.

(h) The Quartering Act:

This act authorized the stationing of soldiers on American soil to oversee the enforcement of the various laws of parliament.

4.2.4 Influence of Ideas:

The American Revolution was influenced by philosophers and thinkers of the period. John Locke in 1690 published his work 'Two treatises of Government'. The first treatise rejected the 'theory of divine right', while the second defended the 'right of rebellion'. This turned a landmark handbook for liberal revolutionists everywhere.

Thomas Paine did much to advance the cause of rebellion in America. In his work 'Common sense', declared that America's subjection to England was 'contrary to reason'. He therefore advocated his fellowmen to fight for total independence from England.

There were other writers like, Thomas Jefferson, Franklin Benjamin Alexander Hamilton etc. whose writings led to the rise of American nationalism

4.2.5 Conclusion of the Seven Years War:

By 1763 the seven years' war ended with England emerging victorious over France. With French power on the Northern American continent broken, there was no longer a serious foreign threat to the 13 Colonies. Feeling more secure than before, the Americans grew even more defiant towards their absentee rulers.

On the other hand Britain was determined to make the colonies pay a part of the war expenditure by imposing new taxes on them. Empowered by

the removal of the French threat, the American turned bolder and this enabled them to resist the alarming British innovations.

4.3 IMMEDIATE CAUSE AND COURSE OF THE WAR

The colonies by 1765 began to entertain thoughts of complete independence from the 'mother country'. They began to commit acts of violence to resist the unjust laws. If needed only a spark to set the process in motion. This was provided in the form, of what came to be known as the 'BOSTON TEA PARTY'.

The antecedent leading to this event was the imposition of the Tea Act of 1773, to facilitate the sale of surplus tea that was lying in English warehouses. This was met with resistance. In the year 1773 when a cargo of tea arrived at the Boston port, a group of colonist disguised as 'Red Indians' boarded the ship and threw away the 342 chests of tea into the sea. This event was popularly known as the "Boston Tea Party". The British government instantly closed down the Boston port and brought swift punitive measures in what the Americans called the 'Intolerable Acts'. The British may have thought that their tough policy would bring the colonists to their senses but it had the opposite effect.

County assemblies were convened in Massachusetts, to protest against these acts. Shortly thereafter, representatives from all the colonies assembled at a continental congress in Philadelphia. There they drew up a statement of grievances and formed an association to cut off all trade with Britain. The conflict of words had given way to 'direct action'.

When the British governor at Massachusetts ordered for the dissolution of the Legislature, the legislators defiantly reconvened and proceeded to raise a defence force. This was illegal and brought into existence a state of 'armed rebellion'. The first clash of arms accrued in April 1775 at Concord where the British lost heavily. The War of Independence' had started.

The continental congress reassembled shortly after this. The minutemen among Boston were enlisted as the nucleus of a continental army, and George Washington was named as commander-in-chief of the army.

The congress also appointed a committee of Thomas Jefferson. Benjamin Franklin and others to draw up a 'Declaration of Independence; which was adopted by the congress on July 4th 1776. This document aimed to justify the resort to force against Britain and to win support abroad as well at home.

The ringing paragraph that links the American Revolution with universal truth has been taken from Locke, but Jefferson's version is marked by incomparable simplicity, clarity and power. It is as follows: "We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal; that they are

endowed by their creator with certain unalienable Rights; that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. – That to secure these rights. Governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends it is the Right of the people to alter or abolish it

With this Jefferson set forth a view of man, government and revolution that remains an inspiration to believers in human dignity. Liberal principles and progressive social change.

The war dragged on for six years. In spite of the skill and heroic self-sacrifice of Washington the Americans lost more battles than they gained. Fortunately for the Americans. Britain though a leading European power, was hampered by long lines of communication, poor general ship, and troubles in other parts of the empire.

The colonials on their side had many difficulties. They faced internal differences non availability to provide sufficient troops supplies or money. Although they fought bravely and endured severe hardships, they could hardly have won, without the aid of foreign power. The French monarch eager to even the score with the British after their humiliating defeat of 1763 decided to aid the rebels. Spain and Holland followed, swinging the European balance in the American favour.

The surrender of Lord Cornwallis in 1781 at Yorktown virtually ended the British military effort. It was forced by a French fleet controlling the waters of Yorktown. Two years later, by the ‘Treaty of Paris’, the United States of America won recognition as a sovereign territory stretching from the Atlantic to the Mississippi.

Check Your Progress:

1. Discuss the important causes of American Revolution?

4.4 EFFECTS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

The American emerged from the ‘War of Independence’ with relatively few scars. However it is one of the greatest landmarks in the history of mankind. The effects are as follows:

- (1) **Birth of a New Nation:** This was acknowledged by England under the ‘Treaty of Paris’ in 1783. The territory was to extend to the Mississippi River.

- (2) **French and Spanish gains:** France recovered Tobacco in the West Indies and Senegal in West Africa. Spain regained Minorca and Horrid. However Holland proved to be a loser.
- (3) **Losses to France and Spain:** French and Spanish fleets were practically smashed by British naval forces. The French turned virtually bankrupt after the war which in turn set the ball of the French Revolution rolling.
- (4) **Lesson to the English:** Britain realised that she could not rule and exploit the colonies arbitrarily. With the loss of America she began to concentrate all her attention on India.
- (5) **A New Experiment of government:** The American was the first to experiment in a federal type of government. They were also the first to introduce a written constitution. Their example was followed by other countries.
- (6) **Liberty and Democracy:** The Declaration of Independence asserted that 'all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their creator with alienable rights, that among these are life and liberty and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights governments are constituted among men deriving their powers from the consent of the governed.
- (7) **A Right to Revolt:** It affirmed the birth-right of all people who are oppressed to resist and overthrow tyrannical governments.

Check Your Progress:

2. What were the major effects of American Revolution?

4.5 GEORGE WASHINGTON AND AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Recognition of the true greatness of George Washington, as a man and a general, has somehow been diminished over the years. Born in 1732 in the state of Virginia, Washington was a self-made man, though he came from a background of being a plantation owner. At the age of 27 he married Martha Curtis, a rich widow with children. He was fond of socializing and was also a champion for the rights of the colonist.

In recognition of his great patriotism, and his qualities of leadership, the Congress elected him as its Commander-in-Chief. This he accepted mainly as "a kind of destiny," as he told his wife.

When Washington reached the American camp at Cambridge on July 2, 1775, the problems that he faced were practically impossible to solve. He needed to create an army from a mixture of forces raised by the four New England states-Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire and Rhode Island - and the southern regiment yet to come. These soldiers were volunteers, rugged individuals, resentful of discipline, ignorant of military procedure, lacking clothing, weapons, ammunition and other supplies with which to wage a prolonged war. As Washington wrote to his brother that the officers in general were “the most indifferent kind of people I ever saw”.

Washington also faced a crisis in the form of finance for the army. Yet along with the help of Robert Morris, Washington was able to inspire his men in the field and also to raise money to finance the army.

He spent six years in the field with his troops, without once returning to his beloved Mount Vernon. His labour bore fruit with the triumph of the Colonist armies over the British forces led by Lord Cornwallis. The final victory of Washington at Yorktown on October 19, 1781, vindicated Washington’s fundamental strategy — to harass the enemy at every point, but never to allow them the opportunity of crushing his army.

The British evacuated New York on November 23, 1783. Washington marched in leading his ill-clad, ragged army. It was there he bid farewell to his officers and soldiers.

In recognition of his leadership capabilities, the new Constitutional Government that was formed elected George Washington as the first President of the United States of America.

Check Your Progress:

3. Write a short note on role George Washington in American Revolution?

4.6 CONCLUSION

The American Revolution brought about the first expulsion of a European colonial power replaced monarchical government with a viable republic and established the practice of popular sovereignty (democracy). As a result of those achievements, the American Revolution seed as a hope and a model to latter revolutions round the world.

B. FRENCH REVOLUTION

4.7 CAUSES FOR THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

To understand the main Causes, phases and consequences of the movement that began in 1789. A survey of the background of the rebellion is necessary.

4.7.1 Political Causes:

(1) The Bourbon Monarch and the Old Regime:

The Monarch in France claimed to rule by the will of God that is by 'Divine Right' and not by the consent of the people. He was an absolute monarch and responsible only to 'God'. French monarchs from Louis XIV continued to sit in the grand manner at Versailles. However the monarchy while clinging to its divine claims proved to be ineffectual during the 18th century. Louis XV was capable but a pleasure loving ruler. His successor Louis XVI was well meaning but indecisive.

Humiliating military defeats and the loss of the French overseas empire undermined royal prestige, while wars, waste and extra agency brought the monarchy to the edge of bankruptcy.

(2) The Government:

The only large administrative units of any significance in France in the century and half preceding the Revolution were the generalities or intendancies. Historical provinces which had been independent kingdoms or duller before their absorption into the French state, still retained their own laws and customs. The intendants were selected from the ranks of the bourgeoisie. But under Louis XIV they were raised them to the rank of nobility.

These intendants enjoyed absolute authority in their intendancies. This led all thinking men of the 18th century to denounce the '30 tyrants of France'.

(3) The Central Administration:

The French administration had no unity in 1789. The chief administrative subordinates of the king were the Chancellor the controller general of finance, the 4 secretaries of state and the members of the royal counsel.

The chancellor was the chief judicial and legislative officials of the state, presiding when the king was absent. He was also in charge of secondary and higher education, all bookstores, publications and royal censors whom he appointed to office. Of all the high officials, he alone was not removable.

The controller – general of finance had many responsibilities while each of the 4 secretaries had certain clearly defined specialized functionary, as

well as administrative authority over certain. Specified territorial districts. There were four more or less definite sections of the royal council which determined the general internal policy of the administration.

An examination of this system shows only its inefficiency. There was conflict of jurisdiction and rivalries among the administrators, as well as an absence of an executive head in their midst to formulate long term plans and policies. All this taxed the strength of even the most conscientious and determined servant of the state.

(4) Administration of Justice:

According to the absolutist theory all justice in France came from the monarch, whose officials administered it in his name in the many royal courts of justice that were established throughout the entire country.

Below the 13 parliaments of the realm, which were the supreme courts of appeal in civil and criminal case there were a number of courts of primary and appellate jurisdiction. In the country districts there were simple police courts; in the towns and cities, courts of the bailiffs and courts of the presidencies that were rapidly being merged with the tribunals. There were also administrative courts, military courts, admiralty courts, commercial courts, inferior and appellate courts that had jurisdiction over cases involving specified taxes, salt tax etc.

France had no single code of laws either for civil or for criminal cases. There was also no attempt to codify the law. This lack of uniformity caused confusion. The administration of justice was arbitrary as it was slow and costly for litigants.

Also the king could issue 'WRITS' called 'LETTRES DE CACHET' by which he could imprison any subject without inquiry or trial so long as it pleased the royal will.

4.7.2 Economic Causes:

1. Finance and Taxation:

The taxation system functioned in confusion and disorder and at a high cost to the treasury and at a cost still greater to the economic activities of France. Taxes fell unequally on his majesty's subjects. The privileged classes were for the most exempt from taxation. It was the peasantry who mostly bore the brunt of the burden. The methods of collection were financially wasteful and corrupt, socially offensive and economically indefensible. In the case of indirect taxes the methods were brutal as well..

There were two types of taxes in France.

2. The DIRECT TAXES and the INDIRECT TAXES.

DIRECT TAXES:

Among the direct taxes, were the taille, the capitation and the vingtimes. The taille was a law for military purposes, and it fell exclusively on the peasantry. It was not assessed uniformly but there was uniformity in its collection.

The capitation was a poll tax, and the Vingtimes was an income tax on all revenue whether from the land, commerce, industry or the liberal professions. The payment of these taxes was evaded by the privileged class. Hence the burden fell on the third estate.

In addition to these, there was the 'ROYAL CORVEE' a tax payable in labour. This tax fell exclusively on the peasantry.

3. Indirect Taxes:

The principal indirect taxes were the salt tax (Gabelle), the excise tax (AIDES), the custom duties (TRAITES and DOUANES), the government tobacco monopoly, and the income from royal domains.

Of these taxes the abuses connected with the administration of the salt tax was the worst. Of all the fiscal agents the salt collector (GABELOUS) was the most detested. They made house to house searches for smuggled salt. Thousands of arrests were made. The victims were sent to the galleys in punishment.

4.7.3 Social Causes:

Society in France was made up of 3 ESTATES

FIRST ESTATE:

This group consisted of the clergy. It was the most influential corporate body in the kingdom. It exercised an extraordinary influence in government administration. The clergy took charge of the education and the relief of the sick and the poor. They were wealthy and were supposed to have owned one-fifth of all the land in France. They claimed that their property being dedicated to God was not subject to taxation. They consented however to help the king from time to time by donating a 'FREE GIFT' as they called it. The church collected tithes from the people. Also their vast possessions made it very independent.

A great part of this enormous income of the church went to the higher clergy – the bishops, archbishops and abbots. Since they were appointed by the king, often from among his courtiers, they tended to neglect their duties as officers of the Church and became like a great 'LORDS' with a hundred thousand Francs income.

While they were spending their time in Versailles the real work was performed by the lower clergy, who often received scarcely enough to

keep body and soul together. Hence when the revolution began, the parish priests sided with the people rather than with their superiors.

SECOND Estate:

It was the nobility that made up this group. The privileges and dues enjoyed by the nobility varied greatly in different parts of France. It was quite common for the noble landowner to have a right to a certain portion of the peasants crops. Occasionally he could collect a toll on sheep and cattle driven past his house. Sometimes he maintained the only mill, wine press or oven within a certain district and would require any one using it to pay him a share of the product.

They also enjoyed the exclusive privilege of hunting. This did a lot of damage to the crops of the peasants. Many manors had great pigeon houses built which were hated by the peasants since the pigeons ate the sown seed.

The rank of nobility was acquired by birth, by military service, by the purchase of patents of nobility or by the possession of certain public offices. However many wealthy commoners were able to purchase waste estates and buy their way into this estate. Once they became nobles. They claimed all the rights and privileges that went with it. This was even more odious to the people at large than they otherwise would have been.

THIRD ESTATE:

Everybody who did not belong to either the clergy or the nobility was regarded as being from the 3rd estate. The estimated number in 1789 being about 25 million souls. A great part of the 3rd estate lived in the country and tilled the soil. They were oppressed by the burdens of taxation and dues to be paid to the lords. They also suffered from the famines that were increasing frequently.

Only a small percentage of the population lived in cities, and the cities even the largest were thinly populated. The urban population was divided into two groups. The bourgeoisie lived on their income or else from the revenue of a trade, "a profession that required little manual labour. All other city dwellers belonged to an urban proletariat.

Many wealthy bourgeoisies were able to buy their way into the nobility, but tradition and royal edicts excluded them, from the highest positions. They wanted a change in the system, but they were disallowed to work for it.

On the other hand, the hardships of the petty craftsmen and workmen increased. They were subjected more closely than ever to the authority of the individual employer in particular and to that of the government in general. Prices of commodities increased, but wages did not. This caused impoverishment. Those thrown out of employment were reduced to anti-

social activities. Thus labour of the 18th century voiced their protest through revolution.

4.7.4 The Age of Enlightenment:

The age of Reason, that is the period roughly from 1715-1789 has been credited to be the main cause for the outbreak of the revolution. The men who effected this change called themselves 'PHILOSOPHES'. They were not conscious advocates of violent revolution, but were enemies of ancient abuses.

Of all these 'PHILOSOPHES', 3 names stand out MONTESQUIEU, VOLTAIRE AND ROUSSEAU

1. MONTESQUIEU (1689-1755):

He was a polished and an eminent lawyer. He was well versed in history and a Student of human institutions. His writings were the result of systematized and careful thought. He stood for a constitutional form of government and believed in the supremacy of law. He believed that liberty could be achieved only if there was a separation of power. He wrote the 'SPIRIT OF LAWS', which was a product of 20 years of labour. This was a study of political philosophy, an analysis of various forms of governments and their merits and demerits.

2. VOLTAIRE (1694-1778):

He was the foremost champion of reason and tolerance during the 18th Century. His name is permanently associated with the campaigns whose motto was "CRUSH THE INFAMOUS THING", which was against religious authority. He is famous for his "Essay on the Manners and spirit of Nations". In his 'Treatise on Tolerance', in thousands of letters he denounced the 'Infamous thing'. He fought intolerance with deeds as well as words.

3. JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU (1712 – 1778):

The best guide to this extraordinary individual is his 'CONFESSIONS' which tell the story of his life experiences, upon which his entire program of thought and action was largely built.

Rousseau advocated a "Return to NATURE". It was his most famous work. 'THE SOCIAL CONTRACT' he argued that all men had certain natural rights and liberties, which were life, liberty and property and that men no longer owed obedience to any government that failed to protect them, in those rights and liberties.

In this book, he also outlined the tenets of a civil religion which directly inspired the revolutionaries of 1793-94. But his greatest contribution is his doctrine of popular sovereignty, with its attendant corollaries of "LIBERTY EQUALITY AND FRATERNITY".

4.7.5 Other Causes:

The French participation in American Revolution was a major contributing factor to the revolution in France for various reasons :

- The French treasury turned bankrupt in a war which yielded no returns. This precipitated a financial crisis in France.
- The French were inspired by the Americans and 'The Declaration INDEPENDENCE'. They received justification to revolt against the corruption and exploitation of their government.
- They gained experience in matters pertaining to Revolution.

Failure of Reforms in France:

The monarch Louis XVI realised that finances in France was at a deplorable level. Something had to be done to save the situation. He therefore attempted to reform the economy by appointing good and sound financial advisers, but no change was able to be effected.

Turgot (1774-1776):

Louis XVI appointed Turgot as controller general of finances. The king also re-established the abolished parliament as an act of reconciliation between the government and its powerful critics. Turgot's views on finances can be summarised in the phrase 'No Bankruptcies, no new taxes and no loans'. By rigid economy Turgot did affect gratifying savings for the treasury. However his example did not influence the monarch, hence wasteful expenditure continued. Turgot's measures earned him the hostility of the privileged class who along with the Queen Marie Antoinette, prevailed on the king to dismiss him.

NECKER (1776-1781):

After several months, Louis XVI appointed the most famous of bankers Necker to take charge of the finances of France. His administrative reforms were sound, though hardly sufficient as a remedy to the problem. Necker had many friends, but he also had many foes. In order to strengthen his position, he published the 'Compte RENDU Au Roi'. This gave details of his public administration, and well as details of expenditure of the king. This brought him unpopularity, and led to an attack by the king's brothers, courtiers etc.

Necker demanded the title of 'Royal Minister' from the king. When he was refused, he resigned

CALONNE (1781-83):

The immediate successor was Calonne, an intendant and a highly intelligent and resourceful person. This solution to financial ailments was the restoration of public confidence. The best way of doing this according to him was to give the appearance of prosperity. Therefore he threw the economy to the winds and expanded the credit of the government by borrowing heavily from the capitalist.

However deflation soon set in, and the confidence of the capitalist vanished more rapidly than it had been restored. Necker's publication in 1785, of 3 volumes on the Administration of Finances was a rude revelation to hard headed business men who had imagined that prosperity could be maintained permanently by inflating the purchasing power instead of balancing the government's budget.

Calhoun was ultimately dismissed by the king. He fled to England.

Check Your Progress:

4. What were the major causes of French Revolution?

4.8 BEGINNING AND COURSE OF THE REVOLUTION

4.8.1 Summoning of the Estates General:

Though a revolutionary situation existed in France in the 1780's, it took a special chain of circumstances to precipitate the revolution. Having failed to raise the revenues, he wanted by means of existing laws, Louis XVI was compelled to at last seek additional taxing authority according to historic precedent, and such authority could be granted only by the Estates General. This body represented the 3 major Estates of France, and had not met since 1614. The king's call for the election of delegates in 1788 created a stir of anticipation, for if the king wanted new taxes, he would have to make concessions to the assembled representatives.

Unfortunately right from the beginning, differences between the estates began to appear. The 3rd estate demanded more 'Representation', as they formed the bulk of the French population. Also they demanded that votes be taken by count of heads in the total body of representatives. They won satisfaction of the first demand, but failed in the second. Thus even before the opening of the session problems appeared.

4.8.2 The Opening of the Estates – General:

After the session had opened, matters soon came to a head. Unable to persuade the upper two estates to sit and vote with them as one body, the representatives of the 3rd estate decided to 'walk out' of the meeting. Stating that they were the only true representatives of the people, they declared themselves to be the 'National Assembly' of France (June 17th

1789). This proclamation was the first act of revolution a crisis was brewing up.

4.8.3 Tennis Court Oath:

Louis XVI was forced to take a decision. He sided with the upper two Estates. Thus when the deputies of the 3rd estate arrived for the meeting on June 20th they found that the doors of the assembly were closed to them. It was a two minutes' walk to the nearby indoor tennis court, a bare little building with only a floor space and galleries for spectators. There the determined deputies took the 'TENNIS COURT OATH' which stated never to separate and to reassemble wherever circumstances demanded until the constitution of the realm was established and affirmed upon a solid basis.

Within a few days, the National assembly was joined by many priests from the first estate, as well as some nobles from the 2nd estate. The king tried to intimidate this body by now calling for his troops (20,000 soldiers) to Versailles.

4.8.4 The Fall of Bastille July 14th 1789:

The National assembly was rescued by the people of Paris. Law and order began to break down. Men everywhere began to arm themselves for defence, against the king's forces. The excitement in Paris, fed by Rumours of troop movements rose higher and higher. Crowds began to roam the streets in search of weapons and on July 14th they demanded arms from the Bastille.

Bastille was a fort where arms and ammunition was stored. It was also a place where political prisoners were kept. It was hated as it was a sign of despotism. When its commander refused to turn in the arms, the mob attempted to push their way in. After an exchange of gunfire, in which a hundred of the insurgents were killed, the commander agreed to surrender. The mob then rushed in and took over the fort. This was the starting point of the revolution.

4.8.5 Work of the Assembly:

After the fall of the Bastille, the king had no option but to yield to the demands of the Paris mob and the 3rd Estate. Troops were recalled. The king recognised a self-appointed citizen's committee as the new municipal government of Paris and directed the representatives of the privileged estates to sit in the National Assembly. Thus the revolution was saved for the time being.

Meanwhile violence broke out in the country side as rumours of landlords attacking peasants was spread. This was known as the 'GREAT FEAR'. As a result peasants organised themselves and began to destroy and loot

the manors – the assembly had to appease the peasants, so they declared ‘feudalism as abolished. The assembly now turned to the task of drafting a ‘constitution for France’. The preface to this had ‘The Declaration of Rights of Man and Citizens’. To served as a guide to the new order.

The king, however was not willing to accept these changes. At the same time food was turning scarce. Confusion once again began to manifest itself. On October 5th angry mobs consisting mainly of women marched 12 miles from Paris to Versailles demanding ‘BREAD’. They forced the king and the queens to return back to Paris.

The constitution was ultimately completed in 1791. It reflected its extremist trend. It provided for a unicameral legislature and a suspensive Veto for the king. France was thus declared as a ‘Constitutional Monarchy’ Unfortunately Louis XVI sealed his fate by attempting to escape from France. He was however caught and brought back in humiliation. Ultimately the king and his family were put on trial. They were found guilty of conspiracy against the Assembly. They were then guillotined!

4.8.6 Reign of terror 1792-95:

The nest phase of the French Revolution was known as ‘The Reign of Terror’. During this period, there was a ‘counter – Revolution’ as war was declared by other European powers against the French. While this was on, in France members of the aristocracy and their sympathizers were guillotined.

Fortunately by 1794, French Forces were able to overcome the coalition forces. Robespierre the chief dictator of the ‘Reign of Terror’ was put to death. Thus the 2nd phase of the French Revolution ended.

4.8.7 The Directory and the Rise of Napoleon:

The 3rd phase of the French Revolution saw the rise of the Directory which took place on October 27, 1795. The French were worn out with all its problems. The revolutionary fevere had exhausted itself. People wanted rest and order since enthusiasm bad given way to disillusionment.

The 5 directors worked with zeal and courage to satisfy the demands of the country. Their first concern was with the restoration of political stability. “To wage active war upon royalism, stimulate patriotism, vigorously to crush all factions, extinguish partisan feelings and desire for vengeance, to make concord reign.

Unfortunately the Directory lacked effective leadership. A brilliant young general, Napoleon Bonaparte, was quick to grasp the facts of the political situation. He had first defended the government in 1795, against the attacks by the royalist mobs. Two years later his troops were called on to

enforce illegal measures that had been taken by the directory. In 1799, he plotted with some of its own leaders to take over the state by a sudden seizure (coup d'état). The conspirators believed that only a strong government headed by a general could fend off royalism, establish internal order, and defeat France's foreign enemies. Napoleon after taking over, proclaimed himself as the 'First Counsel' of France. Later on he proclaimed himself as the Emperor of France (1804).

4.8.8 Domestic Policy of Napoleon:

Napoleon was more than a general. Born on the island of Corsica in 1769, he turned a fervent French nationalist. He declared himself as the 'SON OF THE REVOLUTION' since it was the revolution that gave him the opportunity to rise. His first task on assumption of power was to secure domestic peace and order. He arranged to have his opponents silenced by means of selective deportations etc. He removed Catholic disaffection by signing the 'CONCORDAT' with the Pope in 1801.

He re-organised the educational institutions in France, which till today remain the bases of French education. He was responsible for reorganising law and administration. He appointed commissions to cut through centuries old accretion of rules and regulations and brought to completion the 'CODE NAPOLEON'. The Code was to become the basis of law in major portions of Europe and America.

4.8.9 Napoleons Codes:

The Civil Code was profoundly national. It was at once "a summary and a correction of the Revolution". It gave the unity of legislation that France had long desired. The state was made secular. Attempts to restore family life was also made.

A code of civil Procedure was also formulated. The code of Criminal Procedure and the Penal code was also formulated. These codes perpetuated many of the changes that were introduced during the Revolution. 'Equality before law' was recognised by having the same penalties for all citizens. The commercial code also served as a model for many countries in Europe, being in force at the present day in Belgium and Italy.

The totality of these codes represents the most comprehensive effort made in France to achieve legal unity. It has been rightly said that these codes were Napoleons most 'DURABLE ACCOMPLISHMENT'.

4.8.10 Foreign Policy:

His first move in foreign affairs was to break the second coalition of European powers which had come together against France. By swift military strokes and skilful diplomacy, he achieved his goal by 1802. His

ambition however drove him to inaugurating what came to be known as the continental system with a view of conquering the continent, as a prelude to conquering the world.

Napoleon therefore set out to conquer Spain, Portugal, Italian State, Prussia and other German states etc. Unfortunately he was unable to gain victory over England. Ultimately a coalition of European powers was formed against him. He was defeated in 1814 and banished to the island of Elba. However he escaped from there. Shortly afterwards he was able to raise an army. However, once again a coalition of European powers was formed against him. Napoleon was ultimately defeated at Waterloo in 1815. He was expelled to the island of St. Helena, where he ultimately died.

Napoleon however planted the seeds of a new order in Europe, and the continent would never again be the same.

Check Your Progress:

5. What is the Importance of Napoleons code?

4.9 OUTCOME OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

- The French Revolution was not just a local event. It effected the whole of Europe and the world. The Revolution stood for the principles of 'LIBERTY, EQUALITY AND FRATERNITY'. Thus these ideal, inspired and dominated European ideals and politics throughout the 19th century. It also sealed the fate of monarchs in the world
- The Declaration of the Rights of Man by the National assembly emphasized the fact that sovereignty resided in the people and the law is the expression of general will.
- The Revolution asserted that all men are equal before law and absolutely no justification for the maintenance of privileges whether based on birth or wealth. The result was that serfdom, feudal restrictions and limitations were removed. Religious toleration was assured. Freedom of the press was established and the right of the individual to education was maintained.
- The principle of 'Nationality' was also asserted by the revolution.
- Humanitarianism was given a Stimulus by the revolution, as efforts to abolish slavery and to improve the conditions of prisons were made.

Legislation was passed in many countries to improve the conditions of people in general.

- The French revolution helped in the revival of 'Romanticism' by the assertion of individualism, the defiance of tradition and the establishment of human life on the basis of pure feeling.
- Napoleons conquests paved the way for the growth of nationalism. This led to the processes of Unification. Italy and Germany. Nationalism also grew in the Balkans and Denmark.

His codes were copied by almost all European countries. Due to him a general recognition that religion was a personal matter and not the reduction of the role of the Church in state affairs now turned the order of the day.

Check Your Progress:

6. Bring out the results of French Revolution.

C. INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

4.10 MAIN FEATURES

- The Industrial Revolution was unplanned.
- Machinery replaced manual labour; small output in cottage industries gave place to large scale production in factories.
- With increased production, there was a need to reach a wider market for the finished goods as well as markets to buy the raw materials. This necessitated important changes in the transport and communications systems.
- Wealth and population began to increase. Population began to migrate from the rural areas to urban centres in search of employment. This resulted in a growth of cities and towns and along with it social and economic changes.
- The Industrial Revolution featured on 'capitalism' as a way of life. Those who possessed the means of production emerged in favourable positions and were the new masters of society.
- It led to an increasing application of science to industry.

4.11 INTRODUCTION

The era of 19th Century was aimed at political and social reforms engaged the attention of Europe. The socio - political was happening in the various countries in Europe but the more important focus in Europe was the Revolution in Science and Technology. There for the whole scenario of European nations was changed because of the great Impact of the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution has changed the entire Socio – Economic life of the European peoples. The evolution and discoveries in various field and after Industrial Revolution has greatly influence on the European Society.

The term 'Industrial Revolution' refers to series of invention where by the process of manufacture, in cotton industries first, then in others were greatly improved and speeded up.

4.12 GREAT BRITAIN

The Industrial Revolution was begun in Great Britain; many technological innovations were of British origin. Great Britain was the main center of Industrial Revolution because the revolution was invented in Britain in 18th century. Later on it was spread to other countries.

4.12.1 Causes:

(1) Preceding and accompanying the Industrial Revolution were significant changes in agriculture. New farming implements, better fertilizers, scientific breeding etc. were tried. The result was a sharp increase in output. However it also created a large pool of displaced workers who desperately sought employment. Some hired themselves out to successful farm operators, others turned to spinning and weaving. They were ready to go wherever they could earn better wages. Hence they were unafraid of hard work, and they provided the economy with abundant labour.

4.12.2 During this period, British traders were discovering lucrative new markets. By 1750 Britain had built up a globe – circling empire supported by a large Navy and merchant fleet. Rich profits beckoned to traders who could increase their exports.

4.12.3 Rich deposits of coal and iron close to one another helped the process of Industrial progress in Britain.

4.12.4 Britain as an island kept herself free from the continental political entanglements. Also her strong central government gave political stability to the country.

4.12.5 England had strong traditions in encouraging literary and educational activities as well as free enterprise.

4.12.6 England's fortunes rested partly on her advantageous geographical position, as well as partly on the character of her people.

4.12.7 There were large scale migrations from other nations to England due to religious persecution. The migrants were skilled artisans. They migrated with their skills and their money. They gave a fresh impetus to English industry.

4.12.8 Finally, in spite of the existence of all these favourable factors, the Industrial Revolution could not have taken place in England, had there been no inventive genius. End and war fortunate in producing great scientists and inventors like sir Humphry Davy, George Stephenson etc.

4.13 COURSE OF THE REVOLUTION

4.13.1 Textile Revolution:

The Revolution started in the textile industry. A series of inventions gave the textile merchants what they were looking for and led to the general mechanization of industry in England. The first breakthrough, about 1767 was a hand-powered multi-spindled spinning wheel (JENNY). It was invented by James Hargreaves, an English spinner. It enable a single workman, by turning a wheel to spin 8-10 threads at once, and thus do the work of 8-10 spinners. It was named after his wife, and it increased the

production of yarn. A year later, a barber Richard Arkwright patented a device for drawing out thread by means of rollers. He made a large fortune for himself by establishing a great factory filled with power driven machines. In 1779, Samuel Crompton made a happy combination of Hargreaves's spinning Jenny and Arkwright's roller machine which was called the 'Mule'.

Before the end of the 18th century, machines spinning 200 threads simultaneously had been invented. Such inventions produced the factory system of manufacture.

In 1784, Dr. Cartwright, a clergyman of Kent, patented a new loom, which automatically threw the shuttle and shifted the weft. This machine was steadily improved during the 19th century. The time required for bleaching was reduced by several months to a few days by the use of acids, instead of relying principally upon the sunlight.

In 1782, Eli Whitney in the United States invented 'POWER GIN', which enabled one man to take the seeds out of over 1000 pounds of cotton a day, instead of 5 or 6 pounds which had been the limit for the hand worker. The effect of these inventions in increasing the amount of cloth manufactured was astonishing.

4.13.2 The Steam Engine and Transportation:

The Steam Engine, initially, was a practical response to a problem in coal-mining. For deep shafts to be operated efficiently there had to be some way to pump out water that drained into them. THOMAS NEWCOMEN invented the first working machine for this purpose around 1700. Later in the century, JAMES WATT and others made radical improvement on Newcomen's invention. By 1800, the steam engine had become the chief source of power in the new factories and was being adapted to both water and land transportation.

The heroic 'age of railways' was launched in 1825 when GEORGE STEPHENSON'S framed locomotive the 'ROCKET', made its first run on the Liverpool and Manchester line. Within a generation thousands of miles of tracks, had been laid in Europe and America.

An effort to build better roads was started in England when John McAdam (1756-1836) built a type of hard surfaced road called by his name. He used a mud-binder between stones to produce the hard surface. The only change made in this method was the substitution of tar for mud as a binder. France copied the English method, and under the patronage of the government many highways were built.

4.13.3 Revolution in Agriculture:

The revolution in the agricultural sector must also be considered as a part of the Industrial Revolution. In the 18th century, new methods of

production and new food plans had been introduced only by a few individuals. The earliest of these reformers was JETHRO TULL (1680-1741). He applied himself mainly to the prevention of waste and to giving the plant a 'free field'. He invented a drill and a machine for sowing clover, which reduced the amount of seed required from 10 lbs to 2 lbs on acre.

His successor Lord Townshend, adopted his method of drilling and hoeing, and made extremely important experiments on the rotation of crops. BAKEWELL (1725-95) introduced scientific breeding of farm animals.

The British government introduced a Board of agriculture to encourage farming. Many new ideas were popularized by ARTHUR YOUNG (1741-1820) through his writings and public activities.

Meanwhile new implements were introduced. Machines for harvesting and threshing grain were invented and improved. The horse drawn rake, multiple ploughs and dairy appliances also revolutionised farming.

Check Your Progress:

7. Explain the major causes and course of the Industrial Revolution?

4.14 EFFECTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Having briefly reviewed how machinery was introduced into England in the latter half of the 13th century, and how the steam engine came to be utilized as a motive power, we have now to consider the important results of these inventions in changing the conditions under which people lived and worked. They can be viewed as follows:

4.14.1 Social Effects:

(1) Social Problems of Urbanization:

Upto the time of the Industrial Revolution the term 'manufacture' still meant as it did in the original Latin (Manu Facere) 'to make by hand'. Artisans carried on trade with their own tools in their own homes, or in small shops. He was able to give some attention to a small garden plot, from which he derived a part of his support. However, the factory system put an end to all this. The workmen now had to live near their workplace. Long rows of houses without gardens or even grass plots were hastily built

around the factory buildings. This ultimately led to the development of slums with all its social problems.

(2) Change in the lives of women and Children:

The introduction industrialisation had also a revolutionary effect upon the work and lives of women and children. Employers preferred to employ women and children as they could be exploited by paying them less wages. Working conditions were miserable. Often workers had to work for 18-20 hours a day in unhealthy surroundings. This led to health problems as abuses grew. Homes were neglected as women were out working all day. Prostitution and smoking and drinking among women increased. Children neglected education. Physical and mental deformities turned common, as children worked hard and did not get to enjoy the joys of childhood.

(3) Change in class structure:

For several centuries improvements in military technology and methods of government caused the position of the aristocrat to deteriorate. The Industrial Revolution brought an end to their position. Newly rich capitalist and entrepreneurs demanded a raise in their social status. They also demanded and won power in government which had been partly subservient to the nobility.

4.14.2 Economic Effects:

(1) Rise of a Capitalist Class:

The revolution in the methods of production produced a sharp distinction between two classes of men involved. There were on one hand, the capitalists who owned the buildings and all the mechanism and on the other hand, the workmen who they hired to operate the machines. The workingmen necessarily became dependent upon the capitalist who exploited him with low wages and long hours of work.

(2) Introduction of Standardisation in Products:

Under the old system, the entire product was hand crafted by the artisan. But in the factory system different labourers did different jobs. Action thus turned repetitive and tedious. On the other hand 'creativity' was lost.

(3) Imperialism:

The Industrial Revolution gave rise to Imperialism. European countries who had turned industrialised began to look for markets for raw materials. They also began to look for markets where they could dump their finished products as well as for markets for investment of surplus's capital. This they found in the markets of Asia and Africa. Hence a race for colonies was started by every European power.

(4) Increase in Wealth:

The increase in industrialisation led to greater production of wealth, goods and services, thereby raising the standard of living. At first these

benefitted only a small section of society, but latter on more people benefitted from this.

4.14.3 Political Effects:

(1) New Political Ideologies:

European politics and theories of government and industry were given a new direction. The two great classes created by the revolution namely the capitalist and the working class each entered politics on its own accord and each had a theory of government.

Trade Unions were established by the working class to protect their interest. New concepts like socialism, communism was also born out of the need of the working class to put an end to exploitation from the capitalist class. To this end revolutions like the 'Russian Revolution' of 1917 was fought and communism a dictatorship of the working class was established.

Check Your Progress:

8. Bring out the major effects of the Industrial Revolution?

4.15 CONCLUSION

The French Revolution was the inspiration for all revolutions of the 19th century. It opened a new epoch in the history of mankind. It paved the way for individualism as it proclaimed equality for mankind.

4.15.1 Summing up:

The French Revolution was an important landmark in the history of mankind. The causes for this revolution can be traced to the social, economic and political conditions of the old Regime. Along with these the Influence of the American Revolution failure of reforms also Contributed its share in bringing about revolution in France.

The beginnings of the Revolution can be traced to the summoning of the Estates – general in 1789. The confusion that ensued in the processes of elections to this body and the voting procedures to be adopted led to disturbances and turmoil. This was especially because the king Louis XVI refused to listen to the voice of the 3rd estate despite the fact that they represented the bulk of the population in France.

This led to expulsion of the 3rd estate from the proceedings in the estate – general. Angered by this the 3rd estate took the ‘Tennis Court Oath’ Vowing to establish a ‘Constitution for France’. They also constituted themselves into a National Assembly.

Fortunately the National Assembly was able to survive due to Paris Mob who was able to capture the ‘Bastille’, thus foiling the attempts of the king to overthrow the National Assembly with the help of his troops.

From here there was no stopping the revolutionaries. A constitution was established for France in 1791 with the king as a constitutional Monarch. Unfortunately, the king along with his family was caught trying to escape France. They were caught and put to the guillotine.

The next phase was the ‘Reign of Terror’ when Robespierre was the dictator of France. Ultimate by Robespierre was put to death thus ending revolution in France.

The 3rd phase was that of the directory. The 5 directors sincerely tried to bring order out of the turmoil but were unsuccessful. They were usurped from power ultimately by Napoleon Bonaparte who established himself as the first consul of France and then the Emperor (1804).

The most enduring of Napoleon’s achievement was to make France ‘secular’ and his ‘codes’ These were copied by the many countries of Europe. Unfortunately Napoleon’s overambition caused his downfall. He tried conquering the continent. But a coalition of European powers was formed against him. He was defeated in 1814 and expelled to the Island of Elba. He escaped and once again was able to raise an army for war. He was again defeated by the coalition at Waterloo. He was banished to the island of ST. Helena (1815) where he ultimately perished.

The French Revolution had to impact all over the world especially as the words ‘Liberty Equality and Fraternity’ turned the keywords, engineering the right to revolt against exploitation, and establishing a new world order.

Check Your Progress:

9. Discuss the conditions in the ‘Old Regime’ that brought about the French Revolution.

4.16 SUMMARY

The American continent was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492. It was however named after America Vespucci. Soon after his discovery, America was colonised by the Europeans who came in search of better prospects of all the Europeans. The British soon got mastery of all the 13 colonies that were established.

Over the period of time the colonists turned hostile to British rule. This was mainly due to the fact that Britain believed in the 'Mercantilist Policy'. According to the policy, Colonies existed only for the benefit of the 'mother country'. As a result rules were framed and taxes imposed which were against the interest of the colonies.

As grievances of the colonies grew, Britain did not to change. As a result one event led to another, and in 1776 the war for Independent started.

The war dragged on for 7 years, till help from the other European powers helped in bringing to an end in 1781. By the treaty of Paris' 1783 America was at last recognised as an Independent nation with the right to choose her own destiny.

America established a democracy which was a concept that was to extend not only to Europe but to the rest of the world.

To conclude, it can be said that the Industrial Revolution is one without an end. It has gone side by side with science and technology. While technology is used in industrial development, incentives given by industry have helped in scientific research.

- In this lesson, we have studied the meaning of the Industrial Revolution which was the application of machine power to production.
- We have also seen the features of the Industrial Revolution which make it a unique event in the history of mankind.
- We have also examined critically why the Revolution Started in England and not in any other country.
- We have briefly gone through the course of the revolution and changes that were brought in the different fields of man's life .
- Lastly we have seen the impact of the Industrial revolution on humankind.

4.17 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Give the chief events leading to the revolt of England's colonies in America?
2. Summarize the effects of the American War of Independence?

3. Describe England's navigation and trade laws?
4. Discuss the conditions in the 'Old Regime' that brought about the French Revolution.
5. What were the causes, and consequences of the French Revolution?
6. Form an estimate of Napoleon Bonaparte?
7. What do you understand by the 'Industrial Revolution'? What were the features of this Revolution that made it different from other Revolutions?
8. Why did the Industrial Revolution Start in England? What were the effects of it?
9. Briefly review the course of the Industrial Revolution?

MODULE III

5

FORMATION OF NATION-STATES IN EUROPE

Unit Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Concept of state, nation and nation- state
- 5.3 Factors responsible for formation of nation – state in Europe
 - i) Growth of strong monarchy
 - ii) The emergence of merchant class
 - iii) The result of Reformation
 - iv) Emergence of towns and city – states
 - v) Centralised authority of monarchs
 - vi) The Peace of Westphalia (1648)
 - vii) The French revolution of 1789 and the role of Napoleon
 - viii) Role of philosophers
 - ix) The Eastern Question
- 5.4 Growth of the modern nation – states
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 Questions
- 5.7 Additional Reading

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After the completion of this unit the student will be able to

1. Understand the meaning of the concepts of state, nation and nation – state.
2. Explain the factors responsible for the formation of nation- state in Europe.
3. Perceive the historical background of the evolution of nation- states
4. Analyse the characteristics of nation- states

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The word 'Nation' is derived from the Latin word 'natio' which denotes 'birth'. This meaning represents racial character to the word nation. The

more preferred definition is given by scholars like Burgess. He defines nation, as a population of an ethnic unity inhabiting in a territory of geographic 'unity'. Nationalism is a consciousness of belonging together in a group which possess some common characteristics. It is a psychological concept, a state of mind difficult to define. Nationalism can also be defined as 'a force binding together a community in a defined territory for the maintenance of rights against tyrannical power of the state and also repulse any attempt of outside aggressor to subjugate the state'. In European context the period between renaissance and industrial revolution is known as the early modern period. This period witnessed the scientific and rational thinking, the emergence of nation-state and growth of trade and commerce to a great extent.

5.2 CONCEPT OF STATE, NATION AND NATION-STATE

A State is a government administered, Politically, organised territory and is recognised by the international community. Its Characteristics include:

- i) A permanent population
- ii) An organised economy
- iii) A viable infrastructure to coordinate with various organs

A State can be internally divided in different independent political units. The term State and country can be used interchangeably.

A nation is a feeling of oneness among the group of population in a pluralistic society having multicultural attributes.

A nation-state is a recognised country having sovereignty and is inhabited by a population who are united and are indivisible in spite of pluralistic in nature such as Portugal, Denmark, Poland etc.

The existence of state is a natural and derived from basic human instincts and impulses and evolved further in gradual manner. According to Aristotle, who is considered to be the father of political science, man is by nature a social and political animal. The very growth of villages, city or city – state are the best example of organisation and obedience to authority.

According to Dr. Eddy Asirvatham the establishment of city -state is a work of nature and is as natural to man as the air, which he breathes. He believed that a state can reappeared even if it was destroyed. We did not choose a state and can't dissociate from it as we are born in to the state.

According to Aristotle, the state is outcome of basic needs of life and its purpose is the continuous improvement in the standard of living i.e. quality of life. This is achieved through social co-operation and untiring endeavour throughout the life which is a unique characteristic of a state.

We use the term state in context of federating unit such as state of Maharashtra, West Bengal, Punjab in India or the state of Prussia in Germany or the state of New York in the United States of America, is technically wrong but it has been in practice which is acceptable.

Aristotle has defined the state as "A union of families and villages, having for its end, a perfect and self-sufficing life, by which, we mean a happy and honourable life". But this definition refers to an ancient Greek city – state and not to modern nation-state

The beginning of the modern nation state is traced in western Europe which over the period of time spread in other parts of Europe and subsequently the major parts of the world. The nation-state word is comprised of two words 'Nation' and 'State'. The word nation corresponds to feeling of oneness among a group of people based on common elements. It may be idealistic in nature without any geographical or political territory. A 'state' always has four essential characteristics – (i) Population (ii) Geographical Territory (iii) Government (iv) Sovereignty

A nation-state is always based on nationalism and it includes all the characteristics of state as well.

Check Your Progress:

1. Explain the concepts of state, nation and nation -state.

5.3 FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR FORMATION OF NATION- STATE IN EUROPE

Prior to 16th Century the people in Europe were confined to their respective villages and the local element in their identity was very close to them. The rulers also had a very vague control leading to a strong feudalistic society, making feudal lords enjoyed a great deal of power. The period between 16th and 18th century was marked by the rise of 'Nationalism'. The feeling of oneness was influenced by the factors such as shared race, objectives, religion, culture, territory, past, origin etc. The main spirit of feeling of oneness was to protect their rights and freedom against tyrannical power or to get freedom from foreign power. The idea of nationalism led to the principle of National Self- Determination. Various nation-states came in to being at different intervals and in due course of time there were rivalries among them for supremacy.

The major factors responsible for the formation of nation-states:

i) Growth of strong monarchy:

With the beginning of modern era there was rise and growth of strong monarchies in the different countries of Europe. The monarchs weakened the feudal lords and their administrative structures. They provided stability, peace and economic progress to the emerging commercial classes. The new class of merchants preferred monarchs over feudal lords. This process was full of coercion and conciliation. The monarchs appealed to their subjects to be and feel loyal towards their states and it resulted in the establishment of various integrated nation-states in Europe. The consolidation of monarchy in Russia under Ivan IV, popularly known as 'Ivan the Terrible' who was crowned as the first Czar of Russia in 1547 is the best example of strengthening of monarchy through a blend of diplomacy and war which resulted in death of thousands of people, found to be ascendancy of the first Czar.

ii) The emergence of merchant class:

The decline of feudalism in Europe the rising merchant class had a strong sense of security under centralised national power. The periods since renaissance brought about the commercial revolution through maritime trade between the Europeans and the Eastern countries as well as the Americans. The material progress attracted various strategies for the development of capitalism in Europe. It was either through military plunder, as in the cases of Mexico, Peru and East- Indies or by force and unequal trade and by the imposition of taxes and tributes.

iii) The result of Reformation:

In the beginning of the sixteen century the Pope enjoyed greater importance and authority in the church. He had declared himself as an Italian Prince, but over a period of time the church authorities were involved in moral decline and controversies. The catholic church was not only a religious body but also a political power. Later the monarchs strengthened their power and were aspiring to be absolute monarchs. The reformation led to the declining of Papal authority and strengthened the forces of nationalism and monarchy. The establishment of national churches in Germany and England reflected the spirit of nationalism, The reformation was instrumental in growth of modern nation-state. Monarchs in U.K, Spain and France regarded Pope as foreigner and opposed his authority. The monarchs became powerful autocrats and wealthy.

iv) Emergence of towns and city – states:

The decline of feudalism resulted in to the more powerful towns which were the centre of attraction for the serfs. They found it as a place where they could become free men after a time. These towns were politically more powerful and wealthier as a compared to feudal territories. The citizens of the cities and towns were ready to pay higher taxes in exchange of protection of their life and properties. The merchants preferred a

powerful monarch over the petty fiefdoms to whom they had to pay the tolls and fees for the safe passage from respective territories of feudal lords. The monarchs collected revenue from the citizens and consolidated their power by controlling more land under their control.

v) Centralised authority of monarchs:

Centralisation of power and policy decisions were instrumental in the development of nation-states. The central authorities' laws and practices were obligatory for the entire nation. It facilitated a well-coordinated economic environment and merchants could travel across the state without any restriction and disparity in toll taxes. The rulers had well trained, strong military providing better security and stability to the citizens and merchant class. It led to the emergence of powerful nation-state in Europe.

vi) The Peace of Westphalia (1648):

The war between the Catholic states and the Protestant states of central Europe lasted for thirty years (1618-48). It involved many nations of Europe, many small German states, the Austrian Empire, Sweden, France and Spain. The Westphalia area of the north western Germany gave its name to the treaty which was signed on 24th October, 1648. The protestant could not be defeated by the Catholics in the war. The treaty established the authority of sovereign ruler of a state over all elements of nation and the state, including the religion. The treaty was originator of the idea of sovereign state giving rise to several nation state.

vii) The French revolution of 1789 and the role of Napoleon:

The end of French revolution led to the removal of discriminatory old laws and establishment of truly national law codes, under Napoleon Bonaparte. He established the national military which intervened and dominated the feudal neighbours in Italy and Germany. The united efforts of the people resembling the character of a nation to defeat Napoleon was a turning point in the European history. The French revolution established the principles of nationalism and liberalism. The people got aware with their natural rights and the right to govern themselves. They were convinced to overthrow any foreign domination. The Vienna Congress under the influence of Russia and Austria tried to suppress the idea of liberty and nationalism but it was futile attempt.

viii) Role of philosophers:

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679), a great English Political Philosopher in his work 'Leviathan' (1651) stated that a ruler should not be under any superior authority (God) because he was absolute ruler in his domain. The Walter Berns, a political theorist argued on the basis of Hobbes statement that anti-religious government could be established, as ruler was sovereign without any higher appeal against his authority. In the modern times sovereignty as a central concept is rested in the legislature, as in the United Kingdom or in the people as in the United States of America.

ix) The Eastern Question:

The decline of Ottoman (Turkish) empire in the nineteenth century and at the beginning of twentieth century gave rise to a very complex problem in the European region popularly known as Eastern Question. The vacuum created by the decay of Ottoman Empire in the Balkan peninsula, as Ottoman Turks existed there from the middle of fifteenth century. They had their ruling over the Balkan peninsula, Asia Minor, Syria, Mesopotamia, Arabia, Egypt and the north coast of Africa. Then central authority of sultan started declining during the eighteenth century resulted in to the control of distant regions was very minimal and the provinces in Balkan peninsula and Africa remained only nominally subject to the Sultan. The Turks were ruling the Balkan peninsula which included the Serbs, Greeks, Bulgars and Roumans for nearly five centuries purely on military might, never absorbed them as Turkish. Balkan people survived the oppression by the Ottoman Turks but it was the nineteenth century when they re-emerged and re-established independent kingdoms in succession until the first quarter of twentieth century.

Check Your Progress:

2. Describe the factors leading to emergence of nation -states in Europe.

5.4 GROWTH OF THE MODERN NATION-STATES

The modern nation-state is a long drawn historical process of more than thousand years. The state was the product of the interplay of several factors such as kinship, religion, property, war, scientific advancement, technical development, political consciousness and cultural development over a period of time. The state of savagery culminated in to the institution of family which brought sense of attachment, security and interdependence of the members in a family. The institution of family gave rise to a larger social organisation reflecting the interdependence of individuals and groups at larger scale. There was the emergence of customs and authority to regulate the social life. The advancement and expansion of the social life led to the evolution of the state. The forms of the state in the course of historical evolution have been identified namely, the tribal state, the oriental empire, the Greek city state, the Roman world empire, the feudal state and the modern nation state.

The end of feudal system, the decline in the authority of the church, the spirit of reasoning, logic, freedom, equality, liberty and individualism warranted a new political set up, resulting in to the formation of modern nation-state. The nationalistic feelings led to the emergence of France, Spain, England, Switzerland, the Netherland, Russia, Germany and Italy

as the nation-states. There was a gradual transition from absolute monarchy to constitutional monarchy and democracy in large parts of Europe since the eighteenth century.

The nineteenth century Europe reflected a very strange paradox: a nation-state with liberty, equality and rule of law at home and imperialistic exploitation in their respective colonies. Political consciousness and national movements emerging in the colonies under the European power gained momentum after the first World War (1914-1918) and by the end of the second World War (1939-1945), the people of Asia and Africa started the national movement to get rid of colonial powers leading to emergence of new nation-states such as India, Pakistan, Burma, Egypt, Nigeria, Algeria, Ghana, Fiji, Vietnam, Indonesia, Libya, Syria, Zimbabwe and Namibia. The new nations along with Latin American countries are known as 'Third World' or the developing nations.

The international organisation and agencies such as United Nations, International court of justice, International Labour Organisation, International Monetary Fund, World Bank and International laws evolved to address global problems and facilitating equitable resource mobilisation and secure the human values, freedom equality etc. without any prejudice.

Check Your Progress:

3. Appreciate the growth of nation- states in modern times.

5.5 SUMMARY

The establishment of nation-state was influenced by various factors ranging from renaissance, reformation, counter-reformation, weakening of papal authority, emergence of town and city-states, spirit of liberty, equality and sovereignty.

The concept of nation-state emerged from the eighteenth century onwards and the period between the two World Wars was a turning point for the emergence of Third World countries as nation-state through a long drawn national movements.

Expansion in the number of nation-states led to the founding of international organisation and bodies including U.N.O., I.M.F., World Bank etc.

5.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

I) Fill in the blanks:

1. The treaty of Westphalia was signed in the year -----.
2. The Balkan peninsula was ruled by ----- empire.
3. In the modern nation-states -----was strengthened.
4. The decline of feudalism led to the strengthening of -----.
5. According to ----- the sovereignty of ruler was supreme.

II) Answer the following questions:

1. Describe the factors responsible for the formation of nation- state in Europe.
2. Give an account of emergence of nation – states in Europe.
3. Write a short note on the concept of nation- state.

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NATIONALIST MOVEMENT IN ITALY AND GERMANY

Unit Structure

6.0 Objectives

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Unification Of Italy

6.2.1 Background:

6.2.2 Napoleon's Contribution To The Unification:

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6.2.3.1 Joseph Mazzini:

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6.4 Unification Of Germany

6.4.1 Effects Of Napoleon's Conquest On German States:

6.4.2 The Zollverein Or Customs Union:

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6.4.4 The Rise Of Bismarck:

6.4.5 Bismarck's Policy Of Blood And Iron:

6.4.6 War With Denmark 1864:

6.4.7 Austro - Prussian War 1866:

6.4.8 The Franco Prussian War 1870-71:

6.5 Summary

6.6 Unit End Questions

6.0 OBJECTIVES

1. To analyse the national and unification movement in Italy.
2. To understand the significance of German Unification movement.
3. Understand the contribution of Napoleons towards the Unification of Italy.
4. Discuss the role of various leaders in the Unification of Italy.
5. Describe the contribution of Bismarck's towards the Unification of Germany
6. Review the importance of Denmark, Austria and Franco Prussian Wars.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The Nationalistic sentiments that gained traction in the 19th century in Europe led to the unification of Italy and Germany.

Both the states were divided into small independent city states.

The unification of Italy and Germany was differently.

The unification of Germany was relatively easier as compare to Italy. The Germans has a confederation parliament and custom union which brought some form of political and economic unity. But for the Italians there was no form of such kind of unity but were instead directly and indirectly dominated by Austria. The unification of Italy took longer period as compare to unification of Germany. Although the Mazzini, Count Cavour and Bismarck played an important roles in the unification of Italy and Germany.

6.2 UNIFICATION OF ITALY

6.2.1 Background:

Italy was known for its ancient greatness. However this was lost in the middle ages. By the 17th Century, Italy was reduced to a mere geographical expression. She became the cockpit of Europe where foreign powers contended for mastery. The country became divided into small states. Some states were just one town e.g. Florence, Venice. These towns controlled trade and commerce and this led to rivalries. Another problem in the unification was the temporal power of the Pope. He had religious and political power over Rome and neighbouring areas. Popes discouraged unity, so as to maintain their control over the Papal state. Foreign nations like Austria and France had virtual control over some Italian states through their own princes acting as kings of those states. There were some Italian patriots, but either they were not united or they were weak, to bring out the unification process.

6.2.2 Napoleon's Contribution to the Unification:

A new epoch began, when Napoleon Bonaparte conquered the kingdoms of Austrian and French princes. He even annexed the Papal State. He brought together the city states. Napoleon gave Italy a uniform system of administration. The Italians learnt the French ideas of Liberty, Equality and Fraternity. They were introduced to concepts like self-government and freedom of press. This intensified their sense of patriotism.

After Napoleon's defeat, the Congress of Vienna was called in 1815, to rearrange the map of Europe. The national sentiments of Italians were ignored and 'status quo' was maintained. Italy was once again divided as

she was before the annexation of Napoleon. Austrian and French kings came back to Italian states. The patriots exclaimed “We have no flag, no political name, no rank among European nations. We have no common centre, no common market, we are dismembered” The division of Italy was

- 1) Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, under French prince.
- 2) Lombardy and Venetia, which were parts of Austria.
- 3) Parma, Tuscany, Madena, under relatives of Austrian King.
- 4) Papal state under Pope.
- 5) Piedmont, Sardinia and Savoy, under Italian dynasty called House of Savoy.

6.2.3 Leaders of the Unification Movement:

The patriots of Italy formed secret societies, to revolt against despotic kings. Their aim was unity. The most well-known of these was the Carbonari or charcoal burners. Its origin was in Naples. All discontented elements joined, it. They wanted to expel foreigners from Italian soil.

The Carbonari led a revolt in Naples in 1820 against the king Ferdinand I. People asked for a liberal constitution. The king agreed, but secretly asked help from Austria. The Austrian army came and suppressed the revolt.

While one revolt was put down, another lit in Piedmont. The king abdicated the throne in favour of his brother Charles Albert. Again Austria intervened and put down the revolt.

The French revolution of 1830 affected Italian states. There were revolts in Modena, Papal state and Parma, but Austria suppressed all the uprisings. This taught the patriots a lesson - that the common enemy in all states was Austria. It was therefore necessary to get rid of Austria.

6.2.3.1 Joseph Mazzini:

He was born in 1805 in Genoa. His father was a professor at the University of Genoa. In his young days Mazzini had joined the Carbonari. He actively participated in the revolt of 1830, for which he was exiled. After his release in 1831, he founded a Society called “Young Italy”. His aim was to mobilise the youth to the national movement. He had immense faith in youth power. He told the young men to speak to artisans, labour, workers and farmers, and make them aware of their rights. He wanted to make Italy a nation. He lost faith in Carbonari way of action, which led to weak revolts. He aimed at a strong national action. His pioneer propaganda broadened the political horizon of the Italians.

The other schools of thought were - Federalists who believed that Pope should take the leadership and establish an Italian confederation and

secondly the Royalists who believed in the leadership of House of Savoy because it was Italian dynasty and the king Was liberal.

Impact of the revolution of 1848:

By the year 1848 the **Risorgimento** movement had stabilised. It meant that all Italian classes believed in resurrection or revival of Italy's glory.

The revolution of 1848, resulted in a liberal constitution in Sicily. In Piedmont, the king granted several rights to the people. He even marched on Lombardy, and challenged the Austrians. However he was defeated in the battle of Custoza. He abdicated in favour of his son.

Italian patriots staged an uprising in Papal state. The Pope fled and a republic was proclaimed under Mazzini's leadership. But the French King sent troops to help the Pope. Mazzini's army was defeated. The Pope came back to power. Thus the revolts failed to achieve the unification.

The process failed because Austria and France were strong. It was impossible to defeat them without foreign help. Secondly, except Piedmont, all states opposed unity, because they would lose their autonomy. The patriots too were disunited. They lost hope in Mazzini's method. This was the condition when Count Cavour entered the next phase of the unification movement.

6.2.3.2 Count Cavour:

Count Cavour was the chief architect of Italian unification. He was born in 1810 in a noble family of Piedmont. He was student of modern parliamentary government. He believed that westernisation was needed for progress. He was a practical man and studied the Italian question, its problems and possible remedies.

He served Piedmont as a member of the parliament and rose to the position of Prime Minister. He brought liberal reforms. He developed transport and communication. He lowered tariffs and taxes. He developed mining, agriculture and industry. He linked Piedmont to Western Europe through commercial treaties.

Thus Piedmont emerged as a model state. People agreed that she should lead the unification movement. Piedmont was the only state which had a strong army, to accept the challenge of enemy nations. Cleverly, Cavour grasped the condition of his success - isolation of Austria. Piedmont needed strong allies, to match Austria. He decided to seek alliance with France. The French King Napoleon III had been a Carbonari earlier and was supposed to be sympathetic toward Italian states. He took a diplomatic step in 1855 by joining the Crimean war at the side of England and France. He had no enmity with the other belligerent - Russia, but he wanted to take some interest in international politics. When Italian troops

complained about the war, he said “out of this mud of Crimea, a new Italy will be made”.

After the war, Cavour was called to the Paris Peace Conference. He went there and put forward the problems of Italian states. Napoleon III agreed to help Italy. He met Cavour and discussed the details. He promised to help Piedmont to drive Austria from Lombardy and Venetia. In return France would get Savoy and Nice. France would continue to hold Naples. At this juncture Austria declared war on Sardinia - Piedmont.

To antagonise Austria, Cavour deployed troops along the border of Lombardy. Austria asked Piedmont to retreat but Cavour refused. Austria therefore declared war. According to the agreement Napoleon III personally, commanded French army to the war to help Cavour. Lombardy was occupied by Sardinia. When it appeared that Austria would lose Venetia, Napoleon III halted suddenly and retreated. He signed treaty of Villafranca with Austria.

Cavour was disappointed and resigned. By now Italians took destiny into their hands. They rejected the rulers of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. In this task they got moral support from England. The British Prime Minister said that the people had the right to change their kings. People from the three kingdoms wished to join Piedmont. This was an important step. Sardinia - Piedmont became a large state.

6.2.3.3 Garibaldi:

Giuseppe Garibaldi was born in Nice in 1807. He was a true supporter of Mazzini and became a member of Young Italy. He participated in a revolt against Piedmont and ran away to America. There he organised a movement of his followers called **Red Shirts**. He came back and helped Mazzini, to abolish the authority of the Pope. French forces came to Pope's rescue. Garibaldi lost the battle and fled again to America. He returned to Italy and spent a farmer's life in a small island. In 1854 Cavour called him and sought his help to complete the unification under the leadership of Victor Emmanuel, the king of Piedmont. Although Garibaldi supported republicanism, he accepted Emmanuel's leadership, for the sake of his country's unification. He brought his followers to fight the war against Austria in 1859.

In 1860 the patriots of Sicily rebelled against the French king Francis I. They requested for Garibaldi's help. He immediately sailed to the shores of Marsala with thousand followers. He defeated the king and occupied the whole of Sicily, in the name of Victor Emmanuel.

Encouraged by the victory, he entered the main land of Italy, and reached Naples. The king had fled. Without giving a fight, Garibaldi, captured Naples in 1860. He then began to prepare for a march on Rome. To Cavour, the situation seemed full of danger. Rome was under the Pope. It

was occupied by a French garrison. Napoleon III was a Catholic and did not want the Pope to be disturbed. Cavour understood that an attack on Rome would mean a war with France. Cavour decided to check Garibaldi's advance. He wanted to keep Garibaldi away. He assured to Napoleon III that Rome would not be attacked, but other areas of Papal state would be captured by Victor. He marched on the Papal areas and captured those. People accepted him as their king. Garibaldi saluted the king, gave him all the areas under him and retired to his home town. He refused the gifts, Victor offered him. He took only a bag of potato seeds with him.

6.2.3.4 Victor Emmanuel completes the unification:

Victor Emmanuel was the son of Charles Albert the king of Sardinia - Piedmont. He was fortunate to get the services of Count Cavour. He gave full authority to Cavour to direct the course of the unification.

By 1861, all areas except Venetia and Rome were out of the unification. Venetia was held by Austria and Rome by the Pope, with the help of French army, Cavour thought that without Rome, there was no Italy. Over work and extra stress brought his death in 1861. Victor decided to wait for an opportunity to conquer the two areas.

In 1866, a war broke out between Austria and Prussia. Victor made an alliance with Prussia that Italy would fight against Austria and in return Prussia would help Victor to capture Venetia. Prussia won the war and compelled Austria to surrender Venetia to Italy.

Rome alone was out of Italy. In 1870 a war broke between France and Prussia. Napoleon III was compelled to withdraw French troops, from Rome, to be sent for the war. Victor seized the opportunity. Italian troops marched on Rome in September 1870. Pope retreated into the Vatican. The citizens of, Rome voted for joining the unification. Rome was declared the capital of the new and United Italy. Victor Emmanuel was accepted as the king.

Thus the unification of Italy was complete. It was due to long efforts of Italian patriots.

Check Your Progress:

1. Discuss the role of Mazzini, Cavour and Garibaldi in the unification of Italy.

6.3 UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

Germany was in a bad shape at the time of French Revolution of 1789. She was divided into almost 300 petty states, each under a despot. Most of the kings were controlled by Austria. Nominally the kings were under the Holy Roman emperor. Austrian Prime Minister, Metternich ruthlessly crushed all attempts at liberalism and reform. Besides Austria, England and Denmark had some influence on German states.

The Diet was a body which had representatives from all states. The Diet never worked for the interests of the masses. The rulers preferred to maintain status-quo. They did not bother about the unification. The German patriots tried for the unity, but in vain. Prussia was the strongest of the states and patriots hoped that she would take the reins of unification movement.

6.3.1 Effects of Napoleon's Conquest on German States:

Napoleon was the creator of modern Germany. He conquered most of the German states. He reorganised the states by abolishing petty principalities and free cities. German states had a common language and culture. Napoleon's administrative unity encouraged the forces of nationalism and unity. He abolished feudalism and serfdom and taught the Germans equality before law.

However, Napoleon's defeat crushed all hopes of patriots. The Peace Settlement at Vienna made Germany a loose confederation of 39 states, with the Diet. It was presided over by Austria. All the 39 rulers reintroduced despotism. For a generation, the states remained stagnant. Sacrifices made by patriots were forgotten. The reasons were Lack of Unity among nationalists and superiority of Austria.

A characteristic feature of German history is the influence of scholars and the learned. The University of Jena served as the centre of radical thought. Austria complained that the university encouraged revolutionary tendencies. In spite of it, students formed secret societies. To put down the youth, Austria passed the Carlsbad Decrees in 1819. Committees were appointed to supervise student and teacher activities. The press was censored. Suspicious persons were taken into custody.

6.3.2 The Zollverein or Customs Union:

Different German states had different regulations for trade. Tax posts were set up at borders and interstate trade was taxable. This arrangement was detrimental to trade. Prussia gave the lead in bringing economic unification of German states. She announced the Zollverein or 12 states. Free trade was established within the 12 states. All internal customs were abolished. On the other hand, those states which did not join the Zollverein had to pay, transport duties on goods passing through the

customs union. This policy was fatal to small nations. Therefore, finally, all states joined the union. Austria was also invited, but she did not join the Zollverein. Thus Prussia became the commercial leader. This is supposed to be the first step towards unification.

6.3.3 The Revolutions of 1830 and 1848:

Encouraged by the French revolutionaries, German patriots raised revolts against their Kings in July 1830. Most of the rulers were forced to accept liberal reforms. The Prussian monarch did not give constitutional reforms. He put down the rebellion. Later, Metternich crushed all revolts in German states. He reintroduced despotism in Germany.

It was a period when people organised a two-fold agitation one for Unification and others for Liberalism. In 1847 a meeting of various intellectuals and radicals was held. It was decided to unite and oppose despotism. In Berlin the people selected their representatives and formed a Frankfurt Parliament, to discuss about the future government.

Meanwhile the 1848 revolution began in European states. In Austria, people overthrew Metternich. There were revolts in German states also. The Prussian king Frederick William IV was forced to adopt liberal reforms. He also promised to become the leader of the unification movement.

However, the king did not keep his promise. Soon he resorted back to his autocratic rule. He revived all rules and restrictions. A ban on freedom of press was imposed. People were not allowed to meet and hold discussions. Feudal Laws were restored. It was one of the most shameful periods in the history of Prussia. Yet, there was economic and intellectual progress. Prussia was linked to foreign countries for trade purposes. These developments brought in prosperity. It gave rise to a new capitalist class, which wanted to widen markets. This could be done by a strong and stable government. This new economic class was ready to strengthen the ruling class. Side by side there was a great intellectual awakening, which aroused a wave of nationalism and patriotism. People realised that a strong army was needed to humiliate Austria. In this task the king got help from Otto Van Bismarck, the foremost leader of the unification.

6.3.4 The Rise of Bismarck:

He was born in 1815 in a noble family of Prussia. After education he joined the civil service, but was dismissed due to lack of discipline. He had no sympathy for liberals and supported monarchy. Due to this support the king took him into diplomatic service. First he served in the Diet. There he studied the administration of Austria. Later he became Prussian ambassador to Russia and France. He was able to assess the weaknesses and strengths of both countries. He made use of this knowledge in his later career.

A majority of the members of the Parliament were Liberals. They opposed the king, when he tried to increase his military strength. Bismarck supported the king and assured him that he would put the king's plan into action. The king gave Bismarck all reins of the unification.

6.3.5 Bismarck's Policy of Blood and Iron:

Bismarck had two aims. 1) Prussia should assume the leadership of German unification. 2) Prussia should not merge her identity into Germany. Instead she should conquer Germany and propagate Prussian culture and civilisation. He knew that his aims could not be achieved by peaceful means. Therefore he initiated the policy of blood and iron. The policy demanded that first Prussia should build a strong army. Secondly all danger of foreign intervention in the German question should be eliminated. He did not want France, England or Russia to help Austria. His aim was to isolate Austria. For this purpose he played his cards tactfully. He offered Prussian help to Russia in 1863 at the Polish revolt and earned the Czar's gratitude and assurance of neutrality in case of a conflict between Austria and Prussia, in future.

He then built up the army, ignoring the opposition. He set about to achieve the aim i.e. Unification. It could not be achieved without the elimination of Austria. But before challenging Austria he fought a war with Denmark.

6.3.6 War with Denmark 1864:

Bismarck fought a war with Denmark for two reasons. He wanted to put Prussian military to test. Secondly, he wanted to find an opportunity to wage war against Austria, in the Dutchies of Schleswig and Holstein.

Both Dutchies were German, but were governed by the ruler of Denmark. People of Holstein were German, but in Schleswig there were many Danes. According to the treaty signed in 1852, the Dutchies could not be annexed by Denmark. In spite of it, the Danish king declared the annexation of Schleswig. At the same time Austria took Holstein. Bismarck declared war on Denmark. The Danes were defeated. Prussia captured Schleswig. In a diplomatic manner, Bismarck came in contact with Austria because of her presence in Holstein. Next Bismarck prepared himself and his army for the war with Austria.

6.3.7 Austro - Prussian War 1866:

Causes:

1. The Zollverein proved beneficial. Austria wanted to join it, but Bismarck refused to let Austria in it.
2. The ruler of a German state Hessen gave a new Constitution, but people opposed because it was not liberal. Austria supported the people, while Bismarck sided with the ruler of Hessen.

3. Diplomacy of Bismarck brought the war. He wanted to isolate Austria and, built an opposition against it. England favoured Prussia's free trade and hated Austria's reactionary policies. Bismarck secured the Czar's admiration by helping him in Polish revolt. The Czar was already angry on Austria, because she did not help the Czar during the Crimean war. Napoleon III the king of France wanted a war between Austria and Prussia, so that both countries would become weak and he would get a chance to extend his empire. Bismarck secured his neutrality. Then he made an agreement with Italy and promised to help Italians capture Venetia in return of military aid to Prussia. Thus Bismarck diplomatically isolated Austria.
4. The immediate cause of the war was provided by the duchy of Holstein which was under Austria. Bismarck alleged that Austria did not administer the area properly. The Germans there had to be protected and so Bismarck declared war on Austria.

The war lasted for seven weeks. Some duchies helped Austria, but no European state came to her help. The Prussian army which was reorganised, was commanded by Von Molten. Italian participation divided Austria's forces into two. Within first three days Prussia defeated the duchies, and annexed North Germany. Molten then moved further. The main battle was fought at Sedona on July 3, 1866. Bismarck and the Prussian king watched it from a hill top. Austria fought bravely, but finally lost the battle. She lost almost 40,000 soldiers in the campaign. In France, Napoleon III was criticised for not helping Austria. A strong Prussia was created after the war.

The Treaty of Prague:

It was the master diplomacy of Bismarck. He kept the terms not harsh, or else France was likely to intervene. The terms of the treaty were -

1. Confederation of German states was abolished; thereby ending Austria's influence in Germany.
2. Austria had to pay war indemnity.
3. Austria had to give Venetia to Italy and Holstein to Prussia.
4. Prussia annexed German duchies which helped Austria and combined them into a union.
5. Other states were kept independent.

As a result of the treaty the North German Confederation was created. Prussian king became its President. Thus half of the unification process was done. The war was highly beneficial to Prussia. Her international prestige increased. Her military power was acknowledged in Europe.

6.3.8 The Franco Prussian War 1870-71:

A war with France was necessary for the unification. The causes of the war are as follows —

1. 16 German states were out of the unification. They had to be persuaded or conquered. In either effort, there was danger of French intervention. Bismarck's diplomacy worked once again. He got English neutrality by creating bitterness between England and France. Bismarck persuaded Russia and Italy to remain neutral. Austria had become weak and would not help France. These developments angered Napoleon III.
2. Napoleon III had failed in his Mexico campaign of 1864. He had lost his prestige and wanted to revive it by a war against Prussia. He was frustrated after the Austria Prussia battle, because Prussia had become strong, against his expectations. This created enmity between the two countries.
3. Napoleon III was ambitious. Bismarck had promised him some territory during Austro Prussian war. But he did not keep his word. The French decided to settle the dispute by a war.
4. The immediate cause was given by Spain. Both countries interfered in the Spanish succession issue. In both countries there was public hatred against each other. Finally war was declared in July 1870.

During the war the 16 states helped Prussia. The army invaded France. Prussia won many battles and captured large areas in France. The main battle at Sedan was led by Napoleon III. He was defeated and forced to surrender. The people in Paris continued to fight for 4 months. Then they surrendered to Prussia. The treaty of Frankfurt was signed according to which France had to surrender the rich provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. France agreed to pay a huge war indemnity. A part of German army had to occupy France till the money was paid. France was declared a republic.

The Southern States joined Prussia during the war. A compromise was made and the states agreed to join the union. Before the end of the Franco - Prussian war the task of German unification was completed on January 18, 1871. A German empire came into being. The King of Prussia was declared the king of Germany. The federal government was announced. Berlin was made the capital. It was the clever and ruthless diplomacy of Bismarck which brought about the unification of Germany.

Check Your Progress:

2. Describe the Austro Prussian war of 1866 and The Franco Prussian war of 1870 -71.

6.4 SUMMARY

In the above pages, we have examined the evolution of democracy in England. The British first realised the significance of democracy. It was a process which lasted for centuries. Today England boasts of its democracy. Later many countries followed its example and adopted democratic constitutions.

We have also taken an account of the unification of Italy. The efforts of Italians patriots were successful, when the numerous Italian states were brought together under one Italian flag.

Bismarck was the main force of German unification. He followed a ruthless policy to achieve the task. With sheer diplomacy he made things easier. His country Prussia spread its culture in the new Germany. In a way Germany was prussianised. In all the above mentioned countries the tasks were lengthy and difficult. However the efforts of people made those possible.

6.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. What were the various stages in the unification of Italy?
2. Discuss the contribution of the four major leaders of the unification process in Italy.
3. How did Bismarck achieve German unification?
4. Write short notes on:
 - a) Magna Charta
 - b) Oliver Cromwell
 - c) Zollverein
5. Trace the rise and growth of democracy in Britain
6. Discuss the various Acts passed in evolution of Parliamentary democracy in Britain.
7. Assess the role of Glorious Revolution in the development of Parliamentary democracy in Britain.

MODULE III

7

IMPERIALIST EXPANSION IN ASIA

Unit Structure

- 7.0 Objectives
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Meaning and Nature
- 7.3 Causes for Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism
 - 7.3.1 Economic Causes
 - 7.3.2 Political Causes
 - 7.3.3 Religious Causes
- 7.4 New Imperialism
 - 7.4.1 Conquest and Colony
 - 7.4.2 Concession and Franchise
 - 7.4.3 Lease-Hold:
 - 7.4.4 Sphere of Influence and Sphere Of Interest
 - 7.4.5 Protectorate:
 - 7.4.6 Financial or Tariff Control
 - 7.4.7 Extra-Territoriality
 - 7.4.8 Mandate System:
- 7.5 Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism in Asia
- 7.6 Impact of Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism
- 7.7 Summary
- 7.8 Unit End Questions

7.0 OBJECTIVES

After the study of this module student will be able to

1. Understand the meaning and nature of the Imperialist expansion or Imperialism in the modern world.
2. Explain causes / factors that led to nations following this policy.
3. Describe the different forms of Imperialist expansion.
4. Tell the Imperialist expansion in Africa / Partitioning of the Dark Continent.
5. Understand the Imperialist expansion in Asia.
6. Assess the Imperialist expansion in the Far East.
7. State the Impact / Effects of Imperialist expansion.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Imperialist expansion or Imperialism was a policy followed by European nations in the late 19th century and early 20th century. It involved conquest of underdeveloped countries and the use of their natural resources.

Modern Imperialism or Imperialist expansion made a sudden reappearance and was one of the most important policies of the Great Powers. Surprisingly till 1870 public opinion in most European countries was against colonies. Adam Smith had stated that the benefits of Imperialistic were far less than its burdens. Disraeli of Great Britain had described colonies as “millstones around our necks”. The sudden change of opinion was brought about by both economic and political considerations. The search for raw materials and new markets to sell manufactured goods was as important as the need to find new outlets for the excess capital. It was a matter of pride for a country to have colonies and ambitious politicians were determined to conquer as much land as possible. In their efforts to spread Christianity, the missionaries supported the Imperialist policies of their countries.

What was strikingly new of this movement was its intense concentration in AFRICA and ASIA. The white man seized every opportunity to conquer and colonise or to at least extend “spheres of interest / influence” over these two continents. It seemed like the history of Europe was lived in Asia and Africa.

The imperialist policy normally involved the use of force against its victims and hence this ruthless policy of European expansion has been condemned by many.

The results of this policy were varied. The economic and social effects had both positive and negative aspects. Though industrialisation was introduced, economic exploitation continued. Western education helped many and it led to the socio-religious reform movement. Finally all the colonised countries in Asia and Africa fought for and won their freedom.

7.2 MEANING AND NATURE

Imperialist expansion and Imperialism can best be described as the policy of the developed nations of the world to rule over and control the underdeveloped nations of the world. An imperialist nation used military force to establish her control over the new territory and maintained it by use of force. The purpose of this political control was economic concessions.

Science and Industry had undergone amazing development after 1750. The progressive application of science to industry in the development of manufacturing methods and new modes of transport and communication

changed the world. The steamship, telegraph shortened space—resulting in trade and commerce expanding to every corner of the world. The more industrialised the European nations became, the more dependent they were on other countries for raw materials. So there came the necessity of controlling those regions which produced the raw materials. Unfortunately, the people of the underdeveloped nations could not oppose the Europeans and they collapsed before European military power.

The nature of European politics during this period was one of intense patriotism and national pride. It became a status symbol to have colonies. The rivalries between European nations led to wars being fought in other continents. There was no international organization, which could exercise any kind of control over the European Powers who were scrambling for territory.

It was this combination of new economic conditions with anarchic political relations, which explains the nature of imperialist expansion or new imperialism.

P.T. Moon in his book “Imperialism and World Politics”, explained that western imperialism followed a set pattern. First the European missionary went in search of souls. He was followed by a merchant who went in search of trade. He was followed by a soldier who conquered the land and established a colony.

7.3 CAUSES FOR IMPERIALIST EXPANSION OR IMPERIALISM

The extension of European control over the rest of the world was one of the chief features of the late 19th century. The causes were varied.

7.3.1 Economic Causes:

The British economist J.A. Hobson attributed the Imperialist expansion of these years to new economic forces at work in the industrialised nations.

Need for raw materials:

The special attractions of Asia and Africa were that they offered many of the raw materials needed by the factories of Europe. Besides the traditional raw materials like cotton European industries now needed silk, rubber, vegetable oil and rare minerals like manganese, zinc etc. There was also a great demand for petroleum. Large scale production needed a steady and huge supply of these raw materials. As the standard of living improved, the Europeans imported food products like coffee, cocoa, tea and meat.

Need for markets:

The search for markets in which to sell the manufactured goods was equally important. As each European nation industrialised, they produced

a surplus. The European markets were saturated and so they all began to look for new markets abroad. Due to competition, political and economic in Europe, the industrialists found their Governments ready to undertake political conquest of underdeveloped territories. Once they established a colony, they could monopolise its markets and did not have to share the benefits with other countries.

Excess capital:

It was also in these circumstances that the urge to exploit backward territories by investing surplus capital also began. In their own countries the opportunities for capital investment were few. The vast underdeveloped areas of Africa and Asia offered the most opportunities, provided that they could be made safe enough for investment. Again governments proved responsive and provided security by taking over the lands.

David Thomson also points out, “the urge to find new outlets for the glut of capital and fresh markets for industrial output were in general more important than either the quest for raw materials or the factor of overpopulation.”

Improved means of transport and communication also contributed to imperial expansion. Land and sea transport was revolutionised with the application of the steam machine. Steam boats made bulk ocean transport possible and those ships, which had refrigerators, could also carry food articles, which the European world desired. Railways connected the interiors with the ports and raw materials could be taken to the factories faster. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 and the Panama Canal in 1914 helped to speed up trade considerably. In the 20th century this was followed by the growth of the automobile and aviation industry, which in turn encouraged imperialism.

Surplus population:

The expansion of Europe after 1815 involved the export of people also. By the early 20th century, the pressure of population on Europe’s limited resources was great. Many migrated to United States and Australasia, and some to Africa and East Asia. The migration out of Europe reached its peak in 1914.

7.3.2 Political Causes:

Ambitious Leaders: Most often it was ambitious politicians or businessmen who decided whether a nation became an imperialist nation or not. These men wanted their nations to be economically self-sufficient and powerful.

Rulers like William II of Germany and Nicholas II of Russia were keen to expand their empires. King Leopold of Belgium achieved both personal and national glory with his imperialist policy. Some like Cecil Rhodes of

Great Britain amassed personal fortune and power. In 1875, Disraeli committed his party to a policy of imperialism and purchased shares in the Suez Canal Company.

Aggressive nationalism: The spirit of national pride and prestige was another factor driving European nations. People happily bore the burden of maintaining overseas empires by paying more taxes. Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany followed an expansionist policy to promote national glory.

There was no international agency or mechanism to prevent the economically advanced and militarily powerful countries from conquering, dominating and exploiting backward regions in Asia and Africa. Imperialism took the form of 'might is right'.

Naval Bases:

In order to help maintain these empires, the ports of Africa and the Far East were valuable as naval bases. The navy required the ports for repair work, as well as to guard the sea routes. Each nation thought of its own security and grabbed strategic naval bases e.g. Cyprus.

7.3.3 Religious Causes:

Christian missionaries too played their part in the spread of Imperialism. The most famous was Dr. David Livingstone; sent to Africa by The London Missionary Society. The missionaries tried to solve the problems of poverty, illiteracy and diseases in these regions. While serving these people many were converted to Christianity. In their zeal to spread the Gospel, the missionaries supported the Imperialist policy of their countries.

Yet another element in the growth of imperialism was the ADMINISTRATOR and SOLDIER, the man with a mission, who was not a missionary but who welcomed an opportunity to bring order and efficient administration out of confusion. Without such men as Karl Peters in German East Africa, the consolidation of European control would have been impossible.

The sources and nature of imperialism were many and differed from country to country. It was not just that trade followed the flag, but the flag followed the adventurer, the Bible and the politician, along with the, banker and the businessman. The unexploited regions provided numerous advantages, which the competitive countries seized.

7.4 NEW IMPERIALISM

The forms of modern the Imperialist expansion or imperialism were numerous and the Europeans used various techniques to establish their empires.

7.4.1 Conquest and colony:

The colonizing country used the force of their military to overpower the native ruler and to annex the conquered land as the British did with India. This method proved to be expensive and burdensome.

7.4.2 Concession and Franchise:

When a powerful and ambitious agency got the exclusive right to exploit some economic resources in a “backward region”, it was known as a concession or franchise. E.g. A group of German bankers and engineers got a concession to build a railroad, later known as the Berlin-Baghdad Railway in Turkey.

7.4.3 Lease-Hold:

When an exclusive right to exploit some economic resources is accompanied with the lease of land and the actual political control over it, it is called a lease-hold. E.g. France got the lease of Kwangchow from China.

7.4.4 Sphere of Influence and Sphere of Interest:

When a country acquires an exclusive right to exploit and develop a backward region economically, and no other country has the right to establish any form of control over it, it is called a ‘sphere of influence’. E.g. Russian sphere of influence in northern Persia.

But, if a country enjoys the right only to economically exploit a backward region, without the right to political control, it is known as a sphere of interest.

7.4.5 Protectorate:

According to this method, a powerful country exercises political control over a backward region, through a native puppet ruler. The native ruler only has nominal control. E.g. Germany established a protectorate over Cameroon’s, south of the Congo.

7.4.6 Financial or Tariff Control:

Here a powerful country may take over the complete charge of the finances or the tariff system of a weak country e.g. U.S.A. took control of custom houses in Central American countries.

7.4.7 Extra-Territoriality:

This was a privilege given to the Europeans. They were subject only to Western law or Western law courts, even if they committed crimes in non-European countries.

7.4.8 Mandate System:

This form came about at the end of World War I, at the Paris Peace Conference. It was decided that all the German colonies would be given to the League of Nations, which would delegate its authority to other states as its agents or 'mandatories'. The mandatories had to submit an annual report to the League on the progress of the mandate.

Check Your Progress:

1) Describe briefly the various forms and techniques of Imperialist expansion?

7.5 IMPERIALIST EXPANSION OR IMPERIALISM IN ASIA

During the era of geographical discoveries and explorations in the early 16th century, the Europeans had already begun to conquer territory in Asia. However, during the second half of the 19th century, the Europeans in a very aggressive manner took control of practically the entire Asian continent. Rivalries in the Far East also involved U.S.A., Russia and Japan. Until 1900 gains were chiefly made in the southern Pacific. While the British moved north into Burma, and the Dutch strengthened their empire in the East Indies, new empires were built up by the French in Indochina, the Germans in New Guinea, and the Pacific Islands, the Americans in the Philippines, and the Japanese in Formosa. After that tension centred on China, where the Russians and the Japanese fought for control of Manchuria and Korea. All countries wanted economic concessions and trading privileges at the expense of China. These tensions produced the Sino-Japanese War 1895, the Russo-Japanese War 1905, the Boxer revolt 1899 and the Nationalist Revolt in China 1911.

British Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism:

India had attracted all the Europeans, the Portuguese, the Dutch, the French, and the British. Though they came to trade only at first, they soon settled down in different areas. When they finally understood how wealthy India could make them, they fought for supremacy over India. The British defeated the Portuguese at Bassein in 1739, and the Portuguese lost all hopes of creating an empire for themselves in India. Once again the British defeated the French at the BATTLE OF WANDIWASH in 1760. This shattered the French dreams of an Indian Empire.

The foundation of the British Empire in India was laid by LORD CLIVE when he won the BATTLE OF PLASSEY in 1757. The work of annexing the territory of the Native Indian Rulers was completed by LORD WARREN HASTINGS, LORD WELLESLEY, and LORD

DALHOUSIE. In 1858 after the SEPOY MUTINY political control over India passed from the East India Company to the British Crown. India formed a vital source of wealth for Britain. Safeguarding her empire in India became an important basis of British foreign policy.

In 1880's Britain added BURMA and BALUCHISTAN to her Indian Empire.

In south-east Asia, Britain got control over SINGAPORE and MALLACA, as well as a part of the island of BORNEO.

In southwest Asia, Britain acquired a series of PROTECTORATES from ADEN near the RED SEA, to KUWAIT in the PERSIAN GULF. In 1907 she got a sphere of influence in the southern half of PERSIA.

In 1842 Britain secured HONG KONG from China besides other privileges she enjoyed in the rest of China. By the 20 century, considering all this territory, it would be safe to say that Britain ruled over the largest Empire in Asia.

French Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism:

In the mid 19th century, France had acquired a part of ANAM. In 1864 France took over CAMBODIA, in 1861 KOCHIN-CHINA, in 1873 TONKIN and finally the whole of ANAM was annexed by the French. This territory was called FRENCH INDO-CHINA. In 1896, France obtained a sphere of influence over a small part of SIAM. In INDIA France continued to hold on to CHANDRANAGORE, PONDICHERRY, and KARIKAL AND MAHE. By 1899, France had secured privileges in CHINA, in the provinces of KWANGSI and HAINAN.

Check Your Progress:

2. Discuss the Imperialist expansion of England in Asia?

Dutch Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism.

The Dutch like the British had formed an East India Company and come to Asia as traders. The Empire that they established was mainly in south-east Asia. They conquered the islands of SUMATRA, JAVA and CELEBES, a part of BORNEO, and a part of GUINEA.

Portuguese Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism:

Though the Portuguese had been defeated by the British, they still retained the territories of GOA, DAMAN and DIU in India till 1961.

German Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism:

In 1880, Germany had taken the north-eastern part of GUINEA, and in 1898, leased from CHINA the KIOCHOW BAY.

Imperialism in the Far East took a different shape. The Europeans were more interested in commercial concessions and trading privileges rather than conquest. Both CHINA and JAPAN continued to remain aloof for as long as possible, but when western pressure became too much, they had to respond. However, the response of the two countries was different, with CHINA letting her be sliced up between the imperialist powers and JAPAN becoming an imperialist power herself.

China:

By the mid-19th century, China failed victim to imperialist powers, inspite of being one of the oldest civilisations of the world. Considering herself to be superior, China had very little contact with the outside world. Trade was permitted with great reluctance at one port (CANTON) only. This policy of China only made the Europeans even more eager to extract from the weak MANCHU DYNASTY concessions of port facilities and territories. The general aim was not to annexe land but to establish important centres of trade on the coastline, which would give them, access into the underdeveloped interiors of China.

Britain had been conducting trade in cotton, tea and opium. Soon the Chinese officials were addicted to opium and became more corrupt and inefficient. The Government decided to put an end to the import of opium. When opium was prohibited, it resulted in smuggling, and finally a war.

In the FIRST OPIUM WAR 1839-1842, China was defeated. THE TREATY OF NANKING was signed by which China had to open up FIVE PORTS, —SHANGHAI, CANTON, and AMOY. FOO CHOW and NINGPO, for trade. Soon FRANCE, U.S.A. and other powers succeeded the same trading privileges. In 1842, China gave EXTRA-TERRITORIAL RIGHTS to Britain, followed by other countries.

Realizing that China was weak, the Europeans demanded further concessions. When French missionaries were murdered, they seized the opportunity to declare war. THE SECOND OPIUM WAR 1854-1858, ended in the same way, with China being defeated. China was forced to sign the TREATY OF TIENTSIN and open ELEVEN PORTS for trade, legalise the opium trade, welcome Christian missionaries and representatives of foreign governments. The MANCHU DYNASTY was gradually loosing powers of administration over its own territory and the foreigners were dictation their terms. The Europeans had secured freedom

to trade, extraterritorial rights, and control over the Chinese tariff system and had reached the interior of China.

Soon China was being parcelled out between the foreigners, or as some historians put it, “China was being raped.” In 1860, RUSSIA took the port city of VLADIVOSTOK and from there exercised influence over MANCHURIA.

When Japan defeated China in the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1894-1895) she took the ISLAND OF FORMOSA.

When Japan won the RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR (1904-1905), she secured a 99 year lease of PORT ARTHUR and the LIAOTUNG PENINSULA (previously Chinese territory).

In 1898, GERMANY secured a 99 year lease over KIOCHOW and economic concessions in SHANTUNG.

FRANCE secured a lease of KWANGCHOW, and economic concessions in HAINAN, KWANGSI and YUNNAN.

BRITAIN acquired a lease of the port of WEI-HAI-WEI, and the KWOLLOON PENINSULA. In the YANGTZE region she had economic privileges.

JAPAN secured railway concessions in MANCHURIA.

In 1899, U.S.A. put forward the OPEN DOOR POLICY, by which China was to be kept open for commerce and trade to all foreigners on an equal basis. Thus, China was saved from total dismemberment.

Japan:

Known as the “LAND OF THE RISING SUN”, Japan had followed a policy of isolation. Only once a year it traded with foreigners. The opening of Japan was inevitable due to her position. Damaged ships in that area needed a port for repairing their ships, or as coaling stations. In 1852 COMMODORE PERRY of the U.S.A. sailed into TOKYO to present a memorandum to the Emperor. It was the first time that the Japanese had seen steamers. Being threatened the Japanese agreed to negotiate. They opened three ports for trade, gave the U.S.A. the right of protection for shipwrecked sailors and the right of most “favoured nation.”

Not wanting to be carved up between the Europeans the Japanese realised that they had to change their attitude. It was clear to the important clans of Japan i.e. SATSUMA and CHOSHU, that they were helpless before the superior military power of the foreigners.

In 1867, the new Emperor MUTSUHITO inaugurated a new era of reforms. Japan quickly westernised and modernised itself. The Japanese

armed forces were remodelled on the German pattern; the naval forces were organised on the advice of the British. A western system of education and a system of law were also introduced. She rapidly industrialised and soon felt the same needs as the European nations. She too turned imperialistic.

Early in the 1890's, Japan began interfering in KOREAN affairs. Korea asked China for help. This resulted in the SINO-JAPANESE WAR 1894. The world was amazed when Japan defeated China. China agreed to hand over FORMOSA and to recognise Korea as an independent state. This victory gave Japan political stability and national unity.

In 1904-1905, Japan fought a war with RUSSIA. Once again Japan surprised the world by defeating Russia. The pigmy of the east had defeated the giant of the west. The U.S.A. President Theodore Roosevelt brought about peace between the two, and the TREATY OF PORTSMOUTH was signed. Accordingly, Japan received the lease of PORT ARTHUR and the LIAOTUNG PENINSULA, the southern half of the ISLAND OF SAKHALIN, and Russia promised to remain away from Korea and Manchuria.

In 1910, Japan invaded KOREA, renamed it CHOSSEN and added it to the Japanese Empire.

Most Asia nations felt that Japan success story was due to her rapid westernisation, and these encouraged nationalist movements in numerous Asian countries.

7.6 IMPACT OF IMPERIALIST EXPANSION OR IMPERIALISM

In their determination to increase their political power and to develop their economies, the European nations looked towards countries, which were weak, underdeveloped but rich in raw materials. By following an aggressive policy of imperialism, they succeeded in controlling practically the entire continents of Africa and Asia. Whether the colonies developed or were only exploited is a point that is hotly debated. There are some who believe that imperialism was a destructive force and the colonies were thoroughly exploited. On the other hand, there are those who feel that imperialism did have a positive, even though indirect effect on the colonies. They argue that in the long run, the colonies were developed industrially, and benefited from the trade being conducted.

The political and psychological effects are equally difficult to determine. Imperialism has proved to be both destructive and constructive. It destroyed the traditional institutions and attitudes, and replaced them with those of the western world.

Political Effects:

By the early 20th century, the whole of Asia and Africa had been turned into colonies of the European nations. Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, Portugal, Belgium, Holland and Japan had annexed not only millions of square miles of territory but were also ruling over and responsible for millions of people. Great Britain had the largest Imperialist Empire, and between 1871 and 1900, she had added 4.25 million square miles with 66 million people to her empire.

This rapid Imperialist expansion led to frequent IMPERIALIST CONFLICTS. There were conflicting claims over SUDAN between FRANCE and BRITAIN, over MOROCCO between FRANCE and GERMANY, over CHINA between RUSSIA and JAPAN.

The root causes of these Imperialist conflicts were political and strategic, rather than economic. Financial benefits however strong they were, such as British oil interests in Persia, were always subordinated to national prestige and political necessities. This led to the formation of military and political alliances. The sole purpose of these alliances was to protect national security and increase national power. The complicated system of alliances, some of which were secret, in turn led to World War I.

Not really thinking of the long-term effects, the imperial powers introduced western political institutions in all their colonies. Through the working of these institutions and through education, the Imperialist people were exposed to democracy, nationalism etc. which created a strong political consciousness. The desire to be free of outside control led to freedom movements being started in most of the colonised countries.

Economic Effects:

The imperialist powers ruthlessly exploited their colonies. Raw materials were bought at cheap rates and natural resources were exploited for the benefit of the mother country. Any surplus revenue was transferred home through various means and the wealth of the countries was drained off.

The Asian markets were soon flooded with western factory made goods. Since these goods were cheaper, the local small-scale industries were effected and soon had to close down. Many natives were reduced to utter poverty and bonded labour.

On the other hand, imperialism led to the development of MODERN INDUSTRY in the colonies. There was also the introduction of new means of TRANSPORT and COMMUNICATION and other infrastructure. Jobs were available for the educated.

Social and Cultural Effects:

The westerners introduced radical changes in the social life of the conquered people. With the introduction of WESTERN EDUCATION through western languages, the colonised people adopted a western style

of dress, food and mannerisms. Some of the smaller nations lost their culture due to this, and in the process of westernisation lost their identity as a separate nation.

However, in some countries they also developed a rational attitude to religious and social customs and traditions. Many were inspired to change and it led to the SOCIO-RELIGIOUS REFORM MOVEMENT.

In India, RAJA RAM MOHAN ROY started the movement for social reform and in 1829 he was successful in getting the government to ban Sati.

The CHRISTIAN MISSIONARIES churches, schools and colleges to spread education. They also worked in the field of health care. But at the same time they carried on their activity of conversion which was resented.

The government was also involved in education and a large amount of money was reserved for this purpose. They encouraged female education and did much to extend technical education. In 1858 they started Universities in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

Thus we see that Imperialism affected all aspects of life as the Europe an civilisation moved into Asia and Africa. The European Powers exercised not only political authority in these regions, but also gave the fruits of western civilisation to them. The twin spirits of “Progress” and “Prosperity” were communicated to all colonised people. Imperialism became a catalyst force, which integrated the remote parts of Asia and Africa into a new World order. Like any other movement Imperialism also had a negative Impact. The legacy of poverty and exploitation still continues.

Check Your Progress:

3. What were the major effects of Imperialist expansion in Asia and Africa?

7.7 SUMMARY

Imperialist Expansion or Imperialism was a policy followed by the European nations after 1870. According to this policy, the economically developed nations of the world wanted to rule over and control the underdeveloped countries. In order to do this, they sometimes used force and sometimes trickery. Not always did imperialism involve conquest. It

took on different forms, e.g. protectorates, spheres of influence and spheres of interest etc.

The factors that led to this policy were many. The industrialised nations of the west required raw materials and new markets to sell their goods. As trade increased they acquired more capital which they needed to invest. Besides the economic factor, there was the political. With the rise of nationalism and the birth of new nations like Germany and Italy all countries felt that they were more powerful if they had larger Imperialist empires. Pressurising the politicians were the missionaries, who wished to spread the Christian faith.

The Manchu dynasty in China was too weak to stop the Europeans from taking control of their territory. However as the 'rape of China' continued, Japan learnt a lesson. She industrialised and westernised herself and in turn became an imperialist power.

The impact of imperialism was both positive and negative. The weaker nations were economically and politically exploited. But with the introduction of western education and western political institutions there was a gradual rise in nationalism. This finally led to freedom movements in all Asian countries. The introduction of better means of transport and communication also helped in the economic development of the colonised nations.

7.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Examine the meaning and nature of Imperialist expansion or Imperialism. Discuss the factors that led to it.
2. What is meant by Imperialist expansion or 'New Imperialism'? Critically analyse the causes of this policy.
3. Account for the opening up of China to western Imperialist expansion or imperialism.
4. What was the impact of Imperialist expansion or Imperialism on Asia and Africa?
5. Write short notes on the following;
 - (a) Economic causes of Imperialist expansion or imperialism.
 - (b) Forms of Imperialist expansion or Imperialism.
 - (c) Imperialist expansion or Imperialism in China.
 - (d) Japanese Imperialist expansion or imperialism in Asia.
 - (e) Effects of Imperialist expansion or Imperialism.

MODULE IV

8

WORLD WAR-I (1914-1919)

Unit Structure

- 8.0 Objectives
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Causes of The First World War
 - 8.2.1 Forces of Nationalism
 - 8.2.2 System of Alliances
 - 8.2.3 Dual Alliance 1879 (Germany And Austria-Hungary)
 - 8.2.4 Triple Alliance 1882 (Germany, Austria-Hungary And Italy)
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 - 8.2.8 Entente Cordiale 1904 (France And Britain)
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 - 8.2.10 Militarism and Race For Armaments
 - 8.2.11 Imperialism
 - 8.2.12 The Newspaper War
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 - 8.2.14 International Crisis
- 8.3 The Moroccan Crisis 1905
- 8.4 The Agadir Crisis. 1911. (The Second Moroccan Crisis)
- 8.5 The Balkan Crisis 1908
- 8.6 The Balkan Wars 1911-1912
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- 8.8 Course of The War
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 - 8.9.1 Loss of Life
 - 8.9.2 Economic Impact
- 8.10 Rise of Nationalism
- 8.11 Spread of Democracy
- 8.12 Rise of Dictatorships
- 8.13 Summary
- 8.14 Unit End Questions

8.0 OBJECTIVES

This lesson seeks to examine the following aspects:

- The causes / factors which led to the First World War.
- The outbreak and course of the war- the collapse of Russia- the entry of USA-the defeat of Germany and the Central Powers.
- The consequences/impact of the war on the defeated and the victorious countries.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The 20th century may be called an era of conflict, because two great world wars were fought within a very short space of time. Every part of the globe was involved in these wars. People of all nations felt the disastrous impact. Europe the continent that started the war suffered the most. Both the wars were because of European greed, mutual pride and hatred. Since the Europeans had already established colonial empires for themselves in Asia and Africa, these parts of the world were also involved in the war.

This century also witnessed two revolutions—the Russian Revolution in 1917 and the Chinese Revolution in 1949 — both Communist in nature.

Another important feature was the rise of dictatorships in Germany, Italy, Spain and Russia.

The spirit of nationalism led to the unification of Italy and Germany on the one hand. On the other hand as it spread in Asia and Africa, it led to conflicts between the colonial powers and the natives.

The fundamental and major reasons of the First World War were; nationalism, the system of alliances, militarism and the race for armaments, imperialism, and a state of international anarchy. As each European nation tried to prove its superiority, in armed forces, colonies etc. it also brought a certain sense of insecurity. Bismarck the master politician created a whole system of secret alliances to gather friends. He succeeded in dividing the world into two camps—the Allies and the Central Powers. There were many instances when France and Germany almost came to war but it was averted at the last moment. Finally when a Serbian assassinated Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia in 1914. Germany, Russia, Britain, France and Italy were all drawn into this war because of the complicated system of alliances. Germany's submarine warfare against unarmed merchant ships led U. S.A. to join the Allies.

When the war ended, Germany was defeated as were Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria But the war, had no real victors, as all countries lost in different ways. The economic losses, the destruction, the loss of life and

property were suffered by all. At the Paris Peace Conference, five separate treaties were drawn up for the defeated countries. The Treaty of Versailles was very harsh on Germany. She had to pay a huge war indemnity, besides having to pay in the form of coal, gold, livestock, chemicals and building materials. Much of her territory in Europe was taken away and given to France, Poland, Denmark and Belgium. Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia were two new nations formed. Germany was totally disarmed and what was very humiliating was that the entire war guilt was placed on her. Some attempt to bring about permanent peace was made. The League of Nations was established on the basis of Woodrow Wilson's 14 points. The aim of the League was to prevent war and to promote peace in the world.

8.2 CAUSES OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

The Great War of 1914 was the culmination of developments in Europe for more than two decades. The Great Powers looked at each other with suspicion and the rivalry was intense. This attitude was responsible for dividing Europe into two armed camps. Aggressive nationalist colonial conflicts and a system of military alliances increased the dangers. The assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand sparked the outbreak of the First World War. But the causes were much deeper and more fundamental.

8.2.1 Forces of Nationalism:

First among the fundamental causes of the war was the force of nationalism. The victory of nationalism in Italy and Germany in 1870 made it a strong force in politics. People supported their country whether right or wrong.

Excessive nationalism increased the rivalry between countries like Germany and Britain, leading to a competition between them to have larger and better armies and navies.

Aggressive nationalism led to conflicts among the Great Powers over colonial territory in Asia, and Africa.

The French never forgot the loss of Alsace and Lorraine and they remained bitter enemies of Germany.

The cry of "ITALIA IRREDENTA" (unredeemed Italy) was the expression of nationalism of Italy which waited for the opportunity to take back Trieste and Trenton, from Austria and Hungary.

The people of the Balkan region were dissatisfied and the Slavs who were not free looked to Serbia to unite them. In 1908 Austria-Hungary angered Serbia by annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina. Rivalry for control of the Balkans added to the tensions, prior to the war.

As a matter of fact, excess of nationalism was at the back of most of the events that led towards the war.

8.2.2 System of Alliances:

The second underlying cause of the war was the system of military alliances. It owed its origin to the diplomacy of Bismarck, who realised that France would never forget the loss of Alsace and Lorraine. To safeguard Germany against a French attack, he started a system of military alliances. This in turn led to counter-alliances, which divided Europe into two hostile camps.

8.2.3 Dual Alliance 1879 (Germany and Austria-Hungary):

The withdrawal of Russia from the League of Three Emperors in 1878, and the fear of a French attack, forced Bismarck to sign a treaty with Austria-Hungary. This defensive alliance provided that (a) if Germany or Hungary was attacked by Russia or a third power supported by Russia, the other signatory would aid; and (b) if either of the signatories were at war with any other power other than Russia, the other signatory would remain neutral. The terms of the alliance were kept secret.

8.2.4 Triple Alliance 1882 (Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy):

Bismarck exploited the rivalry between France and Italy over Tunis. Afraid of being left alone, Italy was forced to join the dual alliance partners, thus forming the Triple Alliance.

8.2.5 The Reinsurance Treaty 1887 (Germany and Russia):

Bismarck was determined to isolate France. To avoid Russia and France coming closer to each other, Germany signed the Reinsurance Treaty with Russia. It was a defensive alliance, to be renewed after three years and highly secret.

However in 1890, Kaiser William II refused to renew the treaty. Bismarck was dropped as Chancellor, and Germany's foreign policy underwent a change.

8.2.6 Russo-Franco Alliance 1890 (Russia and France):

France who had been totally isolated so far, was searching for friends. She entered into a defensive alliance with Russia against the members of the Triple Alliance.

8.2.7 Anglo-Japanese Alliance 1902:

Both Britain and Japan were worried about Russia's imperialist policy in the Far East. Brought closer together by their mutual rivalries, Britain and

Japan signed a friendly agreement. Politically strengthened by this alliance, Japan finally challenged Russia in 1904 and won the war.

8.2.8 Entente Cordiale 1904 (France and Britain):

Britain and France settled the problems they had in Asia and Africa, and then entered into a defensive alliance in 1904 called the Entente Cordiale. This strengthened the position of France in Europe and Britain was no longer an isolated power.

8.2.9 Triple Entente (France, Britain and Russia):

Since Russia was an ally of France, it was but natural that she became part of the alliance. It cost Russia and Britain a lot to end their suspicion of each other and to settle their differences over territorial claims. The agreement respected the independence of Afghanistan and Tibet, and both Britain and Russia got spheres of influence in Persia. This resulted in the formation of the Triple Entente.

The Triple Entente was not a military alliance and Britain was not pledged to support either France or Russia in times of war. It simply formed a diplomatic group that was expected to work in harmony in regard to certain problems. Its chief significance lay in the fact that both Britain and Russia moved away from Germany and did not trust German policy. It was now Germany's turn to feel isolated and encircled by a ring of enemies.

Thus Europe was divided into two armed camps. Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy had signed the Triple Alliance and were called the Central Powers. Britain, France and Russia had signed the Triple Entente and were called the Allies. Later Japan joined the Triple Entente and Turkey joined the Triple Alliance. Gradually during the war all other countries joined the two groups.

The worst feature of the alliance system was that the treaties were secret. So the alliances which were meant to preserve peace instead created fear and suspicion. The secrecy of the entire system only intensified the rivalry and made war inevitable.

8.2.10 Militarism and Race for Armaments:

The third fundamental cause of the war was the competitive militarism of that time. There was a deep sense of insecurity in the minds of the powers. They felt they had to be prepared for any situation and so concentrated on developing their armed forces. As Prof. Sidney Hays writes, "If one country increased its army, built strategic railways, and constructed new battleships, its fearful neighbours were straight-away frightened into doing likewise."

Germany greatly increased the size of her standing army, and France lengthened the term of compulsory service from two years to three. Russia also expanded her army. Britain added to her already large navy.

Anglo-German naval rivalry was one of the causes of the war. The navy which Germany constructed was led by huge steel submarines called “dreadnoughts”, armed with 12inch guns of great power. So far Britain had always possessed the best navy and now she felt challenged. She tried to build more dreadnoughts and better warships. Other countries not wanting to be left behind also joined the race.

As technology improved, so did the destructive power of the weapons. The Great Powers not only increased the size of the armies but they steadily increased their stockpile of weapons, small arms and artillery. Soon the whole of Europe was one large armed camp waiting to explode.

8.2.11 Imperialism:

To all Europeans the greatness of their nation depended on its position in Europe and the size of its colonial empire. The more colonies a country possessed, the greater it was. Britain, France and Russia had built up huge empires for themselves. Germany felt left behind and she sought a “place in the sun.” Her unsatisfied imperialist ambitions were the chief source of international conflicts.

In the 19th century, Africa was in a short space of time divided among the European Powers. Asia too was colonised and economically exploited. In China the Europeans carved out spheres of influence for themselves. As an industrialised nation, Japan joined the race for colonies in Asia.

These colonial expansions added to the tension in Europe. The British plan to construct a Cape-Cairo railway clashed with the interests of Germany, Belgium and France. Russia’s plan to build the Trans-Siberian railway was partly responsible for the Russo-Jap war. Kaiser William H’s plan to build a railway from Berlin-Baghdad, did not find favour with Britain. The British saw the railway as a threat to their interests in the Far East. As each crisis unfolded, it was only diplomatic skill that avoided a war.

8.2.12 The Newspaper War:

The poisoning of public opinion by the newspapers in all the countries contributed a great deal to the world war. Points of dispute were exaggerated, and attacks and counter-attacks was a regular feature before the war. The newspapers either misrepresented or suppressed the truth. This spread the atmosphere of mutual hatred and distrust, which contributed to the war.

8.2.13 Kaiser William II:

In 1890 when Kaiser William II took full control over Germany's policies, he looked beyond Europe. He wanted Germany to be a world power. England, France and Russia had already built huge empires for themselves. Kaiser William II could not bring himself to accept a subordinate position and was determined that Germany would have her "place in the sun". He tried every possible means of expansion. The Kaiser made a tour to Constantinople and Jerusalem and proclaimed his friendship with Sultan Abdul Hamid. His actions angered both Britain and Russia. The Kaiser never realised the consequences of his actions because he could never understand any other point of view except his own. So Germany's ambitions and visions of World Empire may be looked upon as the ultimate cause of the First World War.

8.2.14 International Crisis:

Germany's desire to be a world power created many problems for her. Firstly, she clashed with France over Morocco. Secondly, she clashed with Austria and Russia in the Balkans.

8.3 THE MOROCCON CRISIS 1905

When the Entente Cordiale was signed, the British agreed to respect the French position in Morocco, while the French accepted the British position in Egypt. Kaiser William II challenged the agreement proclaiming that he was the protector of the Muslims. At the ALGECIRAS CONFERENCE in 1906, he received support only from Austria-Hungary, while the British and the Russians supported France. An agreement was reached which was a victory for France.

8.4 THE AGADIR CRISIS. 1911. (THE SECOND MOROCCON CRISIS)

In 1911 there was an uprising of unruly tribes in FEZ, the capital of Morocco. France sent troops to put down the trouble. Kaiser William sent his gunboat "Panther," to supposedly protect German interests. The situation turned ugly when Britain sent her warship to Morocco. Germany was forced to compromise and accept a French protectorate over Morocco. The Agadir crisis only served to strengthen the friendship between Britain and France.

8.5 THE BALKAN CRISIS 1908

The Bosnian crisis formed a link in the chain of events that led to the war. The annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina by Austria aroused a lot of nationalist feeling in Serbia. She looked upon herself as the champion and

liberator of all Slavs in Turkish and Austrian territory. Austria on the other hand, was determined to crush Serbia and Germany was ready to support her and defy Europe.

8.6 THE BALKAN WARS 1911-1912

Disappointed in 1908, the Balkan nations-BULGARIA, SERBIA, GREECE AND MONTENEGRO-formed the BALKAN LEAGUE, against Turkey. In the first Balkan War, the Turkish forces were completely defeated. By the Treaty of London, Turkey had to surrender most of her European territory to the victors.

Problems arose among the Balkan states, as they could not agree on how to share this territory. Serbia and Bulgaria disagreed about Macedonia. Bulgaria suddenly attacked Serbia. Greece and Romania helped Serbia to defeat Bulgaria. By the Treaty of Bucharest, Serbia received northern and central Macedonia, while southern Macedonia was handed over to Greece. Bulgaria had to be satisfied with very little.

Austria did her best to break up Serbian plans and her anti-Serbian attitude created problems. She forced Serbia to give up many of the towns she had won from the Turks and prevented her from getting an outlet into the sea. The Austria-Serbian feud continued till the murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, who was the nephew of the Austrian Emperor.

The importance of the Balkan Wars lay in the fact that they emphasised the gains that could be won in short wars. Attention turned to subject races who were not yet free. These races looked for supporters among the major powers.

8.7 ASSASSINATION OF ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND

Finally, when all the European countries were fully armed and ready for war, a little spark was needed to start the war. The murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria, and his wife, on 28 June 1914, in Sarajevo the capital of Bosnia, became the spark of World War I.

The assassin was Gavrilo Princip, a member of the secret society of Young Bosnia, and his weapons had been supplied by a secret society of Serbia.

This incident caused a wave of anger to sweep over Austria and the people denounced the people of Serbia as a "nation of assassins." The Austrian Government said the crime was due to the anti-Austrian propaganda carried out by the Serbians and the Government. After consulting Germany, Austria delivered a drastic ultimatum to Serbia which had to be accepted in 48 hours. Serbia accepted most of the terms but did not agree

to Austrian officials policing Serbian affairs. She offered to refer the matter to a Conference of Great Powers. Austria was bent on war, and the ultimatum was just a formality. Austro-Hungarian troops were mobilized and war was declared on 28th July 1914.

Check Your Progress:

1. What were the Important causes of the World War I ?

8.8 COURSE OF THE WAR

Austria's action drew Russia into the field, because she was deeply interested in the fate of the Slav states in the Balkans. Russia was in favour of a conference but Austria was not. Russia had no other option but to mobilize her troops. Since Germany was bound to Austria by the Triple Alliance, she too mobilized her troops.

On 1st August 1914, Germany declared war on Russia. On 3rd August 1914, Germany declared war on France.

The British people on the whole had greater sympathy for France than for Germany and Britain had tried to maintain peace. But Germany's action made her neutrality impossible. In order to strike at France, on 4th August Germany marched through Belgium, violating her neutrality. The neutrality of Belgium had long been an important point in the foreign policy of Britain. She requested Germany to withdraw, but Germany refused. At midnight 4th August, Great Britain declared war on Germany.

On 7th August, Montenegro joined Serbia against Austria-Hungary.

Then Japan became a part of the war, partly to fulfil its treaty obligations to Britain and partly to take its revenge on Germany. On 17th August, Japan presented an ultimatum to Germany to withdraw all its warships immediately from Chinese and Japanese waters and to hand over Kiaochow to them. Germany refused and Japan declared war on 23rd August 1914.

Italy, although a member of the Triple Alliance announced her neutrality on the ground that her allies were not involved in a defensive war. In 1915, Italy joined the Entente Powers. Her object was to recover from Austria some of the provinces which belonged to her.

Turkey and Bulgaria joined the Central Powers in 1914.

Thus in the three months from 28 July to 29 October 1914, a conflict between Serbia and Austria Hungary broadened into a world war in which Germany, Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman Empire were up against Russia, France, Great Britain, Japan, Belgium Serbia and Montenegro. Six of the eight Great Powers were immediately involved, and five of the six continents.

The early phase of the war was in favour of the Allies. In 1915, Britain inflicted a crushing defeat on Turkey and captured the Straits of the Dardanelles and the port of Constantinople. They also attacked German colonies in Africa and took control of her concessions in China. Alarmed by the Allied success, Germany intensified the submarine warfare and sunk a number of British ships. The Allies then launched a counter-offensive.

The year 1917 proved to be a turning point in the history of the war. The Russian army was neither well trained nor well equipped, and was being defeated at every stage by the Germans. Completely demoralized, the Russian army revolted against the Czar in March 1917. By October 1917, the Communists had taken control and established a Republic. They asked for peace and signed the TREATY OF BREST-LITOVSK in 1918.

The collapse of Russia made the position of Germany very strong and they started a submarine warfare on a large scale. Not only did they destroy British battleships, but also attacked American merchant ships. It seemed as if the Allies were on the verge of collapse, but the U.S.A. came to their rescue. In January 1917, Germany was warned to stop her submarine warfare. She refused and on 6th April 1917, the U.S.A. declared war on Germany. The entry of the U.S.A. was a turning point in the war. It greatly strengthened the Allies by placing at their disposal men, money and material all of which boosted the morale of the Allies.

In June 1918, the military successes of the Central Powers stopped. Austria-Hungary was exhausted. Germany was being forced to retreat by the French and the Americans. Meanwhile in September 1918, an allied army struck at Bulgaria. The Bulgarian army no longer had the support of Germany and Austria and it fell to the allied army. At the same time, the Dual-Monarchy of Austria-Hungary also collapsed. The Central Powers, who had stood like a rock fortress for four years, were beginning to crumble. Their armies were defeated and demoralized. Their rulers and statesmen were panic-stricken. Their people wanted peace. Bulgaria the last to join the group was the first to quit it. Bulgaria surrendered in September 1918; and a month later, the Ottoman Empire and Austria-Hungary also surrendered. Germany was left to end the war as best it could. After a month of negotiation between the German Chancellor Prince Maximilian and President Wilson the Allies agreed to make peace on the basis of the "fourteen points." An armistice was signed on 11th November 1918, between Germany and the Allies and the war finally came to an end.

8.9 CONSEQUENCES OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

The armistice of 11 November 1918 brought an immediate sense of relief to the whole world. The horrible bloodshed of the four and half years, with untold suffering and misery, was at last halted. In the defeated countries the popular hope was that the Allies would be considerate while framing the peace treaties this hope was not realistic. The vast majority of the people in every Allied country believed Germany was responsible for and guilty of the war. Clemenceau of France and Orlando of Italy, supported by their people demanded the punishment of the Central Powers. In Great Britain the slogan of Lloyd George was, “Hang the Kaiser and make Germany Pay.

This war also showed that in an economic sense there are no victors. Both sides are responsible for and must share the extremely high cost of the war. Demanding war reparation does not solve the problem.

The consequences of the war were numerous:

8.9.1 Loss of Life:

The First World War was fought by thirty countries. Sixty-five million men fought on the battlefield. Eight and half million men were killed. Twenty nine million men were wounded, captured or “missing in action.” Every family in Europe, had lost a member— a husband, a brother, a son. Many of the colonies had sent troops to Europe, many of whom never returned. To the list of casualties must be added the millions who died on account of civilian massacres, disease and famine which were the direct outcome of the war. The civilians had received a small weekly ration, which had led to malnutrition and sometimes death. The war had been deadly and costly.

8.9.2 Economic Impact:

The cost of the war was equal to the scale of its operations. Those who won and those who lost, both paid an extremely high price After much argument, the Reparations Commission fixed the compensation that Germany had to pay at 132,000 million gold marks i.e. 33,000 million dollars or 6,600 million pounds The amount was unrealistic and German currency soon collapsed Finally in 1932, Germany stopped paying the reparation even though she had not paid the amount originally demanded. John Maynard Keynes a British economist rightly predicted that such reparations would not be paid for more than a few years.

The direct financial cost of the war has been estimated at over two hundred billion dollars; its indirect cost at over a hundred and fifty billion dollars; and these figures do not include the additional billions in interest payments, soldier’s pensions and health care, etc.

The total cost of the war cannot be measured only by these astronomical figures. The amount of property destroyed, the ships and cargoes which had been sunk the wealth which otherwise would have been produced if raw materials had not been destroyed, all have to be taken into account the territory occupied by the enemy suffered devastation. Machinery and factories were destroyed. In northern France the destruction was so complete that the people decided not to rebuild certain towns. The basic necessities of life—food, clothing, and shelter—were not available for millions of Europeans. Many more died of starvation or malnutrition. Mounting national debt and rising inflation dislocated normal economic life. Unemployment had reached terrible proportions and crime was on the rise.

World trade was affected. During the war, countries which had depended on Europe for various products, had found ways of dealing with the lack of European goods. They looked to Asia and Africa or started production themselves. The European nations found little demand for their goods and they had to compete with U.S.A. and Japan. Economic reconstruction was a slow process.

Inflation was not a problem experienced by Germany alone, all countries did. In 1919 the French franc stood at half its pre-war value. All the nations had borrowed heavily during the war. The whole question of repaying those war loans had consequences on international trade as well as international relations.

8.10 RISE OF NATIONALISM

One of the great results of the war was the triumph of the principle of nationalism. Four hereditary Imperial Dynasties of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia and Turkey—were swept away. The subject peoples were given their freedom in most cases.

Out of the Old Russian empire, four independent republics were set up,—Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania.

Poland was recreated

Parts of the Austro-Hungarian Empire went to make the new states of Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia.

The influence of nationalism was not confined to Europe alone. It awakened China and Turkey. Nationalism received an impetus during the war and became assertive.

8.11 SPREAD OF DEMOCRACY

The war which in the words of Woodrow Wilson had been fought “to make the world safe for democracy”, seemed to have achieved its aim in 1919. New nations, which had got their independence, adopted democracy as their form of government.

Germany set up the WEIMAR REPUBLIC with its Parliamentary constitution to replace the old empire.

Austria too followed the democratic pattern. Greece abolished monarchy.

But the greatest triumph of democracy was in Turkey, where the Sultanate and the Caliphate were abolished and a republic set up with Kemal Pasha as the President.

Democracy came into vogue and nationalism was its natural ally.

8.12 RISE OF DICTATORSHIPS

Almost every country, new and old, underwent a radical change for the good or the bad. The whole of normal industrial and economic life was very badly affected, since most industries were ruined. The end of the war caused serious problems for the soldiers. It was difficult to rehabilitate them as employment was scarce. Many countries were on the verge of bankruptcy, unemployment was rising and inflation could not be controlled. These and other similar problems created much discontent among people and most blamed their governments for the problems. Conditions were favourable for the growth of leftist and radical parties under different names.

Democracy could not survive for long and it received its first blow in Italy, where Fascism under Benito Mussolini emerged. In Germany, under Hitler, Nazism reigned supreme. The Communists were in power in Russia. The individual interest was sacrificed for the national interest. Everybody lived for the state and not for himself. The motto of the dictators was “everything for the state, everything within the state, and nothing outside the state.” The rise of these new political powers led to a change in the “status quo” and a new balance of power in and outside Europe.

1. Social Impact:

The First World War brought about tremendous changes in society. Many people chose not to return to their old way of life. Agricultural workers migrated to the cities instead of remaining on their farms.

Not only did governments turn democratic after the war, but socially too there was more democracy. The old social classes started to disappear.

The so-called upper classes lost their privileges and power. Russia aimed for a classless society. In order to lessen the divide between the “haves” and the “have-nots”, land was taken from the upper classes and redistributed among the landless peasants.

In every country the war had the effect of moving very quickly towards the emancipation of women, especially in countries where the process had already begun. In 1918 in Great Britain, women over the age of 30 were given the right to vote. Since the war had been a total national effort, women had worked in factories and shops, offices and voluntary agencies, hospitals and schools. They took the place of men along men, and naturally they claimed equality of status and rights. After so many had experienced independence socially and economically, there was no reason to deny them their rights. Women found it so much easier to find jobs in industry and business, since the old ideas against them were breaking down.

Developing technology, improved nutrition and advance in medicine helped in increasing the standards of living and the quality of life.

2. Peace Treaties:

The Paris Peace Conference was inaugurated on 18th January 1919, and the representatives of 32 nations attended. The most famous among them were President Woodrow Wilson (U.S.A.), Lloyd George (Britain), George Clemenceau (France), and Orlando (Italy). The defeated nations were not invited. Long negotiations and diplomatic activities continued till a broad understanding could be reached. The G delegates protested since the treaty was not based on the fourteen points of Woodrow Wilson. The Allies threatened war again, and Germany was forced to sign the treaty in the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles.

The Allies held Germany responsible for the horrors of the war and were determined to make them pay.

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES was signed by Germany on the 28th June 1919, and the agony of the war came to an end. Germany was stripped of large areas of territory. Alsace and Lorraine were returned to France. The small districts of Moresnet, Eupen and Malmsey were given to Belgium. Poland got Posen and the Baltic Port of Danzig was converted into a “Free City.” The Saar basin, rich in coal reserves, was controlled by France. Germany lost all her colonies in Asia and Africa as mandates to the League of Nations. In the Far East Japan received the lease of the Kiaochow and control over the Shantung province. She also received all the islands south of the Equator in the Pacific.

Germany was asked to disarm and maintain a small army of 100000 soldiers. Conscription was abolished. The size of her navy was reduced and she had to stop producing war material. The Rhineland was demilitarised.

Germany was compelled to accept her war guilt and had to promise to make good “for all damage done to the civilian population of the Allies and their property.” The war indemnity was fixed at a super high level and Germany also had to pay in the form of coal gold, livestock, and chemicals and building materials.

Thus Germany was bled white territorially, militarily and economically by her conquerors.

THE TREATY OF ST. GERMAIN 1919 which AUSTRIA signed, witnessed the breakup of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia were the two new states formed. Her size shrunk and her population was also reduced from 31 million to 6 million German speaking populations. But to see that she remained always separate from Germany, a special clause was put into the treaty by which her independence was preserved by the League of Nations.

TREATY OF TRIANON 1920. By M treaty, Hungary was deprived of her non-Magyar subjects and also stripped of a lot of territory. She ceded Croatia to Yugoslavia, the Banat to Rumania and Yugoslavia and the Slovak districts to Czechoslovakia. As a result her population was reduced from 21 million to 8 million.

TREATY OF NEUILLY 1919. This treaty was signed by BULGARIA, by which she lost territory to Greece, Yugoslavia and Romania. The strength of her army was reduced and she agreed to pay half a billion dollars as war indemnity.

TREATY OF SEVRES WITH TURKEY 1920. The Allies were very harsh in their treatment of Turkey. She stood to lose a lot of land as well as colonial territory. Nothing remained of the once mighty Ottoman Empire except Constantinople and Anatolia. The war indemnity was very high.

However, Mustafa Kemal Pasha who had established a rival government at Ankara was not prepared to accept this treaty. Taking advantage of the tired Allied troops, his army pushed back the Italian and French troops. They occupied the whole of Asia Minor and took the capital, Constantinople. The Allies were forced to conclude a new treaty, The Treaty of Lausanne, in Switzerland in July 1923.

This treaty was a great triumph for Mustafa Kemal Pasha and a great humiliation for the Great Powers of Europe.

A careful consideration of the peace treaties will make it clear that the statesmen failed in their duty.

They made peace but at too great a cost. The humiliation that Germany suffered made her want her revenge and this led in the end to the Second World War.

3. Emergence of Great Powers.

Post war Europe saw the emergence of the Allies as Great Powers. GREAT BRITAIN proved herself to be the leading maritime and colonial power. FRANCE came to be regarded as a great military power. JAPAN increased its power and prestige in the Far East at the cost of China and Russia. The U.S.A. was the newest Great Power who had both military and economic power.

4. League of Nations:

The founder of this organisation was Woodrow Wilson; the President of the U.S.A. His peace programme was the last of the Fourteen Points.

The purposes of the League were four: to prevent war, to organise peace, to perform certain duties according to the peace treaties, and to promote international cooperation.

The League started functioning from January 1920, with its headquarters at Geneva. There were 41 members in the beginning. Russia did not join the League for a long time and unfortunately, the U.S.A. refused to become a member. Thus the League was deprived of the great support she could have received from this powerful nation in her efforts to maintain peace.

In the twenty years of its career the League dealt with a large number of political disputes. Many were solved peacefully. However in disputes which involved the Great Powers, the Leagues efforts were not so successful. The League successfully looked after members of the national minorities living in Central and Eastern Europe. The League managed to check the illegal narcotics trade and trafficking in women and children. It also suppressed Slavery and bonded labour. Although unsuccessful the League played a major role in bringing about a general reduction of armaments.

Check Your Progress:

2. Explain briefly the effects of the World War I

8.13 SUMMARY

The war, which began in August 1914 and lasted for four years and three months, was in many ways entirely novel in human history. It was the first general conflict between highly organised nations, who were able to mobilize all their citizens, and also use all their resources of modern technology to find new methods of destruction and of defence. It was fought on land and under land in the trenches, on sea and under the sea. All countries felt the disastrous impact of the war.

The reasons for such a conflict were too he found in the developments and events which preceded the war. The growth of extreme nationalist had people believing that only their country was right and they were prepared to die for their country. Once Germany and Italy won their political independence, other people like the Serbs wanted freedom too. The secret alliances which were started by Bismarck in his attempt to isolate. France and at the same time gain friends and security for Germany, were a major cause of the war. The race for armaments and superior military power, and the race for large colonial empires led to the war.

Once, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, all the Great Powers declared war on each other. In 1917 two major events took place. Firstly, there was a communist revolution in Russia and the new government asked Germany for peace. Secondly, due to Germany's submarine warfare and her repeated attacks on unarmed merchant ships, U.S.A. joined the war on the side of the Allies. By 1918, the Central Powers were all defeated and surrendered.

The Great Powers then met at the Paris Peace Conference and attempted to bring about lasting peace. Five separate treaties were signed, but the terms of the Treaty of Versailles which Germany signed, were very harsh. The destruction, the loss of lives and property were immense. Old empires collapsed and new nations were born. However the establishment of the League of Nations made it seem like the world could live in peace and harmony.

8.14 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. What were the causes and effects of World War I?
2. Discuss the factors and events leading to World War I.
3. To what extent were the following responsible for causing World War I:
(a) Secret Diplomacy (b) Militarism
4. Describe the important consequences of the War I.
5. Write short notes on:
(a) Secret alliance system, (b) Kaiser William II, (c) Paris Peace Conference.

MODULE IV

9

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917

Unit Structure

- 9.0 Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Causes of The Revolution
 - 9.2.1 Economic Causes
 - 9.2.2 Social Causes
 - 9.2.3 Political Causes
 - 9.2.4 Ideological Causes
 - 9.2.5 Anti-Semitic Policy (Anti-Jewish Policy)
 - 9.2.6 Persecution of National Minorities
- 9.3 Events That Led to The Revolution
 - 9.3.1 Russo-Japanese War 1904-1905
 - 9.3.2 The Revolution of 1905
 - 9.3.3. World War I
- 9.4 The Two Phases Of The Revolution
 - 9.4.1 The February / March Revolution, 1917
 - 9.4.2 Provisional Government and The Problems It Faced
 - 9.4.3 The October / November Revolution, 1917
 - 9.4.4 Role Of Lenin In The Bolshevik Revolution
 - 9.4.5 Bolshevik Revolution
- 9.5 Bolshevik Policies, Programme and Problems
 - 9.5.1 Treaty of Brest-Litovsk
 - 9.5.2 Civil War and Opposition
 - 9.5.3. Economic Reforms
 - 9.5.4 Reasons for The Nep
 - 9.5.5 Nep
 - 9.5.6 Significance of The Nep
 - 9.5.7 Death of Lenin
- 9.6 Impact of The Russian Revolution
- 9.7 Summary
- 9.8 Unit End Questions

9.0 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this lesson are as follows;

1. To understand the factors/causes responsible for the revolution in Russia.
2. To discuss the main events that led to the February Revolution of 1917.
3. To understand the nature of the February Revolution and the problems faced by the Provisional Government.
4. To examine the ideology of Lenin's Bolshevik Party, and its success in capturing power in the October Revolution 1917.
5. To discuss the policy, programme and problems faced by the Bolshevik Government.
6. To appreciate the significance of the Bolshevik Revolution, and its impact on the rest of the world.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The Russian revolution of 1917 ranks as the greatest revolution in the history of mankind. The consequences of the revolution were immense. It affected at least two continents, Europe and Asia. The revolution brought an end of one era in Russia and the beginning of another.

World War I had seen the principles of nationalism and democracy triumph in Central Europe. But in Russia it led to a revolution which shook Russian society to its very foundations. It caused not only the political structure but also the social order to collapse in ruins.

The revolution took place in two phases. The political phase took place in February (March) 1917, and it sealed the fate of autocracy: the social phase or the Bolshevik revolution followed in October (November) 1917, and it brought into existence the first Worker's Republic.

Russia until 1917, was an autocratic and despotic monarchy. Socially, economically, politically and even militarily she was lagging behind all major European countries. As regards the cause of the revolution there were many and similar in many respects to those of the French revolution of the 18th century.

9.2 CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION

9.2.1 Economic Causes:

The seeds of the revolution lay in Russia's backward economic conditions. Though there was some industrialization, basically Russia remained a poor

country. Though Russia had vast natural resources they were not properly utilised. Her economic potential was not exploited which resulted in extreme poverty for the masses.

1. Agriculture:

Russia's agricultural conditions remained backward in many respects. The tools that the Russian peasants were using were outdated and primitive. Agricultural techniques had not changed for centuries, irrigation methods had not improved or were non-existent.

The position of the peasants was as bad. Most of them were SERFS, tied to the land. Though in 1861, Czar Alexander III had passed the EMANCIPATION DECREE, in actual practise most of the peasants remained serfs.

Land revenue was very high and the Russian peasant was burdened with various indirect taxes too.

About 60% of Russia's agricultural land was owned by the rich landlords, the nobles and the royal family. They represented 10% of the total population. The peasants formed 70% of the population and owned nothing much. Most had to hire horses to help with the ploughing.

In 1913, Russia's agricultural production was at its lowest. The peasant seemed to have no way out of the poverty, hunger, disease and dirt that he suffered. They remained a discontented group ready to take advantage of any movement that promised them relief from their misery.

2. Industry:

After 1890, Russia saw a lot of industrial development. A number of basic industries like iron, steel and coal were established. Count Sergei Witte a minister was chiefly responsible for the industrial development in Russia. The Trans-Siberian railway line was started, and other transportation and communication facilities developed.

Unfortunately, to a large extent, the Russian economy was characterised by foreign capital investment nearly half the capital was from France and Belgium. Many banks were in the hands of foreign bankers.

9.2.2 Social Classes:

Up to the 19th century the Russian society was divided into two classes, the nobles and the serfs. The royal family headed the small group of powerful and wealthy nobles. The peasants made up 80% of the population. The former owned land, property, and had wealth and social status, while the latter owned no property, had no wealth or social status. On the contrary, they were poverty stricken and with the government doing nothing to improve their condition, it seemed that they would die in that condition.

As the industrial revolution swept into Russia, we have the development of another class, i.e. the BOURGEOISE. This class included capitalists, workers and professionals and they soon became a powerful group in Russian society. The term Bourgeoisie refers to the capitalist class, while PETTY BOURGEOISIE refers to the small merchants, traders professionals etc.

The industrial revolution created another large group i.e. the wage-earning working class also known as the PROLETARIAT. This urban working class made up only about 10% of the population. Many were educated and knew how important their labour was for the factories. In order to improve their working conditions and living standards, they were keen to organise trade unions. The government suppressed such efforts. It is no small wonder that they then supported revolutionary societies.

There was another group, which though small in size were still important. They were the professionals like doctors, lawyers, writers, etc. Though some of them had the wealth to be associated with the upper classes, but they sympathised with the lower classes. They were critical of the policies of the government and were drawn towards the revolutionary groups.

As we have seen the majority of the people lived in horrible conditions with no education, no health care and no equality before the law. In fact the Czar did not develop schools, in the hope that the lack of education would hamper the growth of revolutionary ideas.

9.2.3 Political Causes:

A review of the economic and social conditions of Russia, have shown us the backwardness of the country. What the country really needed was an efficient and capable government, but that is what was lacking in Russia.

This vast partly European, partly Asiatic country had been ruled for over 300 years by the Romanov Dynasty. Most of the Czars had been autocratic rulers. Czar Alexander II had tried to improve, the condition of the serfs but had not succeeded. The rest of them had depended on a vast bureaucracy to administer the country but had maintained all powers in their hands.

Czar Nicholas II (1894-1917) was not a strong character and was easily influenced by others. Czarina Alexandra and the monk Rasputin were two of the people who through the Czar interfered in political matters. He depended on them instead of the experienced ministers as a result there was no proper administration.

In Russia there were no civil and political rights, and no freedom of speech or expression. The Craziest Government dominated every aspect of man's life including the Church. Ethnic minorities were subjected to torture methods of punishment were barbarous and political offenders

were exiled to Siberia. The Russian people were terrorised into silence and obedience. The Craziest Regime was ruthless autocratic and repressive. Though Czar Nicholas II had granted the people a Parliament called the DUMA, it had limited powers and was an instrument of the Czar. The Zemstvos (local councils) were restricted to the rural areas only.

Russia, in the words of Lenin, “was a military despotism, embellished with parliamentary forms”.

9.2.4 Ideological Causes:

The material revolution in Russia was preceded by a revolution in IDEAS. Though the Czars had tried to keep the Russians away from western liberal and radical ideas, western thought did filter into Russia and influence the people. These new influences first found expression in literature. The novels of Tolstoy and Dostoevsky had a deep impact on the minds of young Russians. The liberal and educated people called the “intelligentsia” demanded political reforms. The students even formed revolutionary organisations. But the Czar did not give in to their demands and called their ideas ‘senseless dreams.’

Some socialist revolutionary groups focussed their attention on the peasants. In 1901, the SOCIAL REVOLUTIONARY PARTY was formed. They wanted to overthrow the Czar and form a new government of the proletariat. Their programme included the confiscation of large estates from the rich landlords and dividing it among the actual cultivators. The party believed in terrorism but did not use it at first.

Since the Czar did nothing to improve the situation, the Russians began to lose patience and the Radical intellectuals, turned to Socialism. They took their inspiration from Karl Marx. This group started the RUSSIAN SOCIAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY, in 1898. The teachings of Karl Marx were popularised and spread by radicals like MIXIM GORKY and revolutionary socialism made rapid progress among factory workers.

As with any other political party, there were differ of opinion here too. At the 1903 party meeting, there was a split within the party on the question of party discipline and tactics. There was a difference of opinion on who could be admitted into the party. The majority felt that the party should admit only devoted workers, while the minority felt that the party should admit all those who wished to join the party. The majority group known as BOLSHEVIKS (men of majority) were led by VLADIMIR ULIANOV better known as LENIN. The more moderate wing of the party came to be known as the MENSHEVIKS.

The Mensheviks were moderate in their views and methods. They were willing to cooperate with other political parties in order to overthrow the Czar. But they felt that there must be a transitory (temporary) stage of a Bourgeois Democratic Republic, before the final stage when a Socialist

Government would be established. They felt that all people must first understand and accept totally the ideas of Socialism before establishing a Socialist State.

The Bolsheviks on the other hand, stood for extreme measures and wanted the immediate overthrow of the Czar. They were willing to use force to establish a dictatorship of the Proletariat. They recognised only the working class and did not want to join hands with any middle-class political party.

Ultimately it was the Bolshevik doctrine, which shaped the character of the Soviet State.

9.2.5 Anti-Semitic Policy (Anti-Jewish Policy):

The Jews had been persecuted by the Czars, for a very long period of time. Czar Nicholas II continued with this policy, partly to divert the attention of the people from the failure of his foreign policy. Many of the Jews were wealthy, as they were involved in trade and commerce. They bribed the police for protection, the others were tortured and persecuted, and most left the country.

9.2.6 Persecution of National Minorities:

The large Russian Empire included the national minorities from FINLAND, POLAND, GEORGIA, ARMENIA and LATVIA. They were against the autocratic rule of the Czar. They formed an alliance to work for the overthrow of the Czar and the establishment of a representative government. They also wished to safeguard the rights and interests of the national minorities.

Though they were given representation in the second and third Dumas, their numbers were very few. This caused resentment. The Czar's government followed the policy of RUSSIFICATION among national minorities. E.g. Education was conducted through the Russian language. In many other ways the minorities were and they were an angry lot, ready to join any movement to overthrow the Czar.

9.3 EVENTS THAT LED TO THE REVOLUTION

9.3.1 Russo-Japanese war 1904-1905:

Russian imperialism suffered serious defeat in the early 20th century. Looking towards the east and partly because of China's weakness, Russia decided she wanted the provinces of Manchuria and Korea. Her ambition brought her into conflict with Japan. Japan too was following an imperialist policy. Her position and status was recognised by Britain, who signed a treaty with Japan in 1904.

The real source of conflict between Russia and Japan was warm water ports, in particular Port Arthur. After Japan defeated China in 1895, she signed the Treaty of Shimonoseki. Port Arthur was handed over to Japan. However, Russia, France and Germany forced Japan to return this port to China. Then Russia secured the port on lease from China. This angered the Japanese. They were also worried about Russian influence in Manchuria and Korea. Japan therefore demanded the withdrawal of Russian troops. Since Russia did not oblige, Japan was forced to declare war in 1904.

The war exposed the inefficiency of the Craziest government and the weakness of the Russian armed tomes. Russia suffered a humiliating defeat at of the tiny Asiatic country. The Russians had always thought of themselves as big and powerful and were not prepared for the war. The people were shocked and angry at this defeat and blamed the Czar

9.3.2 The Revolution of 1905:

As the war with Japan was being fought, there was increasing disorder and unrest within the country Czar Nicholas had ignored the demands for liberal reforms. But the middle-class liberals and the industrial workers became very vocal in their protests. The head of the police, Pleven was assassinated. Workers organised strikes and protest marches.

In 1905, the industrial workers of ST. Petersburg and Moscow formed the SOVIET—a Council of Workers Deputies—to represent themselves. A general strike was organised in St. Petersburg. A priest named, GAPON took a big procession of workers to the winter palace to present a petition to the Czar. The Russian police fearing trouble fired into the crowd, and killed hundreds of workers. January, 22, 1905 was thus named “BLOODY SUNDAY”. This event shocked the entire country and was followed by riots.

Following the advice of his moderate ministers, the Czar issued an IMPERIAL MANNIFESTO which promised liberal reforms. There was peace for some time, soon the Czar went back on his word and the people reacted with riots.

In 1905 there was a December revolution in which thousands of people were murdered in cold blood by the Russian troops. The revolutionary force became bolder and demanded the end of autocratic rule. As conditions began to worsen, the Czar was forced to summon a DUMA (a parliament) the first Duma met in 1906, but was dissolved because it demanded reforms. The second too suffered the same fate, and the third survived for five years. The Czar continued to rule with an iron hand, thus driving all revolutionary forces underground.

9.3.3. World War I:

Before the war began, all countries in Europe had signed agreements among themselves pledging to support each other in times of need. Russia

joined Britain and France to sign the ENTENTE CORDIALE, which was directed against Germany. When Austria attacked Serbia, Russia rushed to help her. This war developed into the World War I.

Russian entry into the war was considered an act of foolishness, since Russia was not at all prepared. The Government tried to encourage support for the war with patriotic slogans. All German sounding names were changed in Russia. St Petersburg was changed to PETROGRAD. On the war front, Russia fared very badly. They were defeated in many battles. Russian soldiers were ill-equipped and ill-trained. Many of the soldiers who went to war had no shoes or ammunition, and thus were no match for the Germans. There were heavy casualties in the army. About 1.7 million men were killed and 5 million were wounded.

On the home front, the situation was as bad. Industrial production was low, the transportation system was breaking down, food was scarce, prices were high, and by 1917 famine threatened the larger cities.

The Czar took no notice when the Duma protested against the inefficient conduct of the war. In an attempt to boost the morale of his soldiers, Czar Nicholas II went to the war front, leaving the government in the hands of his wife.

Check Your Progress:

1. Discuss the important causes of Russian Revolution of 1917.

9.4 THE TWO PHASES OF THE REVOLUTION

9.4.1 The February / March Revolution, 1917:

The crisis began in Petrograd in February 1917. On 18th February, (8 March, of the new calendar,) the Petrograd workers organised a big strike which was soon joined by large crowds. The shortage of food led to food riots. There were street demonstrations, workers, women and young people joined this strike movement. The Czar asked the commander of the local troops to put down the trouble in Petrograd. The order was not obeyed. Instead the soldiers began to mix with the workers and the local people. A Soviet of Workers and Soldiers Deputies was set up in the capital to direct the uprising. On the same day the Duma appointed a PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT. Within five days of the beginning of the revolution, Czar Nicholas II was forced to abdicate. Finding that

everyone had deserted him, the Czar finally resigned. Monarchy had come to an end, but the revolution continued.

9.4.2 Provisional Government and the Problems it faced:

The sudden resignation of the Czar had created confusion among the political parties in Russia, as they were unprepared to take over the government. Finally, the Constitutional Democrats, led by a landowner LUVOV, organised the government with the help of ALEXANDER KARENSKY, a social revolutionary. The Provisional Government was mainly made up of middle class men.

They introduced a number of liberal reforms like freedom of speech and the press, freedom of religion. The Government freed political prisoners and also allowed political exiles to return to the country. One of the most famous men who did return was LENIN. It made provisions for the election of a Constituent Assembly. This Assembly would prepare a constitution for Russia. At the same time it continued fighting the war and tried to encourage patriotism among the people.

However, in Russia the common man was not interested in political reforms. What mattered to him was whether there was food to eat. What mattered to the peasant was whether he owned the land he was cultivating. What mattered to the soldier was peace. The people did not want a political revolution, they wanted economic and social changes.

Thus the revolution which began as a liberal movement slowly moved towards Socialism. Local Soviets (councils) of working men and soldiers were set up all over Russia. These became centres of popular agitation and propaganda. Trouble continued as workers demanded higher wages, and peasants grabbed the land from the landlords. Soldiers refused to obey their officers. The war policy of the Cadets and become unpopular and they were thrown out of the Provisional Government. The MENSHEVIKS, who were moderate socialists, replaced them. Alexander Kerensky was the leader.

As a leader of the moderate socialists, Kerensky wanted to use constitutional and moderate methods to bring about socialism in the country. The Bolsheviks did not favour this policy. For some time he was able to convince the army to fight and they were successful against the Germans. But the success was temporary. The soldiers were strongly influenced by the Bolsheviks and soon refused to fight. The landlords and capitalists supported General Kornilov, the Commander-in-chief of the Russian army. He attempted to overthrow the government but the attempt was crushed.

Meanwhile the Bolsheviks had increased in numbers. They soon gained control of the Petrograd Soviet and in November 1917, by a COUP D'ETAT, over the Provisional Government. Kerensky fled from the

country. With this second revolution, power passed into the hands of the Bolsheviks.

9.4.3 The October / November Revolution, 1917:

Vladimir Ulyanovsk, more commonly known by his pen name Nikolai Lenin, was born in 1870 at Simbirsk on the River Volga. He was the son of a school inspector. Lenin studied law at the University of Kazan, where he was exposed to the writings of Karl Marx. His elder brother was executed for plotting to kill the Czar. This event had a deep effect on Lenin's mind. He soon turned into a revolutionary. The Russian police watched his activities and he was caught and exiled to Siberia. While in prison he spent his time in writing a book on Russian capitalism. This book caught the attention of many socialists. Between 1900 and 1917 he was in exile in Switzerland, except for two years i.e. 1905-1907.

In 1905 there was a lot of unrest in Russia. Lenin returned and preached Marxism. He also organised Soviets (councils) in towns and cities. These soviets played an important role in establishing the dictatorship of the proletariat in the November revolution.

9.4.4 Role of Lenin in the Bolshevik Revolution:

After the February revolution, among the many political exiles who returned to Russia were the Bolshevik party workers and their leader, Lenin. He returned to Russia from Switzerland, with the help of the Germans, in a 'sealed train'. The Germans helped Lenin because they felt the revolution would weaken Russia and that would help them to defeat Russia. Leon Trotsky returned from New York and Stalin from Siberia.

The Bolshevik leaders were in touch with what was happening in Russia and then used to smuggle revolutionary writings into Russia. They had a definite political and economic programme. Soon after his arrival, Lenin began to work for the downfall of the Provisional Government and the immediate takeover of the country by the Bolsheviks. His first task was to gain the confidence of the peasants, workers and soldiers. He promised the peasants land, the workers he promised bread, and the soldiers he promised peace. These promises won him a lot of support. Trotsky organised the Military Revolutionary Committee to work among the soldiers.

9.4.5 Bolshevik Revolution:

Lenin supported by Trotsky won over the party to his view and on November 6 and 7 the Bolsheviks took over the administration of Russia at gun-point. They took control of posts and telegraphs, telephones and railway stations, banks and important military depots. The members of the Provisional Government were at the Winter Palace, which was surrounded by troops loyal to Lenin. The Provisional Government

surrendered, and Kerensky fled abroad. The Bolsheviks led by Lenin declared Russia a SOVIET REPUBLIC.

Lenin had a huge job ahead of him. He had to get the support of all Russians. He had to organise a government, which would rebuild the social and economic life of Russia on communist Principles.

On 7th November 1917, Lenin met the all-Russian Congress of Soviets in Petrograd and announced his party plan. The Congress appointed a Central Executive Committee and a cabinet called the Soviet of Peoples Commissars. Lenin was appointed Chairman and Trotsky was the Commissar of Foreign Affairs.

Check Your Progress:

2. What were the important problems the Provisional Government faced?

9.5 BOLSHEVIK POLICIES, PROGRAMME AND PROBLEMS

The Bolsheviks decided to establish a socialist system. The Congress adopted the following proposals of Lenin (1) to establish peace, (2) private property was to be abolished and peasants were to use the land, (3) control of Production to be transferred to worker's committees, (4) establishment of dictatorship of the proletariat, and (5) the spread of communist ideas in the world.

9.5.1 Treaty of Brest-Litovsk:

The first job that Lenin had was to secure peace for Russia. This was necessary if the Bolsheviks were to concentrate their efforts on the problems at home. Soon after taking over Control, Lenin opened negotiations with the Central Powers and concluded a separate peace treaty with Germany and her allies. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk signed on 18th March 1918, was humiliating treaty and Russia lost a lot of territory.

9.5.2 Civil war and Opposition:

Not all Russians were happy with the changes that were taking place in their country. Between 1917 and 1930, the Bolsheviks known as the REDS, were defending their revolution against the WHITES who were reactionaries and supported by the western countries. Trotsky organised the war against the White Army and forced them to surrender by 1920.

There was opposition also from the nobles and the bourgeoisie, which Lenin was determined to crush. The freedom of the press was limited, political parties were broken up. An organisation to fight this opposition was started, popularly called "CHEKA". Thousands were put to death without a fair trial. This terror tactics broke the spirit of the old bourgeoisie class completely.

The royal family, who was at Yekaterinburg, was shot on 18th July 1918.

Religion and State were separated and religion was discouraged. Churches were closed and festivals could not be celebrated. Lenin believed that religion was the opium of the people.

9.5.3. Economic Reforms:

Lenin began the economic reconstruction of Russia by putting into practise the principle of Marxian Socialism. He abolished all private property and gave land to the peasants to the cultivated for the benefit of the state. The landowners were not compensated for the loss of their lands. Factories and workshops were seized by the state and their management was handed over to the working men. Here also, the original owners were not paid any compensation. Lenin allowed the workers to help in increasing the industrial output and share in the decision to fix prices. He did not allow them to interfere in the running of the industry. Labour was made compulsory for all citizens.

9.5.4 Reasons for the NEP:

The Bolsheviks had made sweeping changes in the social and economic system of Russia. Their programme of NATIONALISATION AND STATE OWNERSHIP produced results, which put Communism to very severe test. They realised that they had gone too far.

The peasants were happy to get rid of their landlords but they wanted the confiscated land for themselves. They wanted to make a profit on the surplus production, and were not interest in the Communist idea of handing over the surplus to the State. When the Government demanded this surplus, they cut down on production. In 1921, there was a drought and a severe famine. Millions died of starvation.

The industrial picture was not any better. Factories and large industries were nationalised and handed over to the workers. The workers were not trained managers and did not know how to run these units. Production decreased and prices rose very high. The railway system almost broke down. Shortage of food and decreasing industrial production caused terrible economic problems. There was a decline in the state revenue as taxes were not collected properly. The people were not happy with the new Government.

Lenin realised the danger of the economic situation. He saw that establishing pure Communism was not working. As the restlessness of the people increased, the possibility of a revolt increased Lenin responded positively to the situation decided to retreat from Communism for some time until the conditions improved.

9.5.5 NEP:

A change of policy was a crying necessity. Hence he proclaimed the NEW ECONOMIC POLICY or the NEP as it was commonly called. It was a retreat from pure Marxian Communism and it involved a compromise between Socialism and Capitalism. Private enterprise on a limited scale was to continue side by side with state enterprise. The series of reforms were aimed at bringing political and economic stability to the country.

Some of the main features of the NEP were:

- (1) The State would not take foodstuff from the peasants. Instead the peasants had to pay a fixed tax in cash.
- (2) The peasant was also allowed to sell surplus grains in the open market.
- (3) Private enterprise on a small scale was allowed, since only the big industries and public services were nationalised.
- (4) To secure liquid capital, profit-sharing concessions were allowed to foreign capitalists for large-scale agriculture and engineering projects. However the State retained the right to repurchase the products of such industries.
- (5) The state retained in its hands foreign trade, banks, mines, forests, railways and heavy industries.
- (6) Private retail trading was permitted under certain restrictions, but the State also set up retail stores of its own. This was in the form of competition and encouraged Consumer Co-operative Societies.
- (7) Incentives such as higher wages for improved production were offered to labourers.
- (8) Strikes in factories were banned.
- (9) A new currency was introduced on the basis of the gold standard.

9.5.6 Significance of the NEP:

The NEP was a departure from the Marxian ideas, although it was not a complete return to capitalism. Lenin and other Communist leaders regarded it as a temporary measure. Lenin described the NEP as taking “one step backward in order to take two steps forward”. There is no doubt that the NEP helped in economic recovery as the industrial and agricultural production slowly began to rise. The NEP saved the Bolshevik Government from a great economic catastrophe.

9.5.7 Death of Lenin:

Lenin worked so hard between 1918 and 1922 that his health began to fail. He died in January 1924, and was unable to see the full working of the NEP. As the Father of the Bolshevik Revolution and the creator of new Russia he will be always occupy a prominent place in the pages of history. He had a strong will and a fanatical faith in Communism, combined with a keen sense of political expediency. To save the revolution he reversed his policy and thereby averted a great catastrophe. The Communists have raised him to the stature of divinity and his tomb in Moscow has become a shrine and an object of public worship.

On the death of Lenin two prominent Communist leaders LEON TROTSKY and JOSEPH STALIN, Stalin, contested for the leadership of the party. Trotsky had helped Lenin in the November revolution. He was in favour of working for world revolution. The peasants did not support him and others did not support the idea of world revolution. Stalin was a realist in politics. He wanted to concentrate on national revival instead of world revolution. He was a clever politician and worked quietly to remove Trotsky. Trotsky was expelled from the communist Party and exiled from the USSR in 1929. Stalin then became the virtual ruler.

Check Your Progress:

3. Describe the programmes and policies of the Bolsheviks.

9.6 IMPACT OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

The Russian Revolution takes its place in History by the side of the American and the French Revolutions. It was never before had an attempt been made on such a large scale to change the entire political, social and economic structure of a community on the basis of a theory of social thinkers.

The interesting features of this experiment were its sphere, its scope and its agency. Its sphere was a population over 200 million occupying 1/6th of the world's surface. Its scope was the creation of a Communist Society. Its agency was the entire machinery of government. In less than 20 years, the landlord and the capitalist disappeared from Russian society and private enterprise was limited.

Politically, the cult of the common man, popular in all democracies was a contribution of the Russian Revolution. This was a definite influence of

Soviet democracy. Dictatorship of the Proletariat is a different kind of democracy compared to the bourgeoisie democracy of the west. Under the Russian system the government can introduce changes much faster. However, in the Russian system the basic freedom of man is limited.

Economically, the Soviet system has influenced a large part of the world. The adoption of five year plans for economic development of a country has become popular. India and many other Asia, African and Latin-American countries have adopted Stalin's idea for economic development.

Thirdly, economic planning indicates a definite social policy. For example, five year plans were introduced in India with the purpose of establishing a socialistic pattern of society. Economic planning is meant to improve the condition of the masses and it leads to equal rights for all sections of society.

The establishment of the COMINTERN encouraged the labouring classes all over the world to stand united against the capitalist class. The popular slogan of the time was, 'Workers of the world unite. You have nothing to lose but your chains and the world to gain'.

Fourthly, Russia became one of the dominant powers of the world. She was the leader of the Communist bloc. The Russian national policy was to help spread communism to other parts of the world. Many countries were influenced by communism to other parts of the world. Many countries were influenced by communist ideology and opted for a change of government. After world war II much of Eastern such as East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Bulgaria, Hungary, turned communist and came under the influence of Russia. In fact they were referred to as her 'satellites'. In Asia, China, North Korea and Vietnam chose Communist Governments.

The Bolshevik Revolution challenged in a very powerful way the various values of western culture, the fundamental principles of trade and industry, the well-established systems of government, the social political and economic institutions and the methods of diplomacy. By challenging the Western intellectual domination of the world, it forced to re-evaluate western values of civilization.

Check Your Progress:

4. Enumerate the major effects of the Russian Revolution of 1917.

9.7 SUMMARY

Before World War I, Russia was not only one of the largest countries in the world, but also one of the so-called Powers. Nearly 4/5 of the population consisted of peasants and the people were economically and culturally backward. Economic conditions were unsatisfactory, because industrial development was slow and in agriculture farmers still used traditional methods of cultivation. Taxes were very high. The military had become weak due to corruption and inefficient management.

Politically, Russia had a monarchical system of government and was ruled by the Romanov Czars. They were despotic rulers and the people had no rights. After the defeat of Russia by the Japanese in 1904. The Russians revolted but they were ruthlessly put down. Though the Duma was summoned, in practice it had no power, the conditions prevailing in the country inspired revolutionary movements of which the Social Democrats and the Social Revolutionaries were important.

The Czar and his advisors, the bureaucracy, the military officers and the feudal elements were opposed to reforms. So, when the country involved itself in World War I, the weak autocracy collapsed. Two Revolutions broke out—the February Revolution and October Revolution of 1917.

The February revolution saw the Mensheviks in power with Alexander Kerensky as the leader of the PROVISIONAL Government. The October revolution saw the Bolsheviks in power with Lenin as the leader. The Bolsheviks introduced a Socialism system of government. Lenin dealt with the Civil War effectively and also withdrew from the First World War. However, his initial economic reforms were not so successful. He then introduced the New Economic Policy with a partial return to capitalism.

The Revolution had a deep impact on many countries of the world. It challenged the traditional economic, political and social systems.

9.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Examine the causes of the February Revolution 1917 in Russia.
2. Analyse the social, political and economic causes of the Russian Revolution 1917.
3. Discuss the working of the Provisional Government. Why did it fail?
4. Describe the role played by Lenin in the Bolshevik Revolution 1917.
5. Assess the significance and results of the Russian Revolution.
6. Discuss the policies and programmes of the Bolshevik Government after coming to power. What reforms did they introduce?
7. What was the NEP? Assess its impact on the Russian economy.

8. Write short notes on the following:
- (a) Economic causes of the Russian Revolution.
 - (b) Political causes of the Russian Revolution
 - (c) Ideological causes of the Revolution
 - (d) Revolution of 1905
 - (e) Russia and World War I
 - (f) The Provisional Government.
 - (g) Lenin's NEP
 - (h) Impact of the Russian Revolution.

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MODULE IV

10

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Unit Structure

- 10.0 Objectives
- 10.1 Establishment of League of Nation
- 10.2 The Organisation of The League of Nations
- 10.3 Aims and Objectives
- 10.4 Membership
- 10.5 Main Organs of The League Of Nations
- 10.6 Auxillary Organs
- 10.7 Achievements of The League In The Political Field
- 10.8 Achievements of The League In The Social Field
- 10.9 Causes of the Failure of The League of Nations
- 10.10 Summary
- 10.11 Unit End Questions

10.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying of this module the student will be able to

1. Understand the aim and objectives of the League of Nations.
2. Comprehend the membership and organisation of the League of Nations.
3. Describe the achievement of the League of Nations.
4. Discuss about the failure of the League of Nations.

10.1 ESTABLISHMENT OF LEAGUE OF NATION

In January 1918, 10 months before World War I ended, President Woodrow Wilson of the U. S.A. proposed a set of war aims called the Fourteen Points. Wilson believed that the Fourteen Points would bring about a just peace settlement, which he called 'peace without victory.' Eight of Wilson's Fourteen Points dealt with specific political and territorial settlements. The rest of them put forward general principles aimed at preventing future wars. The last point proposed the establishment of an international association—later called the League of Nations—to maintain peace.

Wilson believed that as long as each nation was responsible for its own defence, world wars would continue to take place. He wanted all nations to join together in the League, and promise to defend the independence and territory of any member attacked by another nation. Wilson got other countries to agree to his plan but the U.S.A. refused to join.

The League of Nations was established in January 1920. The main organs of the League were the Assembly, the Council and the Secretariat. It also functioned through auxiliary organs like the International Court.

10.2 THE ORGANISATION OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The scale of the war of 1914, the immense losses which it involved, the suffering of the civilian population, the huge financial burden on the defeated and victorious countries – all these factors produced hatred in the minds of people for war. The common feeling was that war does not solve problems. Throughout recorded History, mankind has shown a blind faith in the use of force to eliminate national problems. By substituting collective action for individual action, the League of Nations was designed to give all people a sense of security, which would make them think in terms of peace and not in terms of conflict as in the past. Thus the League tried to achieve the deepest psychological revolution – to transform the war mentality of man into a peace mentality.

The birth of this international organisation was in the form of a COVENANT (constitution) which was included in all the treaties signed at the Paris Peace Conference 1919. The founder was President Woodrow Wilson of the U.S.A. He realised the necessity of such an organisation as a cure for all the problems that the world was suffering. The last point in his programme of 14 points refers to a general association which would guarantee. “Political independence and territorial integrity”. During the discussions at the peace conference, he insisted on the formation of this League. The League when finally established in Geneva was a compromise between two extreme views. It was to work as a world body with a strong commitment towards maintaining world peace even if it were to mean punishing a member which was in the wrong.

10.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The main jobs that the League had to perform were: (a) to prevent wars, (b) to maintain peace, (c) to carry out the special duties as stated in the peace treaties, (d) to promote international co-operation.

Many articles were included within the Covenant to ensure that war was avoided. Article 10 urged all members “to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence.” Article 11 authorised the League to take suitable action to

safeguard the peace of nations. Article 12 says that members should submit their disputes to arbitration. Article 15 said that any dispute which could not be settled by arbitration should be submitted to the League's Council. Secret treaties and agreements were forbidden. The League had the power to impose economic sanctions against any nation, which broke the law. Thus Articles 10 to 16 ensured the prevention of war and Maintenance of peace.

The other Articles mentioned the positive role that the League had to play. e.g. Article 23 referred to the promotion of just and humane conditions of labour for men, women and children. Another referred to the need for bringing about a general disarmament among nations. The Covenant made provisions for the creation of an International Court of Justice.

10.4 MEMBERSHIP

The League started functioning in January 1920 and in November shifted its headquarters from Paris to Geneva. Any self-governing country could become a member if two-thirds of the Assembly agreed to the membership. All peace-loving states were admitted.

There were two kinds of members of the League: Original and Non-original. The Original members were those states that had signed the Treaty of Versailles and who had joined before 20th March 1920. Non-original members were those who were admitted after that date.

When the Assembly first met in November 1920 there were 41 member states. By 1924 the number rose to 50 and by 1934 to 60. The Central Powers were not admitted for some time because they were guilty of starting World War I. Russia too did not join for a long time. The U.S.A. Senate refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles and thus did not become a member.

Membership of the League could be lost by the following methods. A nation could withdraw its membership of the League by giving a two years notice. Under Article 16 of the Covenant, a nation could be expelled from the League if it went against the Covenant.

10.5 MAIN ORGANS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The main organs through which the League functioned were: (a) The Assembly, (b) a Council, (c) a Secretariats.

10.5.1 The Assembly consisted of representatives of all member nations. Though each country could send three representatives, they only had a single vote. The meetings were held once a year but special sessions could be held. The Assembly controlled the League budget, admitted new members, elected the temporary Council members, and made amendments

to the Covenant. On these matters the Assembly could decide by a two-thirds or a majority vote.

As a deliberative body, the Assembly could also discuss any matter that was a threat to peace for its recommendations to be accepted it needed a majority vote in the Assembly. In practise the Assembly worked well and it made real contribution to international co-operation

10.5.2 At the beginning, the COUNCIL was made up of four permanent members, i.e. Britain, France, Italy and Japan. There were four non-permanent members, but the number was increased to six. These seats were rotated among the small nations of the League. Germany was made a permanent member in 1926. The first non-permanent members were Belgium, Brazil, Greece and Spain.

The Council met frequently. They dealt with any matter affecting peace in the world. Their duties included drawing up plans to protect members from external aggression. When disputes were brought before them they made inquiries into the matter and suggested solutions to the problem. They were required to make plans for reduction of armaments. The reports submitted by the Mandatones were studied and the administration of certain territories like the free city of Danzig was supervised.

Since the Council enjoyed executive powers, it could impose sanctions on any nation disturbing the peace. This recommendation required an unanimous vote in the Council.

10.5.3 The SECRETARIAT:

The administrative staff of the League. A Secretary – General, who was nominated by the Council and approved by the Assembly, headed a staff of about 600 officials. These officials assisted the peacekeeping work of the League. The Secretariat kept records, maintained correspondence and helped in the work of all the organs. The Secretary – General registered and published all the treaties signed by the member nations. The secretariat provided staff for the various international organisations set up by the League to promote co-operation in international trade, finance, transportation, communication, health and science.

The first Secretary—General was SIR ERIC DRUMMOND of Great Britain from 1920 to 1933. He was helped in his duties by two Deputy Secretary-Generals and two Under-Secretaries. The official languages of the League were English and French.

10.6 AUXILIARY ORGANS

In addition to the main organs of the League, there were, a number of auxiliary organs in the of Advisory Committees and Technical Agencies. The most important were the following:

The Permanent Court Of International Justice (World Court):

Article 14 of the Covenant provided for the establishment of such a court. The draft for setting up this court was passed by the Council and also by the Assembly. The Permanent Court was composed of 11 judges and was situated at the Hague (Netherlands). The Council and the Assembly chose the judges for a term of nine years. The Court had the power to “hear and determine any dispute of an international character which the parties submit to it”. The court could also give advisory opinion. The Permanent Court codified international law and also interpreted the law to decide which nation had violated the law. The Court started functioning from 1921 till the end.

The International Labour Organisation (ILO):

This organisation was established by Article 23. It was to be an autonomous body consisting of a General Assembly, Governing Body and an International Labour Office. The representatives in these bodies devoted their time to discuss various problems affecting labour. They worked to improve conditions of workers, especially women and children. The League set up other minor agencies to fulfil its obligations. The Mandates Commission effectively supervised the administration of colonial territories. Another agency looked after refugees. Yet another agency, checked epidemics. Similarly, another dealt with the illegal drug trade and slavery.

Check Your Progress:

1. Discuss in brief the organisation of the League of Nations?

10.7 ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE LEAGUE IN THE POLITICAL FIELD

In the twenty years of its career, the League dealt with a large number of political disputes between nations. Many of them were settled peacefully. Disputes between smaller nations were scaled rather quickly. However the bigger and more powerful nations did not like the investigations of the League and said it violated their sovereignty. Sometimes they pressurized

the League to decide in their favour. Some of the political disputes will be discussed below.

In 1920, the League settled a dispute between FINLAND and SWEDEN over the ownership of the AALAND ISLANDS. The islands were handed over to Finland but the Swedish nationality of the people was to be preserved.

In 1921, a dispute between POLAND and GERMANY over the boundary line to be drawn in UPPER SILESIA was submitted to the League. After investigations the League decided that the boundary line between Germany and Poland should pass through Upper Silesia and the area should be an economic unit supervised by the League for a period of fifteen years.

In 1921, the League secured the withdrawal of SERBLAN troops from ALBANIA by threatening to impose economic sanctions.

In 1923, ITALY attacked and occupied the GREEK ISLAND of CORFU because four of her subjects had been murdered there. The Italian government demanded an apology and reparation for the crime. The League brought about a settlement.

The League also successfully settled the MOSUL boundary dispute between BRITAIN and TURKEY. A neutral committee investigated the claims of the two countries in the oil-rich Mosul area and the League ruled in favour of Turkey.

The smooth operation of the MANDATE SYSTEM may be described as one of the greatest achievements of the League. Under Article 22, the League was to take charge of the colonies taken away from Germany and Turkey. The League appointed France and Britain as mandatory powers to look after these countries till they became independent. In 1920 a Mandatory Commission was appointed to review the progress made by these people. The League received reports from the people concerned and the governments functioning there. On the basis of these reports the Commission made recommendations to the Council.

Check Your Progress:

2. Bring out achievements of the League of Nations?

10.8 ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE LEAGUE IN THE SOCIAL FIELD

There was much constructive work done by the League through lesser bodies. Since this work was dramatic and did not involve confrontation between nations, not much has been written about it. Some of the achievements are listed below:

The League successfully looked after 30,000,000 members of national minorities in Central and Eastern Europe. A MINORITIES COMMITTEE was appointed. It supervised the resettlement of Greek refugees from Asia Minor and Eastern Thrace. The League negotiated for the return of prisoners of war in Russia.

The League did a lot of work to control the illegal drug trade and also to eliminate the trafficking of women and children.

It did a commendable job in suppressing slavery and bonded labour. In 1932 it set up a permanent Slavery Commission. The International Labour Organisation was successful in improving the conditions of labour class all over the world, particularly of women and children.

The League for the first time, spread the idea of international co-operation among peoples of the world and tried to make the world a better place to live in.

10.9 CAUSES OF THE FAILURE OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Although the League achieved great progress in the early years of its existence, in the long run it failed to achieve its objectives. It proved to be weak machinery, unable to prevent a war to make the world safe for democracy, and to establish peace based on justice. Finally it was officially closed on 19th April 1946. Naturally the question as to why the League failed has been repeatedly asked. Numerous answers have been given.

The failure of the League could be explained in terms of the following analysis:

1. LEAGUE PART OF THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES:

The Covenant, which gave birth to the League, was part of all the peace treaties. Since the treaties were one-sided and favoured only the victorious Allies, the defeated nations felt that the League was a biased body. Though they were forced to join it, they were not admitted for quite some time. Hence they viewed it with great suspicion and hatred.

2. ABSENCE OF THE U.S.A.:

The refusal of the U.S.A. to join this body was a great moral loss. The League had been founded due to the efforts of President Woodrow Wilson. He felt that only collective effort on the part of all nations would prevent a war and maintain peace. But the U.S.A. Senate rejected the Treaty of Versailles. The participation of the U.S.A. in the League's activities could have prevented international lawlessness and the outbreak of the Second World War.

3. DOMINATION BY GREAT POWERS:

It was felt that the League was dominated by big powers like Britain, France, Italy and Japan. Smaller nations had no role to play. On many important issues the Great Powers could not agree and voted against each other in the meetings. This made the League ineffective and powerless. The Powers failed to support the League, and so the League failed to support the Powers. Germany joined only in 1926 and Russia in 1934. The absence of such powers further weakened the League.

4. LACK OF AN ARMED FORCE:

The League did not have any armed force to stop any aggressive nation. It had to depend upon member-countries to carry out its decision against aggressor nations. Many times the members failed to give adequate support. When economic sanctions were applied against Italy, Britain and France continued to supply oil to her.

5. FAILURE TO ACHIEVE DISARMAMENT:

The League Council had been given the task of making plans for the reduction of armaments. Technical commissions were appointed, but the discussions did not prove fruitful. France was reluctant to weaken her defences. The World Disarmament Conference 1932 was a failure and a great disappointment. At this conference Germany demanded an equal level of armaments with France. France opposed this request. Hitler used the French attitude as an excuse not only to withdraw from the conference but also to withdraw from the League itself. .

6. RISE OF DICTATORSHIPS AND FAILURE TO CHECK AGGRESSION:

The rise of dictators in Europe lessened the chances of the success of the League. Mussolini of Italy and Hitler of Germany treated the League with contempt. Military dictatorship in Japan and the Communist dictatorship in Russia proved to be dangerous for the League as they went against the principles and objectives of the League. Germany blamed the League for failing to bring about disarmament and refused to be tied down by the terms of the Treaty of Versailles any longer. Japan also left the League after invading Manchuria. In 1935, Mussolini invaded Ethiopia (Abyssinia), disregarding the League. The dictators exploited the helplessness of the League and defied international law.

7. CONFLICTING INTERESTS OF GREAT POWERS:

The Great Powers used the League to serve their own ends. They did not agree that 'collective security' was the main purpose of the League.

Britain looked upon the League as a means to continue her favourite theory i.e. the maintenance of the balance of power in Europe. British leaders considered it a meeting place for powerful nations to consult in case of a threat to peace.

France saw the League mainly as an organisation that would maintain the territorial settlement imposed on Germany after World War I. She wanted the League to guarantee her security from a possible German attack.

The Soviet Union believed the League was a fake body, because Communism taught that war was inevitable among capitalist nations.

As Pitman B. Putter observed, "The ultimate culprits in the failure of the League were the Member-States. It was not the League of Nations, but the nations which failed the League."

Check Your Progress:

3. Account for the failure of the League of Nations?

10.10 SUMMARY

Wilson and other statesmen who designed the League hoped it would lead nations to stop seeking protection through secret alliances. Instead they favoured a system of 'collective security.' In this system the security of each member would be guaranteed by the protection of all. For collective security to work, it was necessary that all members come to the aid of each other if any member was attacked. The League could not force nations to help each other. It had to be a voluntary action. Each nation had to believe that a threat to the peace of any nation however small, was a threat to its own peace.

Why the League failed was most dramatically illustrated when Italy attacked Ethiopia in 1935. The League declared that Italy had gone against the Covenant and asked members to impose sanctions against Italy. Members agreed to stop all imports from Italy and to send no money or war materials to Italy. But the U.S.A., Japan and Germany were not members. It was left to Britain, France and Russia to strongly oppose Italy. However Britain and France were not willing to use force to stop

Italy, as it might lead to war. They did not impose the oil sanctions against Italy, and finally Italy conquered Ethiopia in May 1936. The Ethiopian crisis completely discredited the League as an instrument of maintaining peace.

When Woodrow Wilson had put forward his Fourteen Points, he had hoped it would bring about a peaceful settlement after the war. He argued that unless all countries collectively tried to maintain peace, there would be no peace. All countries had to respect each other's territorial integrity. On the basis of these ideas, he proposed the establishment of an international association called the League of Nations.

The main aim of the League was to prevent war, promote peace and international co-operation. The League functioned through the main organs of the Assembly, the Council and the Secretariat. There were other auxiliary organs like the International Court and the World Health Organisation.

Unfortunately the League failed in its main purpose of preventing war. It was the member nations themselves who failed the League as they refused to obey orders. The League did not have any military force with which to compel members to obey. When the League asked Italy not to colonise Abyssinia and to withdraw, Italy withdrew from the League instead.

But in the field of social and humanitarian work it accomplished much. Its agencies did much to suppress the illegal drug trade, prostitution of women and children and to abolish slavery. The League was also successful in promoting educational and intellectual Co-operation and in co-ordinating health and scientific organisations throughout the world.

10.12 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. What were the aims and objectives of the League of Nations? How did the League function?
2. Describe the organs of the League and how did they function?
3. Describe the achievements and failures of the League of Nations.
4. Why did the League of Nations fail?
5. Write short notes on the following:
 - (a) Aims and objectives of the League.
 - (b) Achievements of the League.
 - (c) Reasons for the failure of the League.
