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Introduction

There are numerous AP study guides available for European History. The advantages of this guide include:

- It is the collected works of many AP European History teachers.
- It is student-tested in real class situations by an AP European History teacher. (Many study guides are written by people who have never taught the subject.)
- The Review Outline 1450-2000, European History Timeline, and Short Outline of European History are short enough that you can study the material several times before the AP test. (Most other study guides have too much information to cover in a short time.)
- Toward the beginning of April, you can look over the **European History Identifications**, making note cards for the ones you do not recall.
- The **Review Essays** are edited from a list suggested by AP Graders.
- The Guide to Writing a Free Response Essay, Guide to Approaching a DBQ, and Guide to Writing a DBQ will teach you the techniques needed to write successful AP European History essays. (Many of the skills you have learned in Language Arts do not apply to this type of writing.) How to approach POV is included on pages 88-89.
- The Nine-point Rubric and the Core Scoring DBQ Rubric are simplified so that you can use them as a guide to writing your essays. These rubrics have been modified to show new standards from 2007 readings.
- Because the multiple-choice section of the AP test constitutes 50% of the grade,
 The Multiple Choice Tips section will improve your chances of increasing your score and passing the test.
- The section on **Test Anxiety** will allow you to overcome one of the major reasons students struggle with test-taking—much less during an AP test.
- The section on **24 Hours Before The Test** will, if followed, have you ready to perform at your peak at test time.
- The Glossary of European History will allow you to quickly reference terms.

We would like to thank all of our fellow teachers and our students for all their work that we used to develop this study guide.

Alternative: ...all their help in developing this study guide?

Strategies

Use the 45-page **Review Outline 1450-2000** to study as you near the test. Develop a study calendar and schedule your review completion about a week before the test.

Tear the **Short Outline of European History** out of the book and carry it with you to study whenever time permits.

Tear the **European History Timeline** out of the book and carry it with you to study whenever time permits.

Go through all the **European History Identifications** and use the **Glossary of European History** to construct flash cards for the ones you do not know.

Read the **Glossary of European History** in its entirety and again, as often as you come across terms you do not know, use it to make more flash cards.

Write theses for the **Review Essays**. If you have a group of friends, divide the essays and share written answers, if not, review the essays for which you cannot write a thesis.

Study the **Guide to Writing a Free Response Essay**. Use this guide to write future essays.

Study and apply the **Nine-point Rubric** to the essays you have written this year.

Study the Guide to Approaching a DBQ. Use this guide to break down future DBQs.

Study the Guide to Writing a DBQ. Use this guide to write future DBQs.

Study and apply the Core Scoring DBQ Rubric to any DBQs you have written this year.

Study the **POV** section.

Study and apply the **Multiple Choice Tips** to tests you have already written in class this year.

Study and apply the **Essay Writing Tips** to essays you have already written in class this year.

Use the Essay Review Checklist when writing future essays.

Read and apply **Test Anxiety** suggestions if needed.

Follow the **24 Hours Before The Test** suggestions.

Review Outline 1450–2000

Renaissance

The Italian Renaissance

- Italy jutted out in the Mediterranean and had easy access to the Middle East
- City-states became banking and trade centers during Crusades
- Florence (Medici) and Milan (Sforza) were city-states that were most famous during the Renaissance
 - The Medici Family
 - Giovanni de Medici—founder of Florence. World's first modern man
 - · Cosimo de Medici—son of Giovanni
 - Lorenzo the Magnificent—personified the Renaissance attitude of life. Great patron of the arts
- The Sacking of Rome by Charles V in 1527 ended the Renaissance

Renaissance Literature

- Vernacular—common, everyday language
- Humanism—literary movement where the individual is emphasized and religion is de-emphasized. Moral and civic values were answered by virtú
- Virtú—the belief than man has power and should be able to use it. Abided by the ethos "be all that you can be"

Authors

- Petrarch—father of humanism, wrote poems to Laura
- Pico della Mirandola—called for rise of human dignity in Oration on the Dignity of Man
- Machiavelli—author of The Prince, which said that a ruler should be feared rather than loved, and should do anything to gain and maintain power
- Boccaccio—wrote The Decameron, a series of tales told by people "hiding in the countryside" from the plague
- Dante—criticized the Roman Catholic Church by writing Inferno: The Divine Comedy, a tour through heaven and hell
- Castiglione—wrote Book of the Courtier, a practical guide to behavior

Renaissance Art

New styles were introduced. The concept of realism was introduced by Renaissance painters

- Fresco painting on wet plaster
- Linear perspective new style of art developed by Giotto
- Chiaroscuro use of light to portray emotion

Artists

- Donatello artist who sculpted the Bronze David
- Leonardo da Vinci typified the Renaissance Man. He did everything—from art to new sciences, Last Supper, Mona Lisa
- Michelangelo created the marble sculpture of David and painted the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel
- Raphael painted the Madonna and The School of Athens
- Botticelli painted Birth of Venus

The Northern Renaissance

Was basically same thing as the Italian Renaissance, but religious values were stressed more

Mysticism – the belief that one could communicate without the Church to God

Authors

- Erasmus Dutch Christian Humanist ("Prince of Humanists"), wrote The Praise of Folly
- Sir Thomas More English Christian Humanist who wrote Utopia
- Cervantes Spanish author of Don Quixote, a satire about Spanish feudalism

Artists

- Rembrandt painted The Nightwatch
- Rubens Flemish Catholic painter, used Baroque style
- Durer famous for his wood engravings
- Van Eyck Dutch artist
- Velasquez royal portrait painter of the Spanish Monarchy

The Protestant Reformation

3 Church Abuses

- Simony—buying and selling of church property
- Nepotism—appointing family members to position of power
- Pluralism—holding more than one office at a time

The Babylonian Captivity

- The Catholic Church moved its papacy to Avignon, France
- Church lost prestige and showed that it is subservient to the French Monarchy

Great Schism

The *Great Schism* began when two popes, one in Avignon and the other in Rome, were elected. Moral decline of the Renaissance popes made people question papal infallibility.

Early Reformers

- Wycliffe—believed the church was corrupt and developed first ideas of reformation
- Hus—also believed that the church should reform
- Council of Constance—ended the Great Schism and Babylonian Captivity.
 Charles V took control. Hus burned at the stake
- Martin Luther—German monk living in Wittenberg, taught the study of God's Word (The Bible) (He had reasons of reformation in the corruption of indulgences) "When a coin in the coffer rings, a soul from purgatory springs"
- Angered at John Tetzel selling indulgences for Pope Leo X, Luther posted 95 Thesis abuses of the Catholic Church on the church doors
- At first, he was viewed as a minor revolutionary, but gained support of many German princes hoping to gain political freedom from the Catholic Church

Views of Martin Luther

- Salvation by faith alone
- Bible is the Ultimate Authority, not the Pope. The grace of God brings absolution, and the seven sacraments are not needed
- Only the Lord's Supper, not transubstantiation (bread and wine to body and blood), and baptism are necessary
- The clergy is not superior to the laity. The church should be subordinate to the state

- Diet of Worms

 —Martin Luther vs. the Catholic Church. Argued over religion.

 Luther said only the Bible could change him. He was excommunicated because
 he refused to recant his teachings
- The Holy Roman Empire (HRE) outlawed him, but Luther was safe in Saxony. By Frederick the Wise Lutheranism spreads to Northern Europe
- The Schmalkaldic League formed in fear of Charles V
 - Peasant's War—first modern peasant uprising. They revolted and said it was in the name of Luther. Luther said to crush them
 - Peace of Augsburg—allowed the ruler of the land to choose between Lutheranism and Catholicism—"Cuius regio, eius religio"—"Whose region, their religion" (subjects must accept their ruler's religion)

John Calvin

- Calvinism began with Zwingli (Zwingli disagreed on the concept of Transubstantiation with both Calvin & Luther), Geneva known as the Protestant Rome
- Calvin believed basically the same thing as Luther, but differed on the role of the state in church affairs
- Wrote Institutes of the Christian Religion

Beliefs of Calvin

Most of what Luther believed except:

- Predestination—man is predestined to go to heaven or hell Church should be higher than the state and have a role in government
 - John Knox—Calvinist who spread Calvinism in Scotland, known as Presbyterianism
 - Huguenots—French Calvinists

English Reformation

Henry VIII (1509–1547)

- Was angry at Luther for breaking away from the Catholic Church and wrote In Defense of the Seven Sacraments
- Because of his book, the pope made him *Defender of the Faith*
- Henry wanted a divorce from Catherine of Aragon because she bore him no male heirs
- Pope said no and Henry broke from the Catholic Church due to anger
- He appointed Thomas Crammer as the *Archbishop of Canterbury*

- Henry got his divorce and married Anne Boleyn
- Act of Supremacy—Henry VIII became head of the Church, not the pope
- Henry took away monastery lands and executed Thomas More
 - Edward I—Protestant heir of Henry VIII, dies after 7 months
 - Mary I—Catholic heir after Edward I. Brings Inquisition to England. Referred to as "Bloody Mary"
 - Elizabeth I—heir after Mary. Practiced Politique (Religious toleration)
- Thirty-nine Articles—broad and ambiguous religious topics that both Protestants and Catholics could believe in
- Anglican Church—new church founded by Elizabeth I, mainly because of the 39 articles
- Elizabethan Age (1558-1603)—age when Elizabeth I ruled and England flourished.
 Shakespeare wrote plays during this era
- High Commission—"Anglican Inquisition" in belief, but not in practice

French Reformation

Francis XI (1485–1509)

- Signed the Concordat of Bologna, which allowed France to appoint their bishops
- Because of this, France was not greatly affected by the Protestant Reformation
- They were given power to control their own clergy

Catholic Counter-Reformation

- First Counter-Reformation meetings were held in Pisa 1511 and by the 55th Lateran Council in 1512
- Index of Prohibited Books—pope instituted forbidden reading material in order to stop Protestantism
- Council of Trent—agreed that no concessions will be made to the Protestants
- Catholic Doctrine remained the same
- Ended nepotism and indulgences

Counter Crusade

- Pope Paul III—Pope during the Counter Crusade
- Ignatius Loyola—founder of the Jesuits
- Jesuits—Society of Jesus. Strict, militant counter-reformers

Age of Exploration

Early Explorers

- Prince Henry the Navigator—Portuguese king who made compass, revolutionized trading and open trade routes for Portugal
- Vasco da Gama—discovered trade route to India (Portuguese)
- · Columbus—"discovers" New World, west to go east
- Magellan—first to circumnavigate the world, larger than thought
- John Cabot—explored the Americas for England
- Jacques Cartier—North America explorer for France
- Cortez and Pizarro—conquer Aztecs & Incas

Spanish Rule

- Exploitation vs. Colonization
 - Divide into two regions to rule (Viceroys)
 - Council of the Indies in Spain made all decisions Viceroys enforce
- Class structure established
 - Spaniards—came to visit or work and not stay
 - Creole—European born in New World
 - Meztizo—European Indian combination
 - Mulatto—European Black combination mainly in Caribbean Islands
 - Native Indians
- Economic Policies
 - Ecomienda—grant of land given that includes Indians
 - Hacienda—grant of land included some Indian working obligation
- English
 - Came to colonize
 - Usually fleeing some sort of persecution
- French
 - Mainly came for furs

Spain and England

Spain

Ferdinand and Isabella

- Devoted Catholics who brought the Inquisition
- Inquisition—a torturous way of getting someone to become Catholic

Philip II

- Most Catholic king
- Wealth from New World made him the most powerful ruler in Europe
- Sinking of Spanish Armada ended his power
- Wealth of New World caused great problems with inflation

Problems in Holland

- Stadtholder—an elected government official (leader, most important noble or politician) who provides military leadership of the 17 provinces
- William of Orange (William the Silent)—born Lutheran, but raised Catholic, stadtholder that eventually united the Netherlands together against the Spanish
- Compromise of 1564—the unification of the Netherlands to fight against Spain
- Duke of Alva—sent by Philip II along with Margaret to stamp out Protestantism and to raise taxes in the Netherlands
- Council of Troubles (Council of Blood)—used Inquisition and executed over 1,500 Protestants daily
- Sea Beggars—unemployed sailors who opened up the dikes, flooded the Netherlands, and killed 20,000 Spanish soldiers. The Antwerp commercial superiority was destroyed
- Pacification of Ghent (1576)—the northern seven provinces became independent (Union of Utrecht) while the southern ten provinces (Catholic Union of Arras) remained loyal to Spain as the Spanish Netherlands
- The Twelve Years Truce—truce between Spanish Netherlands and Union of Utrecht
- The Union of Utrecht:
- Commercialized and became the financial center of Northern Europe
- Religiously tolerant, applied to Calvinism
- Controlled the Scheldt River

Involvement with England

- Mary Stuart (Queen of Scots)—Catholic great granddaughter of Henry VII who married Henry III (King of France)
- Don Juan—Philip the Second sent him to the Netherlands. Was his half-brother and was supposed to raise taxes in Netherlands and stamp out Protestantism Goals were to:
 - Invade England
 - 2. Subdue Protestants
 - Overthrow Elizabeth I
 - 4. Put Mary Stuart on the throne
 - 5. Marry Mary
 - 6. Become king

Reasons for National Solidarity:

- 7. Popular fears of the Spanish
- 8. Resentment of Catholic plots revolving around Mary
- 9. Indignation against foreign meddling in English matters.

Sir Francis Drake—English pirate who robbed Spanish ships and "singed the beard of the King of Spain" when he burned Spanish ships at the port of Cadiz. Circumnavigated the globe and found a new route to Russia

The Battle of the Spanish Armada—a fleet of Spanish ships sent to war in England

Protestant Wind—The weather change that sank the cumbersome Spanish ships, making England the country with the strongest navy.

Results in Spain—Philip II died, production decreased. Reasons:

- 1. Inflation
- 2. Taxation
- 3. Emigration (*Moriscos*)
- 4. Depopulation

England

Monarchs of England

- Henry VII (1485–1509)—established the House of Tudor
 - Ended the War of the Roses, which gave England a rightful monarch again

- For justice, he brought the Star Chamber, a court where criminals were tried, but without defense
- Henry used the Star Chamber to do away with his enemies
- Henry VIII—refer to Reformation information
- Elizabeth I—Elizabethan Age (1558-1603)—age when Elizabeth I ruled and England flourished. Shakespeare wrote plays during this era
 - High Commission—"Anglican Inquisition" in belief, but not in practice
- James I—King of England and Scotland
 - Philosopher of Absolutism, wrote the True Law of Monarchy and rewrote the Bible (King James Version)
 - He threatened to "harry the Puritans out of the lands"
 - He wanted a pure Anglican government
 - Known as "The Wisest Fool in Christendom"
- Charles I—Inherited the English and Scottish thrones
 - Claimed "divine right" and the Theory of Absolutism
 - Fought against Spain in 1626 and in 1627 against France and Spain
 - The war drained his money and he was forced to go to Parliament for more money
 - Parliament made him sign the Petition of Rights
 - Petition of Rights:
 - No one should pay taxes without consent of Parliament
 - No one can be imprisoned or detained without due process of law
 - No quartering of soldiers
 - Martial law cannot be imposed during peacetime All citizens of England have Habeas Corpus
 - Writ of Habeas Corpus—must be told rights for your arrest
 - National Covenant of Scotland—we affirm our loyalty to the crown, but declare that the king could not reestablish the authority of the Church of England over the Church of Scotland
- The Short Parliament—lasted only a month, Scots invaded England shortly after
- The Long Parliament—when confronted with more financial problems, Charles I called the parliament together again, and they passed these laws:
 - Parliament cannot be dissolved without its own consent

- No more than three years could pass between Parliament meetings
- Star Chamber, High Commission and Ship Money Tax abolished
- Additional—quartering of soldiers not allowed, Earl of Strafford executed English

Civil War

- "Puritan Revolution" or the "Great Rebellion," Roundheads vs. Cavaliers
- Roundheads—consisted of Parliament, House of Commons, puritans, industrial areas, navy and ports, London, East and South England
- Cavaliers (Royalist)—the King, most lords, Catholics, High Churchmen, old gentry, Oxford, North and West England
- Oliver Cromwell—leader of the Roundheads, creates New Model Army and Puritan Army, which is very modern
- The Rump Parliament—45 Presbyterian Parliament members arrested, 98 more expelled, 60 Puritans admitted
 - Rump Parliament put king on trial and beheaded him (regicide)
- The Commonwealth—military dictatorship under Oliver Cromwell and Puritan Parliament members
 - Puritan Laws—basic Puritan beliefs, no merriment, no theater, no sporting events
 - Ireland—massacres the Irish and gives land to Protestant soldiers
 - Scotland—Charles II became king, Scotland defeated by new model army, and Charles fled to France and his cousin, Louis XIV
- The Protectorate—Cromwell became "lord protector of a United Commonwealth of England, Scotland, Ireland and the Colonies"
- The Restoration—King Charles II came back to rule. Restored merriment
- Charles II
 - Declaration of Breda—King agreed to abide by Parliament's decisions
 - The Navigation Acts—English colonies must buy English goods
 - The Convention Parliament:
 - Everyone who fought in the civil war was pardoned, except 50 people in the Parliament Cavalier. Land taken by Puritans had to be returned
 - King granted income
 - Puritans purged from Parliament
 - Anglicanism became the official religion of England
 - Test Act of 1673-no Catholic could hold high office

- Whigs—people who support the Test Act (wanted Monmouth or Mary for monarch)
- Tories—against Test Act (wanted Duke of York or James for monarch)
- James II—against Test Act, appointed Catholics to high positions, Catholic himself
- Declaration of Indulgences—Catholics and Non-Anglicans would be free to worship and hold office
- The Glorious Revolution of 1688—"Bloodless Revolution," no casualties
- Thomas Hobbes—wrote The Leviathan—a book on the evils of mankind and how an absolute monarch is necessary to control them
- John Locke—wrote "Treatises on Government"—a book on how humans have power to control themselves and form their own government
- William III of Orange and Mary—won popular support of English. Accompanied by Dutch soldiers
- English Bill of Rights:
 - Monarch could not be Catholic
 - Could not have an army during peace unless approved by Parliament.
 Parliament's consent was required in order to tax
 - Excess bail and cruel and unusual punishments prohibited
 - Trial by jury guaranteed
 - Fair elections for Parliament
- Toleration Act of 1689—guaranteed right of public worship for non-conformist, but no political office
- Trials for Treason Act—anyone accused of treason had to see evidence against them and have a defense for themselves
- Act of Settlement—if William or Anne died without children, the throne would go to Sophia of Hanover or her Protestant heirs
- Queen Anne—became queen after William died, very devoted Anglican
- Act of Union—combined the crowns of England and Scotland Established Great Britain

Wars of Religion

- France (1562–1598)
 - ius reformandi—the right to regulate religion in your own state
- Valois Dynasty—the dynasty of France before the Bourbon

- Concordat of Bologna—France received the authority to appoint the clergy as long as they paid Pope Louis XI—Valois King who ruled France
- Francis I—famous for the Concordat of Bologna
- Henry II—declared war on the Huguenots, died from jousting Huguenots (French Calvinists)
- Francis II—sickly son of Henry II, died and left throne to brother
- Catherine de Medici—regent for Charles IX
 - Strongly supported by Huguenot Admiral Coligny
- Conflict between Guise and Bourbons—wanted to support Bourbons, but threat from Protestants moved her to protection of the Guise
- Duke of Guise—Catholic who fought Huguenots
- St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre—Thousands of Huguenots massacred during the festival prior to the wedding of Henry III, last son of Henry I. Henry was spared and said he would become Catholic, but it was not until later
- Henry III (1574–1589)—tried to steer middle path like his mother. Fought with Catholic League led by the
 - Duke of Guise, had to unite with Henry of Navarre, a Huguenot
 - Ordered the assassination of the duke and cardinal of Guise. A French priest assassinated him
- Henry IV (1589–1610)—Henry Navarre became first Bourbon King. Issued Edict of Nantes ending religious wars in France. Converted to Catholicism, "Paris is worth a mass"
 - Practiced Politique. Established the Estates General. Assassinated by priest
- Politiques—people that put less emphasis on religion and more on politics (Jean Bodin, Henry IV, Elizabeth I)
- The Edict of Nantes (1598)—A declaration that allowed French Calvinists to fortify and defend their own Protestant towns
 - They were also allowed to worship and practice their religion
 - "Every noble who is also a manorial lord has the right to hold Protestant services on his land. Protestants also have the right to fortify and defend their town"
- Marie de Medici—dismissed the Estates-General, regent for Louis XIII son of Henry IV Louis XIII—young king of France, had no power
- Cardinal Richelieu—regent for Louis XIII, held all his power even though Louis became the rightful king

- Peace of Alais (1629)—no civil wars or warfare, and everyone had to destroy their fortifications. Protestants had religions and civil rights, but lost military and territorial rights
- The Thirty Years' War (1618–1648)
- Religion—Catholic vs. Protestant
- Constitutional HRE vs. individual states
- International France vs. Habsburg; Spain vs. Dutch
- Background
 - Peace of Augsburg-"Cuius regio, eius religio" "Whose region, their religion"
 - Palatinate "Elector Palatine"- leader who helps elect Holy Roman Emperor
 - Protestant Union—1608, Elector Palatine made all Protestants unite for protection

Phase 1

- Frederick V—"The Winter King"—negative name, ruled only the winter. Bohemia, Elector Palatine
- Defenestration of Prague—tossed two ambassadors of the HRE out the window
- Mathias Holy Roman Emperor—had to resign because didn't do anything after the Defenestration
- Ferdinand II Holy Roman Emperor—Received money from the pope, aided Spanish, invaded Bohemia
 - White Mountain—Battle which Ferdinand II won hands down for the Catholics

Phase 2

- Catholic League—League formed in defense of Protestant Union
- Christian IV—King of Denmark, Duke of Holstein fought Albrecht of Wallenstein
- Albrecht of Wallenstein—General of the mercenaries of the HRE, army of 125,000, no pay—just get what is raided
- Edict of Restitution—All Catholic lands that Protestants took had to be returned

Phase 3

- Gustavus Adolphus—King of Sweden, created first modern courageous army
- Peace of Prague—Ferdinand II signed and revoked the Edict of Restitution

Phase 4

- Fleur-de-lis—French soldiers that Richelieu sent
- Peace of Westphalia (1648) affected the HRE because it basically broke all the nations into independent states. This greatly weakened the HRE, and France took Alsace from Germany
- Sweden took northern Germany
- Princes of Germany won independence from the Holy Roman Empire
- Calvinism added to the Peace of Augsburg
- Dutch republic gained recognition as an independent state

Absolutism

France

- Cardinal Mazarin—appointed regent for Louis XIV. Appointed and trained by Cardinal Richelieu
- The Fronde—contained three civil wars within
- Purpose—Nobles throughout France wished to take advantage of the small child and new regent. They decide to go to Paris and ask for their power back
- Why did they fail?—Nobles made a mistake by asking the Spanish for help and terrorizing the peasants for food and housing
- Childhood of Louis XIV had a strong influence on his future
- Louis XIV
 - "The Sun King," "L'etat c'est moi"—I am the state
- How did he gain control?
 - Created professional army and became head of the army
 - Chief ministers were from the middle class.
- Council orders carried out by Intendants (persons in charge of province)
- Never called the Estates-General
- Controlled peasants by Corvee or conscription
- Revoked Edict of Nantes
- Appointed Jean-Baptiste Colbert as Finance Minister
- Revocation of Edict of Nantes—Louis believed that he was the state, and that because he was Catholic, everyone in France should be Catholic as well

- Versailles—palace built by Louis in order to show his splendor and power in France
- Corvee—one month of forced labor by the French government by third estate
- Conscription—drafting or forcing people to join the military often an alternative for Corvee (15 years)
- Jean-Baptiste Colbert—Finance minister of France during the reign of Louis XIV
 - Mercantilism—the government getting involved directly to strengthen their economy
 - What were his policies?
 - Creating a strict system accounting for all collected money
 - Promoting trade/commerce, made French economy prosper
 - Abolished local tariffs on the Five Great Farms
 - Subsidies—give money for companies (directly related to mercantilism)
 - Tariffs on imported goods
 - Forbade exportation of food
- Bishop Bossuet—Catholic bishop in France who believed that all power comes from God. Therefore, all with power are only answerable to Him. He thought a monarch should have absolute power
- Wars of Louis XIV
 - Louis wished to extend France to its "natural" boundary, which he believed was from the Rhine River to the Alps
 - Treaty of the Pyrenees:
 - Peace treaty that ended the Thirty Years' War
 - France acquired parts of the Spanish Netherlands and Northern Spain
 - In return, Louis XIV married Philip IV's daughter
 - Wars of Devolution (First Dutch War)
 - The law of devolution stated that the first marriage is favored more than a second marriage
 - Louis claimed the Spanish Netherlands because Philip died and he married the first daughter, which is of the first marriage
 - England, Holland and Sweden form the Triple Alliance in order to fight against France
 - Ended war with Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle

- Louis gained 12 towns in the Spanish Netherlands
- Second Dutch War
 - Louis invaded Holland with 100,000 soldiers and was defeated when William III opened the dikes and flooded Amsterdam
 - Ended war by the *Peace of Nimvegen*, where France obtained *Frache-Comte*, but Holland remained intact
- Invasion of the Spanish Netherlands
 - Louis conquered Luxembourg
 - The League of Augsburg is formed in order to protect Europe from France
 - Includes HRE, Holland, Spain, Sweden, Palatinate, Saxony, Bavaria and Savoy Wars of Spanish Succession
 - Known as Queen Anne's War in America
- Charles II of Spain (Idiot King) appointed Electoral Prince Joseph Ferdinand of Bavaria as his heir, but Joseph died
- He then appointed *Philip of Anjon*, a French Bourbon
- Since Philip was young, Louis was appointed regent, which caused panic within Europe
- The Grand Alliance is formed, consisting of England, Holland, HRE, Brandenburg, Portugal, and Savoy. They fought against France and Bavaria. War ended by Treaty of Utrecht
- Treaty of Utrecht—allowed peace between Grand Alliance and France
- Louis XIV's grandson, Philip V, was not allowed to unite Spanish and French crowns
- Philip V kept Spain and Spanish America. Austrian Habsburg acquired Naples, Milan, and Spanish Netherlands
- France kept the Alsace region
- England obtained Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Hudson Bay and Gibraltar
- Duke of Savoy given Sicily and recognized as King of Savoy
- Elector of Brandenburg recognized as King of Prussia

The Transformation of Eastern Europe

The Holy Roman Empire

• Charlemagne (r. 768–814)

- Frankish king whose kingdom consisted of modern France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and western Germany, much of Italy, a portion of Spain, and the island of Corsica
- December 25, 800: Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor; thus, creating the HRE
- HRE: a rival, based on Germany, of the old Roman Empire in the West
- The government was run through about 250 counts that were strategically located in the administrative districts into which the kingdom was divided
- After death of his son, Louis the Pious (r. 814–840), the kingdom was divided into three equal parts by the Treaty of Verdun (843)
 - Lotharingia: a middle section composed of modern Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, Alsace-Lorraine, and Italy
 - France: western part primarily consisting of modern France
 - Germany: eastern part modern Germany
- The German princes and the Middle Ages
- As nobility (Junkers) in the German lands increased their power, the Holy Roman Empire experienced disintegration
- The Golden Bull of 1356
 - Seven princes of the Holy Roman Empire cho se Holy Roman emperor
 - Three ecclesiastical electors: archbishops of Cologne, Trier, and Mainz
 - Four secular electors: King of Bohemia, Duke of Saxony, Margrave of Brandenburg, and Count of Rhine
 - Made princes independent rulers of their own lands
- Charles V: King and Emperor
 - Became king in 1516, when he inherited the Hapsburg throne from the King of Ferdinand of Spain
 - Inherited the Hapsburg domains in central Europe (Austria), Burgundian holdings, including Frache-Comte and the Netherlands, and the entire Spanish Empire
 - Claimed parts of Hungary, Bohemia, Moravia, the Duchy of Burgundy, etc.
 - In war with Valois King Francis I of France
 - Fought over Burgundian lands
 - Was defeated, but acquired the Duchy of Milan

- Began the process of abdication in 1556, dividing his domains between the Austrians and Spanish
- Sons became King Philip II of Spain and Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand I
- Voltaire, a French philosopher, said that the HRE was "neither holy, nor an empire"
- The Republic of Poland
 - Official political language was Latin
 - Majority was Germans and Jews
 - Catholicism was leading religion
- Szlachta—Polish Liberties or Polish Aristocracy
 - 8% of population was Szlachta in Poland. Others were serfs
- Diets—laws
 - Liberum Veto—free veto, only took one person to veto a proposition. Required anonymous vote
 - To "explode a diet" meant to veto a proposition

The Ottoman Empire

- Largest of the three aging empires, strength from military
- Church and state were united. Laws were based on the Islamic Holy Book, the Koran
- Christians were forced to pay a tax, but not forced to convert
- Janissaries—military might of the army, consisted of Christian children brought up as Muslims, forbidden to marry

The New Eastern Powers

Austria

- Ruled by the House of Habsburg, which once also controlled Spain, the Holy Roman Empire and Spanish colonies
- Austria was essentially made up of three territories:
 - Upper and Lower Austria
 - Kingdom of Bohemia (Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia) Crown of St. Wenceslas
 - Kingdom of Hungary (Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia) Crown of St. Stephen

- Kiuprili Vizier and the 20 Years Truce—Vizier wished to conquer Austria for the Ottomans. They fought, and the war ended with the 20 Years Truce
- John Sobieski—king of Poland, led army to fight the Ottomans who were invading Austria in 1683
- Peace of Karlowitz—gave Austria Hungary. Austrian empire becomes multinational
- Prince Francis Rákóczy II (1703-1711)—started a revolution in Austria-Hungary because Hungarians were not granted the autonomy promised by the Austrians
- Charles VI—father of Maria Theresa, started the Pragmatic Sanction
 - Pragmatic Sanction—an agreement that Europe would recognize Austrian land and Maria Theresa as Empress

Prussia

- House of Hohenzollern contained Brandenburg, countries of Mark and Ravenburg, duchies of Cleaves and Prussia
- Frederick William (1640–1668)—"The Great Elector" focused on industry and military, believed in a strong, well-trained army, regardless of the size. Strong Calvinist who practiced religious tolerance. Taxed people in order to create a professional army. Taxes were imposed on everyone, two times higher than France's
- Frederick I (1688–1713)—"Kaiser of Prussia" liked ceremonies and splendor.
 Founded the University of Halle in order to study Pietism (how much should be stressed on religion) and Natural Law (how man is related to nature). First ruler of Prussia
- Frederick William I (1713–1740)—doubled the size of the military. Believed that
 Junkers should be military officers in the army. He was very earthy and frugal.
 Created General Directory, which split the government into four departments and
 centralized his power. Each department was responsible for a certain province
- Frederick II (1740–1768)—"the Great" believed that he should serve the government, not have the government serve him. The ruler must regard himself as the "First Servant of the State." Enlightened Despot

Russia

- Located near the Baltic Sea, above Poland Invaded by Mongols, Vikings and other civilizations Lacks warm-water ports
- Because of this, they were always looking for ports to trade
- Pre-western cultures
- People—consisted of....
 - Muscovites (Great Russians)—lived near Moscow

- Tartar Khans—lived north of Black Sea
- · Cossacks—lived above the steppes "cowboys of Russia"
- Byelorussians (White Russians)—lived west of Moscow
- Little Russians/Ruthenians/Ukrainians—lived southwest of Moscow
- Beliefs and Customs:
 - Women were secluded and wore veils
 - · Men had beards and skirted garments
 - Superstition ruled in the state and church
- Religion—Greek Orthodox Church, very superstitious
 - Raskolniki—people who did not like new ideas from the west
 - Serfdom—serfs worked on farms. Russia was an agricultural country
 - Boyars—landlords in Russia
- Stephen Rezin (1667)—led a revolt and killed many nobles
 - Duma—national assembly, led by nobles
 - Holy Synod—a Holy Council in Russia
- Ivan III (1442–1505)—"The Great," First Czar/Tzar/Tsar of Russia
- Ivan IV (1533–1584)—"The Terrible," killed many people in order to raise his own power. Opened Archangel, a port, and the Caspian
 - Semski Sober—Consisted of the Duma, church, and the townspeople. Their main objective was to find peace by choosing a suitable ruler because Ivan IV left no heirs
- Michael Romanov—elected by Semski Sober to be Czar of Russia. Semski Sober elected him because he was young and easily controlled. He was the grandnephew of Ivan IV
- Peter I (1682–1725)—"The Great," traveled west in order to gain knowledge about western civilization when he came back, his main goal was to modernize Russia
- Streltsy Rebellion—elite Russian guards revolted in Moscow, Peter personally killed the rebels
- Changes in economics:
 - Taxes on everything
 - Adopted mercantilism
- Changes in government:

- · Duma is dissolved
- Russia divided into 10 territories or G ubernii in order to centralize power
- Procurator to Holy Synod formed
- Peter indirectly controls the church
- The Great Northern War (1700–1721)—war started when Russia invaded Sweden
- Charles XII of Sweden—leader of the most modern and greatest army in Europe
 - Battle of Narva (1700)—Sweden had 8,000, Russia had 40,000; Russians lost
 - Battle of Poltava (1709)—Swedes invaded Russia during winter, defeated by the end of the winter
 - Treaty of Nystad (1721)—Finland returned to Swede, Latvia and Estonia given to Russia. These were Russia's "Windows on the West"

War of Austrian Succession (1740–48)

- Two of the principal issues for these wars:
 - Britain vs. France—for colonial land, trade and sea power
 - Austria vs. Prussia—for territory and military control of central Europe
- 18th Century Warfare—slow, formal, elaborate, indecisive. Strategy was not to seek out the enemy and destroy, rather, maneuver for advantages in positions
- 1740–1748:
 - Prussia invaded Silesia
 - Magyars helped Maria Theresa, who promised them autonomy
 - Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Spain, France vs. Austria, Britain, Holland
- Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle (1748)
 - Prussia was given Silesia
 - Belgium was returned to Austria
 - "Status quo ante bellum"—all territory and lands would be returned to their prewar owners. This war showed the weakness of France and the boldness and strength of Maria Theresa
- *1748–56*:
 - Period of busy diplomacy and a reversal of alliances
 - Diplomatic Revolution of 1756—Austria, France, Russia, Sweden, Saxony, and lesser German States vs. Prussia and Britain

 Count Kaunitz—Maria Theresa's foreign minister got the idea of making an alliance with the Bourbons. In a form of friendship Maria Antoinette married Louis XVI

Seven Years' War (1756–1763)

- Prussia attacked first because they were the only army ready to go to war. They attacked unrelentingly without hesitation
- Russian Czarina Elizabeth died in 1761; effect of her death was that her throne was given to her son Peter III, who was partially disabled. Peter admired Frederick II of Prussia, so he pulled his army out of the war
- *Treaty of Paris* (1763):
- Prussia officially got Silesia
- France lost all territory in India and most territory in North America to Britain. This caused Britain to emerge as the most powerful colonial power for the next 150 years

The Scientific Revolution and Enlightenment

Scientist

Name	When	What	Result
Copernicus	1473–1543	Developed the heliocentric theory. Wrote On the Revolutions of Heavenly Spheres	Contributed to modern astronomy
Brahe	1546–1601	Began a systematic approach to observing planets	Helped prove the Copernican theory
Galileo	1564–1642	Discovered Saturn's rings, Jupiter's moons and sunspots, and mountains on the moon with a telescope. Also discovered the pendulum law and basic physics. Wrote Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World System	First to devise the scientific or experimental method
Kepler	1571–1630	Developed law that planets move in ellipses and the closer they are to the sun, the faster they spin and move around the sun (Kepler's Law). Wrote New Astronomy	Discovered astronomic laws that are used today to chart planets
Harvey	1578–1657	Discovered the importance of heart and circulatory system. Wrote <i>Motion of Heart and Blood</i>	Led to technology used in heart surgery and cardio- vascular understanding
Pascal	1623–1662	Invented the mercury barometer, early calculator, Pascal's triangle, and Euclidean geometry	Contributed significantly to logic-based thinking
Boyle	1627-1691	Skeptical chemist who isolated and collected gases. Also found the pressures of various gases	Father of chemistry, allowed gases to be collected and used
Newton	1642-1727	Discovered optics, gravitation, physics, and advanced calculus. He was one of the greatest scientists during the Scientific Revolution. Wrote <i>Principia</i>	Pioneered modern physics, calculus, mapmaking, and other technological advances

English Enlightened

- Thomas Hobbes
 - Wrote Leviathan—book telling of the evil of man in society. Title was inspired by a sea monster from the book of Job
 - · Proclaimed the life of man to be "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short"
 - Described man basically as an evil individual who often needs to be protected from himself
 - Was in favor of an absolute monarch, disregarding the idea of a democracy or a republic
 - Lived through the English Civil War where he witnessed the brutality of man
 - Witnessed the killing of hundreds, the destruction of cities, and the beheading of Charles I, which would greatly influence his writing

John Locke

- Two Treatises on Government—book telling how man is essentially good
- Believed that all men had "natural law," which were basically the life, liberty, and property (the pursuit of happiness)
- Stated that all men should have a part in the government. In essence, he was in favor of a republic or a democracy
- Lived through the Glorious Revolution (the Bloodless Revolution), where he witnessed how man overthrew a government without any bloodshed
- Believed that man was good and should be heard in government
- Believed that if the government did not serve the society, the society had every right to rebel

• Francis Bacon

- Novum Organum—book about the experimental method
- Believed that in scientific research, one must use the inductive or experimental method. He said that one must observe the phenomena, accumulate data, experiment to refine the data, and then draw a conclusion
- Empiricism—the belief that all science revolves around experimentation
- Did not use the power of mathematics, which was often described as the "language of science"

French Enlightenment Thinkers

- Rene Descartes
 - Discourse on Method—book written by Rene Descartes, which argued that
 everything that is not validated by observation should be doubted. His very own
 existence was proved by one important quote, "Cogito ergo sum," which means
 "I think, therefore, I am"
 - Systematic Doubt—theory where everything should be doubted. Descartes believed that the truth was not first postulated, but rather found at the end of experimentation and eliminating the doubts.
 - Cartesian Dualism—belief that everything is divided into spiritual and the material essence
 - Philosophes—"students of society" who wished to reform it
- Madame de Geoffrin—woman who held parlor conversations with intellectuals in Paris. She influenced the "enlightened world" because she brought in all people who had intelligence, regardless of what class they belonged in
- Denis Diderot—published his writings and popularized the ideas that came from many Philosophes in his Encyclopedia, a collection of political and social critiques (rather than a compilation of facts)
- *Montesquieu*—from the upper class, landed aristocracy in France
 - On the Spirit of Laws—book that argued about the powers of government
 - Believed that the government should be divided into the executive, judicial, and legislative
 - Discussed three types of laws: law of nations, political law, and civil law
 - Discussed three types of government: despotism, monarchy, and democracy
 - Believed that church was useful, but didn't believe in religion
 - · Preferred a limited monarchy
- Voltaire—born into the middle class
 - Candide—a short satire. Went against rigid religion, governmental abuse, and vestiges of medievalism
 - Philosophical Dictionary—covered a wide variety of topics from the Bible to natural law
 - Believed that prejudice, superstition, and intolerance were the shameful aspects of society

- "Écrasez l'infame" (crush the infamous)
- Preferred enlightened despotism
- Rousseau—born into the lower class
 - Social Contract—book that discussed how "man was born free, but is in chains everywhere"
 - Believed all people should have power in society
 - Asserted that society destroyed freedom and sought emancipation from the trivialities of society and the freedom of merging with nature
 - Feared by churches for supporting religion but seeing no need for a church
 - Preferred an ideal republican commonwealth
- Political economists
 - The physiocrats that were concerned with fiscal and tax reform, as well as increasing national wealth
 - Sir William Petty—wrote Political Arithmetic, believed that economics arose from the collection and analysis of quantitative data or statistics
 - Adam Smith—stated that by reducing the barriers that hinder growth, a nation's
 wealth would increase. Believed governments should concern themselves with
 defense, internal security, and reasonable laws, and that a government should
 not get involved with economics. Believed in the "supply and demand" policy

The French Revolution

- Louis XVI—Became king in 1774
 - Married Austrian princess Marie Antoinette
 - Very weak because he was indecisive and allowed matters to drift
 - Afraid to insult anyone and had no control over the French government
 - Summoned the Estates-General in 1789, but he did not grant the reforms that were demanded and revolution followed
 - Was executed, along with Marie Antoinette, in 1793
- Necker—French finance minister and statesman finances
 - Demanded greater reform powers in 1781, but opposition from the Comte de Maurepas caused Necker to resign
 - Louis XVI recalled him as director general of finances and minister of state
 - Supported the summoning of the Estates-General to effect reforms

- His dismissal in 1789 led to the storming of the Bastille
- Necker was once more recalled to office, but he resigned in 1790
- The Old Regime—the old institutions of monarchy and feudalism, which no longer worked for France
- Estates-General
 - The legislative body in the time of an absolutist rule by Louis XVI. It consisted of three estates
 - Breakdown of the Estates-General:
 - First Estate—the Roman Catholic clergy
 - Second Estate—nobles and landowners in France. Comprised less than 2% of France's population
 - Third Estate—the middle class (bourgeoisie), urban lower classes, and peasant farmers. Comprised 98% of France's total population
 - The estate that was always taxed. This estate was doubled to 600
 - · The Financial Crisis
 - France was in debt mainly due to:

King Louis XIV's lavish wars to expand to France's "natural" territories Its aid to the Americans in their revolution against Great Britain

Queen Marie Antoinette's lavish spending

- Because of this great debt, the Estates-General was called to order in May 1,
 1789. But nothing was accomplished
- Abbé Sieyés—author of What Is the 3rd Estate?, a book describing the power of the Third Estate
- Tennis Court Oath—a meeting held in an inside tennis court in 1789 where Louis XVI locked the third estate out of the meeting hall. There, the members swore to create a new constitution for France or die trying
- The Great Fear
 - Period where French peasants scrambled in fear in order to protect themselves
 - This was because of rumors that mercenaries were marching through France by the command of Louis XVI
 - This wave of panic banded peasants together and made them fight against the nobles
 - Destroyed feudal documents

• The Storming of the Bastille

- Out of the terror of invading Swiss army, the French stormed the Bastille on July 14, 1789, in order to gain ammunition and arms for their self-defense. This was probably the greatest symbolic act of revolution
- Civil Constitution of the Clergy—the document that allowed the clergy to be elected and become paid officials of the state
- The Saint Bartholomew of Privilege—members of the National Assembly met on August 4, 1789:
- Did away with all ancient privileges of the nobility and the clergy
- Abolished feudalism
- Drafted the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen
- Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen (August 26, 1789)—basically France's new constitution, which reinforced natural liberty and equality of all men. The king's power was now limited and a new "one man, one vote" rule came into play
- The new slogan of the revolution, "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity," was created

National Assembly

- The new legislative body of France
- At first, this was the new name of the third estate during the rebellion
- Gave way to the legislative assembly
- Created a new limited monarchy government in France
- Divided France up into 83 districts or departments and a council of officials was elected to administer that department
- Émigrés—French nobles who foresaw the terror of peasants and departed France

Legislative Assembly

Newly elected group that came to power due to completion of the constitution.
 This was the new legislative body of France. The king was limited to a constitutional veto

Breakdown of the Assembly

The Right (constitutionalists)—the group that believed the revolution was a success

The Center (the plain)—the indecisive group that was basically neutral

The Left (the mountain)—the radical group that believed the revolution could have gone further

- Jacobins—club which consisted of radicals who wished to remove the king and establish a republic
- Girondists—Jacobins who did not believe in violence or destruction

Major Jacobin Leaders

- Jean-Paul Marat—formed "Friend of the People" newspaper, stabbed in his bathtub
- Maximillian Robespierre—"the incorruptible" who wished to create a "Republic of Virtue" by killing all past monarchy and nobility. He wished to create a perfect republic through destruction
- George-Jacques Danton—leader of the Jacobins and radicals
- Commune in Paris—government that controlled a certain district or area the commune was created to bring order and control to an area. George-Jacques Danton headed the Commune in Paris. This commune was appointed rather than legally elected
- Flight of Varennes (June 1791)—a failed attempt by Louis XVI to escape Paris to another country
- Threats against Revolutionary France
 - Brunswick Manifesto, July 1792—threats from the Prussian army to Parisians if harm came to the king
 - Wished to put king back on the throne and restore France
 - Declaration of Pillsnitz—King of Austria threatened to restore France to its normal state as long as other European powers decided to join in. Both threats, rather than frighten the French, enraged them against all crowned heads in Europe and made nationalism grow

National Convention

- After the suspension of King Louis XVI, elections were ordered for a National Convention to draw up yet another constitution—this time, a republic. The National Convention was the legislative body of the newly formed republic
- *Hérbertists*—atheists who wished to de-Christianize France and adopt a new republican calendar

• September Massacre—1,000 people who did not like the new calendar were killed. Consisted mainly of priests or other members of the clergy

Goals of the National Convention:

Drive foreign armies out of France

Determine what to do with King Louis XVI

Suppress nationwide revolts

Write republican constitution

Complete and put into action all social and economic reforms initiated between 1789-1791

- Trial and Execution of King Louis XVI—King Louis was held on the account of treason. However, he had supposedly never committed any form of treason and was tried on the basis of a rumor. Girondists wished for the execution to be postponed until foreign armies were defeated. King Louis was unanimously convicted for treason and was executed by one extra vote
- The First Coalition—a temporary alliance which consisted of Great Britain, Spain, Sardinia, Holland, Austria, and Prussia. This did not work out because the Partition of Poland was occurring and all power-hungry countries argued within, forming no unity
- San-culottes vs. Culottes (Girondists vs. Jacobins) in the end, all Girondists were executed

Reign of Terror

- Essentially a wartime dictatorship to preserve the republic during the French Revolution. However, this went overboard and 3,000 ended up dead
- The point was to create a "Republic of Virtue" by killing all those who were against the republic. One could be convicted for a slight accusation or not helping the republic
- Committee of Public Safety—committee headed by Robespierre that decided who was judged as an enemy of the republic
- Many were tried in the morning and executed immediately in the afternoon
- Thermidorian Reaction—the revolt against Robespierre and the Jacobins. (happened in the month of Thermidor). In this historical event, the politics of France shifted from the political left to the political right
- The Girondists were readmitted to the National Convention
- Danton and Robespierre were executed because they were responsible for starting the Reign of Terror
- The Reign of Terror ended with Danton and Robespierre's execution

- White Terror—conservatives killed Jacobins in order to create a better nation
- Levee en masse (the Nation in Arms)—all able men must join the military in order to defend France from invading foreign powers

• The Directory

- The new governing body of France, with an executive and legislative body and a new constitution drafted by the National Convention
- This new body consisted of a two-chamber (Council of Ancients and Council of 500) legislature and an executive body of five men. The directors were the five people in the executive branch
- Declaration of Verona—"I will return to the Old Regime and punish everyone involved in the revolution back in 1789" -Louis XVIII
- Coup d'etat—overthrow the government
- "Whiff of grapeshot"—said by Napoleon, aimed at the royalist revolution and how quickly he put it down
- Fructidorian Coup—the royalist victory elections were declared null and void
- Conspiracy of Equals—a planned revolt by the socialist followers. "Gracchus"
 Babeuf attempted a coup d'etat in order to change the government to socialism.
 They failed and were executed

The Four Major Revolutions of Western Civilization

Revolution	Cause	Leaders	Effect
Glorious Revolution	3	Parliament	Act of Settlement All future Monarchs must be Protestant
American Revolution	and Indian Wars,	George III George Washington Thomas Jefferson	Establishment of the United States
French Revolution	demand of the middle		The first French Republic, Napoleon, and the First French Empire
Russian Revolution	Involvement in WWI	Nicholas II Lenin Kerensky	Eventual establishment of the Soviet Union

The Age of Napoleon

- Military Accomplishments of Napoleon
 - Treaty of Campo Formio—Napoleon gained control of Northern Italy
 - Napoleon in Egypt
 - Battle of the Pyramids (July 1798)—defeated Ottoman Turks in Egypt
 - Battle of Abukir (July 25, 1798)—defeated the Turks and the British
 - Battle of the Nile (August 1, 1798)—Admiral Nelson sank French ships near the Nile
 - Babe Sieges—invited Napoleon in to overthrow the Directory
 - Napoleon overthrew the Directory and set up the Consulate. This is known as the Coup d'etat Brumier
- Consulate Era (1799–1804)
 - Aimed to govern France by demanding obedience, rewarding ability, and organizing everything in an orderly, hierarchical fashion

- Old System destroyed, new system based on equality, ability, and law was formed. Guaranteed triumph of a capitalist society. Gave birth to a secular democracy. Laid foundations for modern nation-state
- The Code of Napoleon—first applied in France, but later affected Europe as a whole. It brought
 - Strong central government and administration unity
 - Religious order—Concordat of 1801
 - Financial/economical order—created Bank of France and taxed everyone
 - Social order—allowed émigrés back as long as they behaved
 - Educational reforms—free public education
 - Legal reforms—the Code of Napoleon
 - Plebiscites—free elections with a yes or no response
 - Because of these elections, Napoleon took power as Consul for life, then emperor

• French Empire

- Third Coalition (Britain, Austria, Russia, Sweden) vs. France
- Battle of Ulms (Oct. 17, 1805)—Napoleon vs. Austria, France victorious
- Battle of Trafalgar (Oct. 21, 1805)—Nelson vs. Spanish and French fleet, Britain victorious
- Battle of Austerlitz (Battle of the 3 Emperors) (Dec. 2, 1805)—France vs. Austria and Russia, France won
- Treaty of Pressburg—France and Austria
- Austria gave all Italian territory to France
- Austria gave all Germanic states to France
- Confederation of the Rhine—The HRE was officially abolished by Napoleon and replaced by the Confederation of the Rhine (excluding Prussia, Saxony, and Austria)
- Battle of Jena and Battle of Friedland (Oct. 1806)—Napoleon vs. Prussia and Russia, France wins
- Treaty of Tilset—(July 1807)
- · France and Russia
- Polish territory given to Grand Duchy of Warsaw
- Allied with France against England

- France gave aid in conquering eastern countries
- · France and Prussia
- · Gave up all land between the Rhine and the Elbe rivers

• The Continental System

- Crushed England through economic warfare
- Berlin Decree of 1806—forbade the importation of British goods to Europe on allied or dependent of French territories. Britain reacted with the British Blockade
- Milan Decree of 1807—stated that any neutral vessel stopped by the British must be confiscated
- Denmark—joined France because England attacked Copenhagen
- Peninsular War—France invaded Spain and Portugal due to smuggling
- Duke of Wellington—prevented France from conquering Portugal
- Francisco de Gooier y Lucientes—produced a pessimistic painting of the French soldiers
- Austrian Wars of Liberation (1809)
 - Talleyrand—foreign minister of Napoleon, told Alexander I to attack later because Napoleon was now too strong, but was weakening. By doing this, he committed treason
 - Battle of Wagram (July 1809)—France vs. Austria, France victorious
 - Grand Duchy of Warsaw—Austrian territory of Poland taken, Partition of Poland now completely neutralized
 - Illyrian Provinces—Slavonic lands on the coast, given to France

French Invasion of Russia

- In 1812, Napoleon invaded Russia because they broke the Continental System. The Grand Army, containing over 650,000 men (a bulk of French soldiers) prepared to invade Russia. The plan was to quickly move to crush the Russians
- Battle of Borodino (Sept. 1812)—bloodiest battle, France vs. Russia. France was victorious
- Russians took up the "Scorched Earth Policy." They burned all crops and retreated into their homeland
- France conquered a barren country
- France occupied Moscow (September 14), only to find it empty
- When the French retreated, they were greeted by the harsh winter, which killed off much of their army

- Grand Army was reduced to 10,000 men
- Battle of Leipzig (Battle of Nations 1813)—France vs. Austria and Russia
- Eastern forces attacked France from the east, and the Duke of Wellington attacked France from the Pyrenees Mountains. France lost
- Frankfurt Proposal—Austria and France wanted Napoleon to remain in power and retain the natural boundaries of France (Rhine to the Alps) in exchange for Austrian dependency. Napoleon rejected this proposal

The Hundred Days

- Napoleon exiled to Elba
- France was not punished, but returned to pre-Napoleon status
- Louis XVIII was put back in power
- Napoleon escaped and came back to rule for The Hundred Days
- Duke of Wellington defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo ending the 100 days
- Louis XVIII returned "in the baggage of the allies"

The Congress of Vienna

- All countries were invited to the Congress of Vienna, but five remained dominant
- Metternich from Austria, prime force of the congress
- · Castlereagh from Great Britain
- Alexander I from Russia
- Hardenburg from Prussia
- Tallyrand from France
- The attempt at the Congress of Vienna was to restore a balance of power
- Restore old rulers (Legitimacy)
- France was surrounded by strong states to prevent another Napoleon from taking power
- Kingdom of Netherlands united with Spanish Netherlands
- Savoy received Piedmont
- Austrians were given back the land lost in Italy
- Confederation of the Rhine broken into 39 states
- Prussia lands extended to the Rhine River, only to be broken by Hanover (British)
- HRE not re-established

Czar Alexander tried to institute a Holy Alliance, but failed

Romanticism

Characteristics

- Belief in emotional exuberance, unrestrained imagination, and spontaneity in both art and personal life
- Movement against the Industrial Revolution
- Viewed modern industry as an ugly, brutal attack on nature and humanity
- Viewed nature as indestructible: "Nature is spirit visible"
- Rejected materialism
- Viewed Middle Ages as good
- Only very rich or very poor became romantics

Literature

- Exuberance for social causes and nature
- Prone to see emotions reflected in the natural world
- British writers—Wordsworth "Daffodils," Coleridge, Byron, Shelly, Keats
- French writers—Hugo, Dumas, and Sands

• Fine Arts

- In music, there was a personal expression of emotion, adventure, and romance
- Musicians—Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, Lizst
- Paintings were dramatic and colorful and stirred up emotions
- Eugene Delacroix—The French romantic who painted "Liberty Leading the People"
- John Turner—English artist who depicted nature's power and terror

The Industrial Revolutions

- Commercial Revolution
 - Joint Stock Companies—investors rewarded for risk

British India Company Dutch

East India Company

 Signified the rise of a capitalistic economy and the transition from a towncentered to a national-centered economic system Private/national banking—Christians eventually believed that banking was all right. Before, Jews, namely the Fugers, controlled the banks in Europe

Development of Capitalism

- The first major capitalists were the Dutch. They introduced the idea of profit and buying mass quantities
- The capitalistic economy, which the people of the Netherlands embraced, allowed more economic freedom that caused the prosperity of the Union of Utrecht (the Netherlands, Holland, and United Provinces)
- Expansion of trade routes—due to new technological advanced such as the compass and the triangular sail, the Dutch were able to expand their seafaring skills and create and expand trade routes.

• Economic Readjustment

- Open trade routes—new trade routes emerged around Africa, the Americas, and England and to India
- Population growth—the capitalist system generated better jobs, thus giving the people more money and food, causing a population boom
- Slow inflation rates—everywhere in Europe prospered due to new trade techniques and advances. However, Spain did not prosper because it had excess gold and silver from the Americas and not enough skillful workers
- Mercantilism—the government became involved directly to strengthen the
 economy. This allowed the Dutch to export more than they imported, build
 navies to protect trade, and develop colonies
- Bullionism—a royal tax placed on precious metals such as gold and silver
- Statism (belief in state)—incorporating raw materials into the country and exporting manufactured goods, rather than buying foreign goods
- From 1785 to 1815, two revolutions had been taking place
- Governmental organization—authority, rights, legislation
- Economic—production of wealth, manufacturing
- Capital—wealth in whatever form, used or capable of being used to produce more wealth
- Capitalism—private ownership
- England underwent the Industrial Revolution first due to
- Enclosure movement—nobles were able to fence in their property and pay peasants a salary
- Supply of coal, iron, and water—helped produce energy to move factories

- Independent, inventive people
- Raw materials—trading brought more materials
- Stable government
- Successful outcomes of the wars, no damage done to Great Britain
- Social Consequences

Urban agglomerations- cities began to grow rapidly

Effects on living—more crowding, pollution, and crime

Skilled workers (craftsmen) became obsolete

• Factory Act of 1802—forbade children from working and regulated conditions for others under Robert Peel

AGRICULTURE—start of Enclosure Movement
Jethro Tull—invented the seed drill, which solves the waste of seeds
Charles Townsend—came up with new crop rotation
Robert Bakeswell—raised larger sheep through artificial selection
Textile Industry
John Kay—flying shuttle
James Hargraves—spinning jenny
Richard Arkwright—water frame
Edmund Cartwright—power loom
Eli Whitney—cotton gin
Steam Power
Thomas Newcomen—modernized steam engine
James Watt—patented steam engine
Richard Fulton—steam boat for motorized power
George Stephenson—locomotive "The Rocket"
Internal Combustion
Papin—first piston engine
Daimler—internal combustion engine—first car
Ford—first mass-produced car
Communication
Morse—telegraph
Marconi—wireless
Bell—telephone
Electricity
Franklin—principles of electricity
Edison—light bulb

Economics

- Adam Smith—republican economist who came up with Laissez-faire economics, where government does not get involved with the national economy in any way.
- Thomas Malthus—classical economist who wrote An Essay on the Principles
 of Population, a book which described human growth as exponential and food
 supply as arithmetical
- Said that human population growth is a cycle and proposed the idea of:

Positive Checks—war, disease, famine

Preventive Checks—abstinence

- David Ricardo—Classical economist who wrote Principle of Political Economy and Taxation, a book which defined the Iron Law of Wages, a theory where human wages must be sufficient enough to buy food.
- Karl Marx (1818-1883)—credited with the development of the communist idea of government
- Fredrich Engels (1820-1893)—helped Marx create his ideas
- Communist Manifesto (1848)
- "Let the ruling class tremble at a communist revolution. The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. All working men unite!"
- Religion is necessary for order—"religion is the opiate of people"
- Family units are breaking down by the exploitation of women and children
- Workers are being deprived of the wealth he created
- The state is a committee of the bourgeoisie
- Goals of Communism

Overthrow capitalism

Create a dictatorship of the proletarian

Educate proletarians

Withering of the state leads to communism

- Doctrine of Surplus—the worker is being robbed; they only receive a fraction of the product value
- History of humanity is the history of class struggle. The process of this struggle is dialect
- Dialect—all things are in movement and evolving, changes come by clashing elements

- German philosopher that came up with ideal dialect
- Dialectical Materialism—Marx believed that the clashing elements were materials, not ideas
- Appeal of Marxism
- Strengths:
- It was based on facts, and was therefore scientific
- Weaknesses:
- Workers did not rise up or look forward to a revolution
- Christianity was strong
- Strong nationality within people
- Also, in 1850–1870:
- Wages rose gradually
- Labor unions were organized
- Unions improved working conditions
- · Working men could now vote
- Working class parties worked within system for changes
- Opportunism—use of the opportunity to rise in power through the expenses of others

...ISMS

- Classical Liberalism
 - · Contained men of business and professional class
 - Supported all that was modern, enlightened, and reasonable
 - In favor of a representative government Favored Laissez-faire policies
 - Frowned on established church and landed aristocracy
 - Supported free trade
 - Advocated for orderly change by the process of legislation
- Radicalism
 - Waved aside all arguments based on history and custom
 - Total reconstruction of society
 - Detested church and wished to abolish the monarchy

- Democratic
- Republicanism
 - Consisted of mainly students and working-class leaders protesting social injustices
 - Looked forward to future revolutions
 - Viewed church and monarch negatively
 - Maintained that Republicans were a little better than anarchists
- Socialism
 - Held that society can change to a utopian state of communism
- Conservatism
 - · Upheld ideas of basically the old regime
 - Followed the ideas of Edmund Burke (French Revolution)
- Fascism
 - Totalitarian rule with government guidance of economy while allowing a profit to be made
- Other -isms
 - Materialism—maintained that wealth is measured by the amount of materials
 - Realism—against romanticism, portrayed realistic ideas
 - Realpolitik (German)—encouraged giving up utopian notions and following one's own practical interests while disregarding taste, ethics, and scruples and using any means to achieve one's goals

Revolutions of 1830 and 1848

France

- Louis XVIII—Monarch of France after the reign of Napoleon
- Charles X—Monarch after Louis XVIII, wished to return France back to old regime
- Four Ordinances:
 - Chamber of Deputies dissolved
 - Imposed censorship of press
 - Reduced voting power of bourgeoisie and returned it to nobles
 - Called for new elections on these points

- Because of this, the old regime was restored. This angered the people and caused the July Revolution
 - Lasted July 27–29, 1830
 - Republicans in Paris
 - Charles sent military, but soldiers joined Revolution while he fled to England
 - People looked for Marquis de Lafayette for help and he picked the Duke of Orleans who became King Louis Philip. Began the Orleanist, Bourgeors, or July Monarchy. Louis Philip was the King of the French

Minor Revolutions

- Belgium—(1830)
- Rebelled against the Dutch
- Leopold of Saxe-Coburg became new leader
- Set up a neutral nation
- *Poland*—(1830–1831)
- Polish nationalists against Czar Nicholas I
- No countries aided Poland due to their own problems
- Russia conquered Poland
- Switzerland—established a measure of liberalism
- Spain—Parliamentary upheaval and Civil Wars
- Italy and Germany—attempt to unify failed

Great Britain

- Corn Laws—high tariffs put on grains coming into England
- Tory Reforms—loosened up strict government after threats of violence
- George Canning—Foreign Minister
- Robert Peel—Parliament Leader
- Reduced tariff duties
- Liberalized Navigation Acts allowed skilled workers to emigrate
- Repealed Test Act of 1673
- Introduced police force (Bobbies, named after Robert Peel)
- They, however, COULD NOT:

- Question Corn Laws
- Reform House of Commons
- Reform Bill of 1832—passed by Whigs
 - Reallocated seats within the House of Commons, but did not add seatsQuestion Corn Laws
 - Stabilized representation
 - Moved power from rural to urban

Britain after 1832

- Whigs and Industrialists formed the Liberal Party
- Party Tories and Radicals formed the Conservative Party
- Factory Act of 1833—forbade labor of children under nine in textile mills
- Ten Hours Act—mandated a ten-hour workday limit for women and children
- Corn Laws repealed—(Whigs were anti-Corn Laws)
- Industry is a governing element
- Free trade established
- Britain became dependent on imports
- Socialism—Socialism spread among the working class after 1830. In France,
 Robespierre and Babeuf were considered heroes. Socialistic ideas blended with
 a movement (chartist) for further parliamentary reforms. Socialists at this time
 included
- Henri de Saint-Simon
- Charles Fourier
- Robert Owen
- Chartist Movement—led by working class. Only a few chartists were socialist, but all were anti-capitalist
- Proposals:
 - Annual elections to the House of Commons (by)
 - Universal suffrage for all adult males (through)
 - A secret ballot (and)
 - Equal electoral districts
 - Abolition of property qualifications for membership to House of Commons (and urged instead)

- Payment of salaries to all elected Parliament members, in order that poor people could have say
- The Chartists were rejected, and went on to form labor unions
- Reform Act of 1867—universal male suffrage was granted

Revolutions of 1848 France

- King Louis Philip—also called the Bourgeoisie Monarchy or the Orleanist Monarchy
- During this period, republicanism was becoming more socialist
- Guizot—Prime Minister of France. Opposed all change, believed in conservatism
- Demands of the radicals—to have universal suffrage and to create a republic
- Demands of the liberals—to give more voting rights to middle class, but keep a constitutional monarchy
- Both parties viewed Louis Philip and the July Monarchy negatively
- February Revolution
- Reformers planned "banquets" as a way of gathering. On February 22, 1848, a banquet was held and soldiers opened fire. In turn, the revolutionaries caused a street riot in Paris
- Louis Philip abdicated, fled to Great Britain
- On February 18, 1848, a provisional government was created under ten men: seven political republicans, three social republicans
- Lamartine—political republican who believed in a moderate republic and political democracy, had little sympathy for the poor
- Louis Blanc—social republican and thinker who created the National Workshop
- National Workshop—provided job training and welfare for the lower class, consisted
 of the Labor Commission, a program that found ways to put people to work
- Constituent (National) Assembly—voted to power by universal male suffrage.
 Dominated by moderate republicans and conservatives. The five executives of this new government were anti-socialist and Louis Blanc's outspoken enemies
- Moderate Republicans and Conservatives dominated the National Assembly
- Legitimists—people who were in favor of the restoration of the Bourbon Dynasty
- *Orleanists*—people who were in favor of the restoration of the July Monarchy
- June Days of 1848
 - A class war between the middle class and the working class erupted
 - National Assembly vs. National Workshop

- On May 15, the National Workshop dissolved the government
- General Cavaignac "The Butcher"—head of the French army who killed members during the Bloody June Days (24–26) of the National Workshop and gave the National Assembly back its power
- June Days brought fear of the lower working-class uprising all over Europe
- Germany 1848 Started in Berlient
- Germany 1848
- Started in Berlin
- Frederick William IV—Prussian Kaiser who recognized nationality
- The Frankfurt Assembly—German people's first attempt to unify
 - Made of the middle class
 - Had basically no power
 - Their main goal was to unify Germany
 - Their biggest question was "What is Germany?"
 - Grand Germany—a Germany that noluded all German-speaking states

 Lesser Germany—a Germany with only Prussia, Hanover, and all HRE states
- They offered Frederick William IV the crown of a Constitutional Federal Union without Austria, but he rejected it because his equals, the German princes, did not offer it
- "I cannot pick up a crown from the gutter"
- Forty-eighters—émigrés from Germany

Other Revolutions in Europe

- The Habsburg Empire contained three geographical areas with over a dozen language groups
- Metternich discouraged nationalistic manifestations
- Bellum Omnium Contra Omnes—war of all against all
- Revolution in Hungary
- The March Days started when Lajos Kossuth of Hungary demanded independence
- Metternich fled to Great Britain
- Emperor Ferdinand I gave Hungary autocracy as long as they were loyal
- March Laws—the Hungarian government was separate within the empire

- Ferdinand abdicated and Francis Joseph became new monarch
- Revolution in Italy
 - Milan and Venice, provinces controlled by Austria, revolted in favor of a united Italy
 - King of Sardinia, Charles Albert, the one true Italian dynasty, declared war on Austria
 - Garibaldi—Southern Italian revolutionary
 - Mazzini—made Pope Pius IV give up Papal StatesA class war between the middle class and the working class erupted
 - Pope fled to France, where Louis Napoleons decreed the Falloux Laws
 - Ethnic division was caused by disunity among peasants, industrial workers, and the middle class
- Turning of the Tide—counter-revolutions sent by Austria to reclaim Italian provinces

19th Century European History

Italian Unification

- First Revolution in Italy
 - Milan and Venice, provinces controlled by Austria, revolted in favor of a united Italy
 - King of Sardinia, Charles Albert, the one true Italian dynasty, declared war on Austria
 - Garibaldi—Southern Italian revolutionary
 - Mazzini "the soul of Italian Unification"—young Italy
 - Risorgimento—revival
 - Pope fled to France, where Louis Napoleons decreed the Falloux Laws
 - Ethnic division was caused by disunity among peasants, industrial workers, and the middle class
 - Charles Albert defeated by Radetsky and forced to abdicate his throne to his son, Victor Emanuel
- Austro-Sardinian War
 - Count Cavour—foreign minister under Victor Emmanuel "The brain of Italian Unification"

In order to unite Italy:

Piedmont had to be a model of progress for other Italian states

Realpolitik had to be used

Napoleon III decided to help Italy because:

Italy was his ancestral homeland

He supported the idea of nationalism

He wanted to fight Austria to bring glory

France was offered:

3.000.000 Lira

Areas of Nice and Savoy

Victor Emmanuel's daughter to Napoleon's cousin

- Unification in Process
 - Battle of Magenta and Solferino—Battles of Austrian Loss
 - Piedmont given Lombard
 - Tuscany, Modena, Parma annexed to Sardinia
 - Venetia still controlled by Austria, given to Italy after the Austro-Prussian War
 - After France pulled out, Italy conquered the Papal States
 - Rome was still controlled by France, later given to Italy
 - Only Nice and Savoy given to Napoleon III
- Garibaldi
 - Garibaldi's soldiers were called the Red Shirts
 - Invaded Kingdom of Two Sicilies, housed by the Spanish Bourbons, and conquered it in one month
 - Law of Papal Guarantees—pope was guaranteed freedom, an annual income, and the Vatican as his private domain. Pope Pius IX turned down this treaty
 - Lateran Treaty of 1929—second treaty with the Pope, accepted by Pope Pius XII

Russian Liberalization

- Pre-Crimean War
 - Russia was called the "enormous village", stretching from Poland to the Pacific
 - Very conservative nation, almost no freedom to lower classes

- Serfdom was still enforced, basically still living in the Middle Ages
- Political organization was vague, but contained two major groups:

Westernizers—people who believed that Russia was destined to be like Western Europe

Slavophiles—people who believed that Russia was to be entrusted with a Slavic destiny

- Third Section—a system of secret political police that used inquisitional methods
- Ukase—a decree passed by the czar
- The Russian government was absolutely run by the czar there was no legislative branch

The Two Institutions

- Alexander II was czar during this time of reform
- There were two main institutions: the autocracy of the czar and legalized bondage or serfdom
- In Russia, the idea of rights and claims for justice of individual men was almost non-existent
- Government was afraid of people who supported liberty and freedom, as well as a just and classless society
- Because of this, the press and universities were severely censored
- Russian government was very bureaucratic and treated people without organic connection
- Serfdom in Russia was very harsh and resembled the slavery of the Americas
- Main opposition to the czardom was the Intelligentsia—educated Russians, mainly made up of students, university graduates, and people who had time to read
- Their characteristic was one of opposition and some turned to revolutionary and even terrorist philosophies
- The Emancipation Act of 1861 and Other Reforms
 - Alexander II saw need for reform when Russia was defeated in a localized Crimean War
 - He attempted to enlist the support of the liberals by allowing them to:

Travel outside of Russia

Enjoy relaxed censorship

Publish newspapers and journals

- Alexander Herzen—Publisher of the Polar Star, a revolutionary newspaper
- The Third Section was abolished
- An imperial ukase in 1861 declared serfdom abolished and peasants freed
- Peasants were not truly free because they had to pay for land and buy their way to freedom
- Mir—an ancient peasant village assembly
- Because of the Mir, Russian villages became isolated since people who moved out made others pay more taxes
- Alexander II proceeded to overhaul and westernize the legal system of the country
- He made trials public and a system of trial by jury was introduced
- Zemstvos—a system of provincial and district councils, created under the edict of 1864
- Zemsky Sobor—council that ended the Council of Troubles by the election of Michael Romanov
- People's Will—terrorist group which killed Czar Alexander II
- Many liberals wished for a representative body for Russia, such as the Zemsky Sobor or Duma, but was refused by Alexander II
- On March 13, 1881, after he signed an edict to create a representative government, a bomb kills Alexander II
- This limited the reforms Alexander III, heir of Alexander II, could make. He was later assassinated

The 3rd French Republic

- Restoration of the French Empire
 - After the June days, the National Assembly called for election for a president
 - There were four candidates:

Lamartine—was vaguely moral

Cavaignac—believed in disciplined order

Ledru-Rollin—believed in socialism

Louis Napoleon—had unclear goals

 Louis Napoleon won because he promised to "restore the beauties of the empire" Louis Napoleon:

Ousted socialists from government

Practiced censorship

Ended universal male suffrage

Banned meetings

- He blamed the Legislative Assembly for the revoking of universal male suffrage
- The Legislative Assembly, which had a royalist majority, supported Louis Napoleon because he was anti-socialist
- Falloux Law of 1850—all schools must be under control of the Catholic Clergy
- On Dec. 2, 1851, the coup d'etat Putsches declared the Legislative Assembly dissolved and the return of universal male suffrage
- On Dec. 20, 1851, a plebiscite was held and Louis Napoleon was elected President for 10 years.
- Louis Napoleon eventually became Emperor Napoleon III, the first modern dictator
- Promised that the "empire means peace"
- Baron Haussmann—redesigned Paris, made the streets wider so that no one could barricade it
- Credit Mobilier—a bank where people could buy stocks. Funded the building of trains and factories
- Louis Napoleon appeased his audiences in 1852 by saying "L'empire, c'est la paix" (The empire means peace). He fought many wars during the reign of his Second Empire:

1854—Crimean War

1859—Fighting in Italy

1862—Fighting in Mexico

1870—Franco-Prussian War

- By 1870, his empire had evaporated on the battlefield. He ruined himself by war
- After 1814, the Battle of Waterloo, there had been no major wars between countries until World War I
- Crimean War
 - Nicholas I demanded Rumania in order to protect Christians within the Ottoman Empire

- French had objections; Napoleon III encouraged the Turks to resist
- Britain joined France against Russia due to the balance of powers
- Sardinia declared war against Russia
- Austria and Russia were seriously weakened
- First war with newspaper correspondence
- First war where women were nurses (Florence Nightingale)

Peace at Paris

- All European powers agreed to maintain the Ottoman Empire
- Romania and Serbia proclaimed one independent country
- Danube River was recognized as an international waterway

• Creation of the Third Republic

- Napoleon III was captured during the Battle of Sudan against the Germans
- Because the head of the government was captured, the French Empire collapsed
- The Germans refused to sign a peace treaty with a provisional government; so the French had to create a new government
- Bismarck permitted universal male suffrage and a new National Assembly was elected
- Parisians opposed the new government because the Germans, not the French, basically created this government
- The new government contained the presidential branch and the premier branch, which worked within a cabinet
- The Premier eventually became the main executive power in France
- Republicanism became more popular after 1879 because it became less radical and all other political parties failed

• The Dreyfus Affair

- The *Dreyfus Affair* occurred when a Jewish army officer, *Captain Dreyfus*, was accused of selling government secrets and was deported to Devil's Island
- The real culprit was Major Esterhazy, and Major Henry, who forged documents to confirm Dreyfus's guilt
- Eventually, in 1899, he was pardoned and in 1906, he was fully exonerated

• The aftermath of affair brought:

The exposition of corrupt ion within the government

The first sign of Jewish prejudice

Separation of church and state, using the laic laws

- Strengths of the Republic
 - · Most militant of the regimes, also the longest lasting
 - Showed that the French were capable of law and order
 - There was a mutual tolerance between the classes and no longer fought each other
 - · Industrial workers became better off
 - Overall condition of living improved
- Weaknesses of the Republic
 - Industrial progress lagged behind
 - · Entrepreneurs took few risks, needed for industrial growth
 - Political parties were fragmented and could not work together
 - · There was no strong leader in France
 - French labor remained a steady source of discontent

The British Constitutional Monarchy

- The Reign of Queen Victoria
 - Queen Victoria (1837–1901) ruled most of the 19th century
 - It was during her reign that the British Empire reached its peak
 - Liberals (Whigs)
- William Gladstone
 - Appealed to industrial workers and commercialists
 - 1884 Reform Bill—increased number of voters within England to four million
 - Forster Education Act—started state-supported, education

Goals accomplished by Gladstone during 1880-1885:

State-supported education

Secret ballots

Civil services exams

Workers compensation

- Benjamin Disraeli
 - Conservatives (Tories)
 - Appealed to upper classes
 - Reform Bill of 1867—increased number of voters within Great Britain to two million
 - Goals accomplished in 1874—1880:

Laws on public sanitation

Laws on factory and mining conditions

Attempted housing for the poor

- 1918 Suffrage Act—brought universal male suffrage and voting for women over 30
- Parliament Act of 1911:

Brought salaries to the mem bers of the House of Commons

Deprived the veto power of the House of Lords on money matters

Labor emerged as a major political force and the Labour Party was organized after 1900

During this time, Herber Asquith was Prime Minister and David Lloyd George was Treasurer

Removed restrictions on strikes and other trade union activities

Applied a progressive tax and inheritance tax

- The Irish Question
 - Ireland was added to Great Britain during the Napoleonic Years and the threat of an Irish invasion as well as a French one
 - It was clearly a defensive measure
 - The Irish had two main grievances
 - Irish peasants were defenseless against their landlords
 - The Irish people were required to pay a tithe to the Church of Ireland (Anglican)

- Gladstone attempted to disestablish the Church of Ireland and protect farmers
- Disraeli bought out landlords and attempted home rule
- Ireland was divided religiously by the Ulstermen (Protestants) and the Catholics
- In 1914, Ireland was granted home rule

Bismarck and the German Empire (1871-1890)

- German Unification
 - French and Russians always wanted to keep Germany divided
 - Western view of the individual: dominant, good people
 - German view of the individual: same as Western, but the individual is no good without his group or nation
 - Germany was producing six times as much coal and had the best railroad system on the continent
- Otto von Bismarck—Chancellor (Minister President) of Germany
 - Believed that unification is made "not by speeches or majority votes, that was the error of 1848 and 1849...but by blood and iron"
 - Believed in Realpolitik
 - Stressed duty, honor, and fear of God
- The Schleswig-Holstein Question—Danes united the province of Schleswig and Holstein under the Danish crown
 - Prussia got Austria to declare war on Denmark
 - Holstein given to Austria
 - Schleswig given to Prussia
 - Was important because it led to...
- The Austro-Prussian War (Seven Weeks' War)
 - United the German states, controlled by Austria
 - Prussia obtained Holstein
 - Prussia and 21 other German states formed the North German Confederation
- The Franco-Prussian War
 - Started when the Spanish asked Hohenzollern Prince Leopold to be their constitutional monarch
 - Bismarck influenced Leopold to be king
 - Benedetti, foreign minister of France, went to Elms to talk him out of being king

- Bismarck recorded and edited the conversation and made it offending to the French
- This is called the Elms Dispatch
- France felt insulted and threatened and declared war on Prussia
- Napoleon III is captured
- Bismarck proclaimed the German Empire in Versailles with William I as emperor
- Brought great tension between the Germans and the French
- Treaty of Frankfurt:

All southern German States were added to Germany

Alsace and Lorraine taken away from France

France desired revenge in order to gain these lands back

Ended Franco-Prussian War

• The German Empire

- The German Empire was officially announced at Versailles with Bismarck as chancellor and Wilhelm I as emperor
- The German Empire was a federation of monarchies, a union of 25 German states, which Prussia dominated
- To win popular support for his projects, Bismarck developed a program of social legislation. He...
- Exploited democracy with social sentiments
- Provided universal male suffrage for the Reichstag
- His main opposition was from the Prussian Junkers
- "It is the Emperor and his Chancellor who govern Germany"

The Kulturkampf

- Syllabus of Errors (1864)—denounced the encroachment of government on education and church
- Papal Infallibility (1870)—stated that the Pope was always correct on moral issues
- The Center Party—party created that defended the Catholic interests in Germany
- Liberals were anti-clerical and restricted worship and education of Catholicism
- Bismarck's Views on Socialism

- The German Social Democratic party was based on the teachings of Marx and LaSalle
- In 1878, aided by Catholics and Liberals, Bismarck attempted to eradicate socialism and pass socialistic legislation (semi-welfare and social security)
- He passed Anti-Socialist Legislation:

Prohibition of socialist meetings

Prohibition of socialist newspapers

He also passed Pro-Social Legislation:

Protective tariffs of merchants

Social security and compensation for old age and sickness

- The German Empire after 1890
 - Wilhelm I died and eventually was succeeded by Wilhelm II (1888–1916)
 - Wilhelm II and Bismarck did not get along and Wilhelm asked Bismarck to resign
 - This is known as "dropping the pilot"
 - Wilhelm dominated the German policy into World War I by

Pure aggressive colonial power

Conciliatory policy towards the German masses

Exclusion of social democrats from high office

Changes in Order

- Science
 - In the last half century before World War I, more people put their faith in science, namely biology
 - · Biology and Medicine
 - Charles Darwin—developed the Theory of Evolution, which says that life is
 evolving and new species arise from the evolving of older ones. Wrote Origins of
 Species and Descent of Man
 - Special Creation—held that every living thing remains the same throughout eternity
 - Social Darwinism—maintained that the fittest for survival enjoyed wealth and success and the poor remained poor because they were unfit. Strongly supported capitalism, racism, and warfare

- Joseph Lister—suggested that infection was caused by the dirtiness of hospitals. Began a new program to clean up the hospital ward
- Louis Pasteur—found that organisms called bacteria caused infection.
 Developed a process to kill bacteria—pasteurization
- Psychology—study of the human mind
 - Wilhelm Wundt—developed a way to test the human mind. Known as the "Father of Psychology"
 - Ivan Pavlov—found that behavior can be conditioned—"Pavlov's dog"
 - Sigmund Freud—developed psychoanalysis and the concept that man is not always rational
- New Physics and Chemistry
 - Gregor Mendel—discovered that there is a pattern by the way traits are inherited
 - Dmitri Mendeleyev—developed the first periodical table of elements
 - Marie and Pierre Curie—founded two new elements and studied radioactivity
 - Antoine Henri Becquerel—discovered the concept of radioactivity
 - Max Planck—found small units of energy released in bundles called quantum
 - Neils Bohr—postulated the idea of an atom and energy jumps in hydrogen
 - Albert Einstein—explained the photoelectric effect and the theory of relativity

Philosophy

Herbert Spencer, Ernest Haeckel, and T.H. Huxley—believed that...

Governments should not coddle the weak

Governments should maintain freedom and justice

Governments should do justice and not interfere with science

Charity and usefulness are products of evolution

• Friedrich Nietzsche—atheist philosopher who believed that religion is for the weak and men can evolve to greater consciousness and understanding

Art and Music

- Impressionism—used scenes from everyday life (Monet, Manet, Renoir)
- Post Impressionism—used dark and gloomy colors for an eerie atmosphere (Van Gogh, Gauguin)
- Expressionism—used bright, vivid colors (Munch, Kandinsky)

 Music at this time was still Romantic. Composers included Strauss, Ravel, Stravinsky, Verdi, and Wagner

<u>Imperialism</u>

- European influence spread throughout the world after 1870, introducing new sciences and industry. Empires were gained before World War I, and Europe was supreme
- Attributes of Modern Europe:

Science and industry

Strong industry and economy

Stable government

Machine power

Hygiene, sanitation, and medicine

- Older Empires—based mainly on mercantile and maritime ways. Believed in going into an area by ship, buying raw goods and coming back yearly for more goods. This was known as the "cash and carry" method
- Newer Empires—Europeans began to settle down in the areas that they conquered
 in order to capitalize their empires. They were able to do this now because modern
 science and machinery allowed them to produce materials faster
- Reasons for Imperialism:

Imperial prestige

Economics

Surplus population

Moral reasons—"White Man's Burden"

Military factors—Coaling stations for modern steam fleets

• Types of Imperial Relationships

Colony—direct political influence and governing

Protectorate—local leader controlled by an outside European, basically a puppet

Resident or Commissioner—European who controlled the local leader

Sphere of Influence—division of a large area with some military control

 Pre-industrial Europe viewed other non-Europeans as their equals until they developed new technology Incentives and Motives

Science (expedition/discoveries)

Wealth

National security

- Joseph Chamberlain—believed that Europeans should take care of others.
 Basically developed the Commonwealth
- Lenin—wrote Imperialism, the Highest Stage, saying that governments should not look to other areas, but put capital within their own society in order to better it
- J. A. Hobsen—agreed with Lenin
- Rudyard Kipling—author of White Man's Burden, encouraged imperialism because it was for the glory of the country
- Imperialism as a Crusade—Imperialism arose from the commercial, industrial, financial, scientific, political, journalistic, intellectual, religious, humanitarian impulses of Europe
 - The backwardness of Europeans was believed, by some, to be due to historical and temporary causes. Therefore, Europeans must advance non-whites. This is known in different countries under different titles:

Britain—White Man's Burden

France—Mission Civilisatrice

Germany—Culture

United States—Blessings of Anglo-Saxon

- The Dissolution of the Ottoman Empire
 - Turkey was known as the "Sick Man of Europe"
 - In Turkey, these traits were evident:

Turks ruled as the upper class

Islam was the official religion

There were high taxes for non-Muslims

It began deteriorating slowly in 1699, after the loss of Hungary

- Crimean War and Attempts for Reform
 - In the Crimean War, 1854–1856, the Turks were on the winning side, but the war pointed out their weaknesses

Turks attempted reform by bringing:

The concept of equality before the law without regard of religion

Tax reform, abolition of torture, and security of property

Abolition of civil author ity of religious leaders

- Abdul Aziz (1861–1876)—first sultan to travel into Europe. He over borrowed and spent recklessly. In 1874, he repudiated half of his debt
- This brought about repression in the Ottoman Empire in 1876
- Abdul Hamid II (1876–1909)

Reactionary sultan that fought back feroci ously against forces he could not understand

The Sultan was frightened by the agitation fr om the nationalist Armenians and Bulgarians

He massacred thousands Bulgarians and Armenians because of this fear

- The Russo-Turkish War
 - Pan-Slavism—all Slavic peoples should join together under Russian control, meaning they had to break away from other countries
 - Slav people of the Ottoman Empire used pan-slavism as an excuse for rebelling against the Turks
 - Insurrection against the Turks broke out in Bosnia in 1875 and Bulgaria in 1876
 - In 1877, Russia declared war on Turkey

Britain sided with Turkey in order to keep a balance of power

Russia reached Constantinople and forced the Turks to sign the Treaty of San Stefano

Turkey ceded to Russia Batum and Kars on the south side of the Caucasus Mountains. They also gave independence to Serbia and Rumania, as well as reforms in Bosnia and autonomy for Bulgaria

Britain, under the ministry of Benjamin Disraeli, bought 44% of the Suez Canal from a bankrupt Egypt

- The Canal was the lifeline of the British Empire because it connected Europe to India
- England was ready for war, and was motivated by jingoism, a belief that England should show their military strength
- Treaty of Berlin of 1878—because of the threat of international war by Britain and Russia, Bismarck decided to intervene

The Treaty of Berlin attempted to:

Resolve the Ottoman Question

Keep Russia and Britain from declaring war

In the end:

Russia kept Batum and Kars

The Congress initiated the par tition of the Turkish domain

Austria-Hungary was given the right to occupy and administer Bosnia, but not to annex it

The Turks ceded Cyprus to Britain

Serbia and Rumania remained independent

 The Treaty of Berlin dispelled the immediate threat of war. But it left many continuing problems for later statesmen to deal with, problems which became the main cause of World War I 36 years later

The Partition of Africa

- Africa was known as the "Dark Continent" because of its people and others' lack of awareness about it (due to the Sahara and disease)
- Missionaries, explorers, and adventurers first opened Africa to the World
- Dr. David Livingstone—a Scotsman, who was a medical missionary, discovered the flow of the Zambesi River.
- H.M. Stanley—found Livingstone and explored the Congo Basin
- Stanley made an agreement with Leopold II, that he would claim Congo for Belgium
- The Berlin Conference of 1885

Took Congo away from Belgium and made it international

Set ground rules for colonization of Africa

Coastal areas had first choice for claims within Africa Occupation must be by residence

Recognition of claims must be made to other countries

Brussels Conference of 1889

Outlawed slavery

Passed laws to protect natives

From 1885 to 1900, the Europeans in Africa came dangerously close to open blows with each other

- In 1896, 80,000 Ethiopians slaughtered 20,000 Italians at the Battle of Adowa
- Germans were latecomers in the scramble for Africa. They established colonies in East Africa, Cameroon, Togo, and SW Africa
- During the 1880's an Islamic revolution under the Mahdi (Islamic warrior) developed in the Sudan
- In 1884, Gladstone sent Charles "Chinese" Gordon to evacuate Khartoum
- The British and Chinese Gordon were slaughtered at Khartoum
- The French government in 1898 ordered *Captain Marchand* to the upper Nile in order to conquer *Sudan*
- Britain moved in Sudan in 1885 and in 1890, *General Kitchener* advanced south. They met the French in Fashoda
- The Fashoda Crisis—Britain and France were at the brink of war. A test of strength as neither power backed down. Britain threatened war, and France, fearful of their insecurity against Germany in Europe backed down. Anti-Anglo feelings spread through France

• The Boer War

- Dutch settled in South Africa a long time ago (1500s) as a stop for the Dutch to go to India
- Great Trek—the British moved in and forced the Boers (Dutch farmers) north
- The Prime Minister of Cape Colony, Cecil Rhodes, called for a railroad from Cape to Cairo
- The Dutch (*Boers/Afrikaners*) had moved to Transvaal and Orange Free State, and diamonds were discovered there.
- The Jamestown Raid was a first attempt to capture Transvaal and Orange Free State by Rhodes
- Paul Kruger, governor of the Boer Republics, did not want to get involved with the British
- Rhodes brought the British Empire to declare war on the two Boer republics, which were annexed to Cape Colony in 1910
- The Boer War and the Fashoda Crisis revealed to the British the bottomless depths of their unpopularity in Europe, as all governments were pro-Boer. Rivalry and embittered relations helped prepare the way to World War I
- By 1900, Africa, except for Liberia and Ethiopia, was fully partitioned
- Dutch East Indies and India

- The ideal colonies in the world -exported more than imported, rich, and varied with resources, and people there were adept and quick to learn. The Dutch favored learning native languages in order to preserve the culture of an area while teaching Western ideas
- When the British arrived in India, they attempted to do away with "uncivilized" practices such as

Suttee—women jumping into the funeral fire of their husbands

Thugs—who made blood sacrifices to the God of Blood

- Eventually, the British abolished the caste system in India
- In 1857, the Sepoy Rebellion occurred. It started when rumors spread that new cartridges were greased with pig and cow fat. Because of this, the British East India Company was disbanded and direct British rule was implied
- Queen Victoria was crowned Empress of India in 1876
- As a landlocked empire, Russia attempted to gain access to warm water ports.
 The ocean, however, was Britain's domain. In 1864, Russia took Turkestan (North
 of Iran and Afghanistan) and encroached on Persia. Tension arose with Britain
 until 1907 when both parties "recognized" each other's sphere of influence

• China and Japan

- The Opium War (1839–1841), which was a war against opium in China, led to the
 opening up of China and unequal treaties, like the Treaty of Nanking and Tientsin,
 which allowed China to be carved up as compensation for war damages. This
 started the Century of Humiliation for China
- The United States feared being left out and passed the Open Door Policy, which allowed China to trade openly
- The Taiping Rebellion was a rebellion against the Manchus. The rebellion occurred because Manchus were considered foreigners within China. Eventually, Charles "Chinese" Gordon put down the rebellion with European help
- The Boxer Rebellion was a revolution by the Peaceful Order of Harmonious
 Fists. This was a rebellion of all the nations within China. This Rebellion united
 foreigners against Chinese revolutionary movements. During the Sino-Japanese
 War, China lost Korea, Formosa (Taiwan) and parts of Manchuria to Japan

• Russo-Japanese War

- In 1902 Japan signed a military alliance with Britain
- Japan attacked Russians at Port Arthur and destroyed the Russian fleet
- Japan took Port Arthur, parts of Manchuria, and the southern half of the Sakhalin Island

Results

Russian government resumed an active role in the Balkans

Czarist government was weakened and underground movements began to surface

Japan defeated Russia, indicating that non-Europeans could beat Europeans Non-Europeans began to overthrow imperialism

World War I

- After 1870, Europe lived in repressed fear of itself. All the great questions of the mid-century had been answered by force. By 1914, each of the continental powers not only had a huge army, but millions of trained reserves among the civilian population
- The Rivaling Allies
 - The Triple Alliance
 - Bismarck feared that a future war would break the newly united Germany
 - In 1879, Bismarck made a military alliance with Austria-Hungary
 - In 1882, he created a military alliance with Italy
 - The alliance system was based on the idea that the allies must help out militarily if an ally goes to war with two or more countries
 - A "reinsurance" treaty with Russia was signed, but was later broken by Wilhelm II through the dropping of the pilot in 1890
 - This treaty said that the powers would not bother one another
 - This was an attempt to isolate France from the power of Europe
 - The Triple Entente
 - 1894—the Franco-Russian Alliance was formed
 - This was basically impossible because of physical barriers and completely different types of governments
 - Britain had been living in "Splendid Isolation" because no one liked Britain due to the Fashoda Crisis and Boer War
 - Admiral Mahan

Said that Britain's foundation of greatness was due to its superior navy A sea power can choke off any land power • In 1904, Britain and France agreed to the *Entente Cordiale* (Friendly Agreement)

France and Britain were to forget feelings of last 25 years

France recognized Britain's control of Egypt

Britain recognized French control of Morocco

The countries agreed to support each other against protests from third parties

In 1907, the Entente Cordiale was expanded to Russia at the Anglo-Russian Convention

Britain and Russia recognized each other's spheres of influence in Persia

• The Crisis in Morocco

- Wilhelm decided to test the Entente Cordial and to find out if Britain would support France
- March 1905, Wilhelm II arrived in Morocco at Tangiers and made a speech about Moroccan independence
- An International Conference at Algeciras was held and all supported France except Austria
- The distrust of Germany caused England to become friendlier with Russia in 1907
- In 1911, there was a second crisis:

The German gunboat "Panther" arrived in Morocco in order to protect the German citizens

The gunboat was moved away when Germany became appeased by land in Africa

This showed French weakness and exposed the "menace of Germany"

Crisis in the Balkans

- Serbs, Bosnians, Croats, Slovenes all spoke basically the same language, but had a different alphabet
- Slavic nationalism began to feel a sense of Yugoslav (southern Slavic pride) or uniting all southern Slavs together
- Serbs viewed themselves as the "Piedmont" of Yugoslav and "Risorgimento" appeared

• The Balkan Crisis

- Isvolsky (Russia) and Aehranthal (Austria) Prime Ministers held a secret meeting
- Russia would support Bosnia annexation to Austria

- Austria would support Russian warships' ability to sail through the Bosporus and the Dardanelles
- Austria conquered Bosnia, but did not support Russia
- Fait accompli (Fate accomplished)—Austria accomplished what it had always intended to

Bulgaria became independent

Crete was annexed to Greece

- Russia protested against Austria, and anti-Austrian feelings spread
- The Balkans Strike Back
 - Serbia, Greece, Rumania, and Bulgaria joined Italy in the First Balkan War against the Ottoman Turks

Italy conquered Tripoli

Macedonia split up betw een Bulgaria and Greece

 In 1913, the Second Balkan War against Bulgaria vs. Serbia, Rumania, Greece and Turkey

Albania was made independent

- Return of the Balkans
 - Austria-Hungarian Emperor Francis-Joseph was aging
 - The heir, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, was in favor of Slavic nationalism
 - In 1914, an extremist member of the radical terrorist group Black Hand assassinated Archduke Francis-Ferdinand in Sarajevo
- The World at War
 - Austria presented an ultimatum to Serbia when backed up by Germany
 - Austria declared war on Serbia in order to crush Slavic nationalism
 - Germany gave a blank check to Austria because it gave no limitations on its support
 - Russia mobilized their armies to protect the Southern Slavs
 - Germany declared war on Russia
 - France declared war on Germany
 - France basically gave Russia a blank check
 - Britain declared war on Germany after the invasion of Belgium

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 The German decision to fight was on the assumption that Great Britain would not enter the war

• The Schlieffen Plan

- Defeat France in six weeks as in the Franco-Prussian War
- Hold off Russia, which would take about six weeks to mobilize
- Move 78 German divisions through Belgium and encircle Paris and the French army
- Causes for the failure of The Schlieffen Plan:

General Molke withdrew forces from the west to defend Prussia

The Belgians put up unexpectedly stiff resistance

The Russians mobilized faster than thought

French counterattacked at the Battle of the Marne

• The Armed Stalemate

- The Western Front stretched from the North Sea to Switzerland
- The Eastern Front started from the Baltic Sea to Rumania
- Von Hindenburg won victories against Russia, especially at the Battle of Tannenburg
- The Southern Front was basically France and England attacking Turkey at the Dardanelles
- T. E. Lawrence led an insurrection in Arabia
- Galipoli campaign was to defeat Turkey, ended disastrously
- Balfour Declaration—Britain supported the idea of a Jewish homeland in Palestine but not at the expense of the Arabs
- French General Joffre ordered a counterattack at the *Battle of the Marne*, September 5–12
- The Battle of Somme was a British offensive against Germany
- Germans attacked at Verdun, French were determined to stand ground. "They shall not pass"—General Petain

War at Sea

- Allied forces stopped all trade with Germany
- Germany attempted to blockade Britain by German U-boats or submarines
- Germany declared unrestricted sea warfare

- Germans sank the *Lusitania*, an ocean liner that carried around 180 American citizens
- Italy joined the side of the Allies when promised lands of high-speaking Italians in Austria "irredentism"
- Treaty of London (1915)—treaty that made Italy part of the Allies
- The Zimmerman Telegram
 - Telegram penetrated by American forces during WWI
 - Germany wanted Mexico to declare war on the United States
 - Germany would help Mexico regain Southwestern United States
- The Collapse of Czarist Russia
 - March 1917—Troops rebelled and riots occurred in factories
 - Czar abdicated and provisional government was created
 - April 1917—Lenin returned to Russia
 - November 1917—Provisional government fell
 - Lenin and Bolsheviks came to power
 - December 3, 1917—The *Treaty of Brest-Litovsk* ended the war on the East, and much Russian land was given to Germany
- Peace of Paris
 - Armistice (Nov. 11, 1918)—called for a cease-fire, Kaiser Wilhelm abdicated to Holland
 - During the summer of 1919, five treaties (named after Paris Suburbs) were signed
 - Main treaty that ended World War I was the Treaty of Versailles:
 - 1. Germany lost colonies
 - 2. German guilt clause
 - 3. German military restrictions
 - 4. Germany must pay reparations
 - 5. League of Nations
 - 6. Austria Hungary broken up
 - 7. Yugoslavia, Poland, Czechoslovakia created
 - 8. Montenegro and Serbia no longer existed
 - 9. Polish Corridor divided Germany

"The Big Four" main countries and their leaders:

United States—Woodrow Wilson

Great Britain—David Lloyd George

France—Clemenceau

Italy—Orlando

 The Fourteen Points—point for peace drawn by Woodrow Wilson: "Make the world safe for democracy"

No secret treaties

Freedom of the seas

Reduction of arms

Colonial readjustments

Self-determinations of nationalities

International Policy Organization to prevent war

This formed the League of Nations

 Few European statesmen had any confidence in the League, and Wilson was obliged to compromise the other Fourteen Points in order for it to get accepted

World War II

- The conditions of the 1930s were basically those proposed by the Paris Peace Conference of 1919. Either Germany, Italy, Japan, or the USSR was content with these conditions. From the Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931 to the outbreak of war in Europe in 1939, force was used by those who wished to upset international order, but never by those who wished to maintain it
- · Rise of Fascism in Italy
 - Fascism gained support from the fear of the Bolsheviks in Russia
 - Benito Mussolini (Il Duce) a newspaper editor, was incredibly nationalist and demanded irredentism

Favored Triple Entente because he wished for irredentism to be completed

Angry when the allies did not fulfill irredentism

He formed different groups of soldiers that brought him power

- Fascio di combattimento—army that was supposed to represent the power of Rome through combat
- Blackshirts—army in favor of irredentism

- Squadristi—army that attacked people who opposed Mussolini
- March on Rome, October 1922—Mussolini marched into Rome and obtained power

Mussolini took over Rome and held free elections

Enforced two-thirds law, where the majority obtained two-thirds of the parliamentary seats

Fascists won, and the Fascist Parliament elected Mussolini into office

- "Fascism was born of the need for action"
- Rise of Fascism in Germany
 - Wilhelm II fled to Holland and ended the German Empire (1918–1921)
 - Weimar Republic was established 1923
 - Germany is forced to pay reparations for the war, but they have no money
 - The United States came up with the *Dawes Plan* (1924), lending money to Germany so they can pay reparations
 - Germany and France signed Locarno Agreement, outlawing war between the two
 - In 1929, 69 nations signed the *Kellogg-Brand Peace Pact* was signed which outlawed warfare and attempted to instill peace
 - Germany was in a terrible state
 - Germany printed money excessively, which brought them deeper into depression
 - France took German lands because Germany could not afford to pay
 - Weimar Republic collapsed due to inflation
 - United States agreed to help Germany if they balance their budget and increase exports to the U.S.
 - In 1929, the Great Depression occurred in the U.S., and they could no longer afford to help Germany
 - Six million in Germany were unemployed
 - Fascist leader Adolf Hitler promised to bring Germany out of depression
 - The Storm Troopers (Nazi soldiers) were formed in 1921 to follow the Führer, or leader (Adolf Hitler)
 - The Beer Hall Putsch (1923) was a failed attempt to overthrow the Weimar Republic

- Hitler was sent to jail for this and he wrote Mein Kampf, a book that outlined his plan
- His political group, the National Socialist German Worker's Party or the Nazis, was elected into power
- Italy in Ethiopia (Abyssinia)
 - In 1935, Mussolini attacked Ethiopia

The Italians did not forget the humiliating Battle of Adowa

League of Nations put an embargo on Italy. All goods were banned except for oil

Italy united Ethiopia with Somaliland

Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia protested against the Italians

- In 1939, Albania conquered by the Italians
- The Spanish Civil War
 - King Alfonso XIII abdicated in 1931
 - Spain officially became a republic
 - In 1936 elections were held

Left	Right
Socialist	Monarchist
Communist	Cleric
Anarchist	Militarist
Republican	Fascist

- The Left won and a rebellion occurred
- Britain, France, and the U.S. placed an embargo on weapons so war would not spread
- Italy, Germany and USSR got directly involved
- General Francisco Franco (Fascist) took over the government with the aid of Nazis in March 1939
- Nazis used Spain as a land to test their new weapons such as carpet-bombing and blitzkrieg warfare
- Nazis bombed the town of Guernica
- Nazi Aggression and Appeasement
 - Dr. Goebbels—the man in charge of Nazi propaganda

- Alfred Rosenberg—conceived "radical science," or the idea that the Aryan race is superior
- Gestapo—the Nazi secret police
- Music of Wagner was incredibly patriotic and favored by Adolf Hitler
 - 1934—Non-Aggression Pact with Poland was signed
 - 1935—Build-up of Nazi Military
 - 1936—Hitler repudiated the Locarno Pact
- Rhineland was once again remilitarized
- March 1938—Anschluss (Unification of Germany and Austria) completed
- September 1938—The Munich Crisis and Appeasement Germans wanted to control the Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia
- Neville Chamberlain, Edouand Daladier, Mussolini, and Hitler all met and decided to give Hitler the Sudetenland
- 1939—Hitler drew Germany out of League of Nations and the Disarmament Conference
- March 1939—Hitler took all of Czechoslovakia
- August 1939—The Non-Aggression Pact with USSR was signed, thus renouncing the pact with Poland
- September 1, 1939—Blitzkrieg warfare was introduced. Hitler invaded Poland
- September 3, 1939—World War II began
- November 1939—Russians invaded Finland
- Sept 1939 to April 1940—The Phony War (Sitzkrieg) occurred because no one was actually fighting
- April 9, 1940—Invasion of Denmark and Norway
- April–May 1940—Reynaud and Winston Churchill take control of France and Britain
- May 10, 1940—Invasion of the Netherlands and Belgium
- May-June 22, 1940—Attack at Dunkirk (May 29-June 4)
- Paris was captured
- Vichy regime began
- Germans attempted to invade Britain by Operation Sea Lion, but were unsuccessful

- Britain acquired new technologies, which stopped Nazi advancement towards the isles - radar and ultra decoding
- The Battle of Britain saved England from Operation Sea Lion
- The Nazi Invasion of Russia
 - In June 22, 1941, Germany focused attention on Russia and launched Operation Barbarossa
 - Britain-Soviet-US economical alliance, the Lend Lease Act (March 1941) allowed the U.S. to supply materials to any country whose defense was deemed essential for the protection of America
 - Nazis returned to submarine warfare. This time they attacked in "wolf packs"
 - Nazis choked off Russians at the Battle of Stalingrad, but were defeated by the winter. This was the first, and greatest, German loss
- Allied Invasion of Italy
 - The invasion of Sicily began July 10, 1943
 - Mussolini resigned
 - On September 12, 1943, the Nazis returned Mussolini to power
 - In May 1945, Mussolini attempted to escape Italy and was caught and killed
- Allied Invasion of France (Normandy)
 - Operation Overlord occurred June 6, 1944
 - A false telegram was sent to divert German troops
 - The largest amphibious assault occurred on the beaches of Normandy
 - This is known as D-Day
- The Peace Conferences
 - Casablanca (January 1943)—Roosevelt and Churchill decided on the terms of unconditional surrender for Germany
 - Teheran (December 1943)—The Big Three (Stalin, Churchill, and Roosevelt) met for the first time and discussed:

Postwar occupations

Demilitarization of Germany

Creating an international peace organization How to win the war

Yalta (February 1945)—The last Big Three meeting, which covered

The fate of eastern countries

The re-creation of Poland

The foundation of the United Nations

The future of Germany and Japan

- On April 30, Hitler committed suicide
- Germany surrendered May 7. Known as V-E Day
- Potsdam (July 1945)—Churchill and Roosevelt replaced by Attlee and Truman.
 This was a postwar meeting, divided up Germany

The Cold War

- Axis territories were divided into occupation zone by the Allied Military forces. At Potsdam, Truman took over Roosevelt's position as Churchill lost the election to Clement Attlee. The U.S. and USSR emerged as the Super Powers. The rivalry began to change to icy tension. This is known as the Cold War
- Buffer Zones (Satellite Nations)—the "Cordon Sanitare" basically became the buffer zone between free Europe and Communist Europe
- Communists often rigged "self-determination" elections. They forced other countries to become communists and submit to the USSR
- Winston Churchill (1946)—said that "an Iron Curtain" had fallen upon Europe
- Josip Broz (Tito)—Yugoslavian who turned Yugoslavia communist, but didn't unite with the USSR
- Truman Doctrine

 March 12, 1947—"it is the policy of the United States to support free people resisting subjugation by an armed minority or an outside force." U.S. will send troops to help any non-communist nation to stop the spread of communism
- The Marshall Plan (1947)—U.S. will lend any country money and equipment to rebuild their country. Germany was divided as of 1949 into

The Federal Republic of Germany (West)

The German Democratic Republic (East)

The city of Berlin was divided between the Allies and the Soviets as well

- Since Berlin was in the USSR part of Germany, Stalin attempted to choke off the West by cutting off all the roads
- Airlifts were provided to supply the city of West Berlin (1948–49)

- NATO (1949)—North Atlantic Treaty Organization was formed to create an alliance between the free countries
- Warsaw Pact (1955)—the Communist nations grouped together in response against NATO
- The Berlin Wall was built in 1961 to separate West and East Berlin
- Germany was reunified in 1989
- Collapse of Colonial Empires
 - British Labour Party changed policies, liberated colonies
 - India / Pakistan (1947)
 - Burma / Ceylon / Malaya
 - Ghana / Rhodesia
 - France and Belgium also freed some colonies
 - Morocco, Congo, Rwanda
- Economic Revival
 - From the Common Market to the European Union

Started as Coal and Steel Community

1957 The Treaty of Rome creates the European Economic Community

Goal to eliminate all tariffs between members

EuroDollar (the euro) established in 1998

- GATT—General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
- Forty Years of the Cold War

Causes of Distrust

U.S. had atomic bombs

U.S. was capitalist

USSR regarded anti-Communist legislation in US as threatening

USSR opposed West Germany

USSR troops were in East Europe

Communists were gaining strength

USSR helped nationalistic revolts to become communist

Areas of Conflict

Arms Race—competition to determine whose military technology was better and how many more weapons each had

Space Race—the race to explore space and its limits

- Espionage—spies go into each other countries (CIA)
- Propaganda—each country had either anti-communist or anti-capitalist propaganda
- Alliances—NATO and the Warsaw Pact were against each other
- Military/Economic Aid—both provided aid to other countries in hopes of making them communist/capitalist
- Proxy Wars—Korean War (capitalist victory), Vietnam War (communist victory), conflict in Afghanistan (capitalist victory)
 - The Revolt in Hungary (1956)
 - Imre Nagy—leader of the Hungarian Revolt
 - AVO/AVH—Hungary's secret police, most hated people and were arrested during the revolution
- The Crisis in Berlin and Cuba
 - John F. Kennedy became the U.S. President
 - He gave a speech at the Berlin Wall for freedom of the Germans
 - Bay of Pigs (1962)—an attempt to overtake Cuba through the refugees when Fidel Castro comes to power
 - Cuban Missile Crisis (October 1962)—Cuba asked for Soviet missiles, U.S. opposed
- Reducing Tensions
 - 1963: Nuclear Test-Ban Treaty—no exploding nukes in space, underwater, etc.
 - The Hotline—a direct phone line between the U.S. and the USSR leaders to prevent accidental nuclear war
 - Detente—the "relaxed" period with Nixon and Brezhnev as leaders
 - SALT I—Strategic Arms Limit Talks—an attempt to cut down or ban nuclear weapons
 - Helsinki Accords—NATO and Warsaw Pact agree to respect each other
 - SALT II—further cuts on weapons by Jimmy Carter

- Prague Spring—1968 Dubcek led a liberal communist movement and was crushed by Brezhnev (new Soviet Party Chairman) and the Warsaw Pact
- Polish Solidarity Movement—1980 Lech Walesa led strike of workers to protest rising prices. Government relented to demands then declared Marshal Law to restore order and avoid a Russian invasion
- The Collapse of European Communism
 - 1985—Gorbachev came to power in USSR
 - Glasnost—Openness in relations with USA
 - Economic Perestroika—Decentralized economic control
 - Political Perestroika—Gorbachev's policy to bring political changes to the Soviet Union
 - 1989—Solidarity reemerged in Poland, Walesa first elected non-communist since WWII
 - 1989—Hungary changed from Communist Party to Socialist Party
 - November 1989—Berlin wall was destroyed and Germany reunited
 - 1989—The "Velvet Revolution" Czechoslovakia elected Havel ending communist rule. Later divided into the Czech Republic and Slovakia
- The Collapse of the Soviet Union
 - 1991—The August Coup army tried to overthrow Gorbachev and Yeltsin mayor of Moscow led protest that ended coup
 - Yeltsin elected leader of new Commonwealth
 - 1991—Commonwealth of Independent States was established, as members of the Soviet wanted independence from Russian dominance

• The New Russia

• Under the leadership of Yeltsin the Russians started economic liberalization in 1992. Existing industries were sold to workers, but inflation set in hurting the reform. A new capitalist elite became rich while many people fell into poverty. Living conditions did not improve until 1997. In 1993 Yeltsin fought a battle with who would be the supreme power in the new Russia the Presidency or Parliament. After an attack on the Parliament building the Presidency became the supreme power. Yeltsin tried to stop break away Chechnya, but was forced to withdraw troops

• Eastern Europe

• Great changes took place in the former Soviet Satellite nations. In 1990, West Germany and East Germany were united when a East German proposal for a "third way" failed as East Germans fled to West Germany. Other former satellites

Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia all adopted free-market capitalism. Eventually Czechoslovakia peacefully divided into Slovakia and the Czech Republic based on ethnic borders. Hungary, the Czech Republic and Hungary gained admission to NATO). Great economic change did not happen in Slovakia, Bulgaria, or Romania. All later joined the European Union (EU)

European Union

 The Single European Act of 1986 set the stage for a single market system which in 1993 established the European Union (EU). The Maastricht Treaty of 1992 established a single currency (Euro) setting the stage for an eventual political unity of Europe. Sweden, Finland, and Austria became members of the EU

Crisis in the Balkans

• Milosevic leader of Serbian Republic, created after the demise of communism in Yugoslavia, attempted to grab more territory causing Slovenia and Croatia to declare independence. Serbia went to war against the break away states and eventually with Bosnia. The United States intervened to impose peace. In 1998 the Albanian Muslim of Kosovo tried to break away from Serbia and Milosevic's army drove 700,000 Kosovars into exile. The United States and NATO forces intervene to end the conflict and to bring Milosevic to trial for war crimes at the War Crimes Tribunal

European History Time Line

732 Battle of Tours (Victory of Charles Martel 1649 Charles I executed in England over Muslims) 1688-1689 Glorious Revolution in England 768-814 Reign of Charlemagne 1689-1725 Reign of Peter the Great in Russia 800 Charlemagne crowned "Holy Roman Emperor" 1690 John Locke's "Treatises on Government" 962-1792 Capetian/Bourbon rulers of France 18th Century AGE OF ENLIGHTENMENT 1066 Norman Conquest of England 1701-1918 Hohenzollern rule of Prussia/Germany 1748 Montesquieu's "Spirit of Laws" 1095-1272 CRUSADES 12th Century Rise of Towns 1122 Concordat 1760-1830 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION begins of Worms in England 1189-1192 Third Crusade 1761 Rousseau's "Social Contract" 13th Century Rise of Universities, Scholasticism 1769 James Watt's Steam Engine 13th Century Rise of Parliaments 1776 American "Declaration of Independence" 1215 Magna Carta Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations" 1303-1416 "Babylonian Captivity" of papacy 1776-1783 American War of Independence (Avignon) 1787 American Constitution ratified 1337-1453 Hundred Years' War 1789 Beginning of French Revolution 1378-1417 Great Schism 1790's Romanticism begins 15th-17th Century RENAISSANCE 1794 Fall of Robespierre 1453 Fall of Constantinople to Turks 1804 Napoleon becomes emperor of France; 1454-1455 Printing (moveable type), Gutenberg "Napoleonic Codes" begun Bible published 1806-1811 "Continental System" 1455-1485 War of the Roses 1806-1825 Latin American countries win 1469 Union of crowns of Aragon and Castile independence 1485-1603 Tudor rule in England 1812 United States/British War 1492 Discovery of America by Columbus 1814-1815 CONGRESS OF VIENNA 1497-1499 Voyage of Vasco da Gama to India 1815 Battle of Waterloo 1517 (Oct. 31) REFORMATION BEGINS 1823 Monroe Doctrine 1519-1521 Conquest of Mexico by Cortes 1830 Revolutions throughout Europe 1519-1522 Magellan and crew circumnavigate 1832 First Reform Bill in England the world 1848 Marx and Engels' "Communist Manifesto" 1521 Luther excommunicated Revolutions throughout Europe 1534 Luther's German Bible 1853-1854 Commodore Perry "opens" Japan 1536 John Calvin—"Institutes of the 1859 Darwin's "Origin of Species" 1861–1865 Civil War in United States Christian Religion" 1534 Act of Supremacy in England 1861 Emancipation of serfs in Russia 1866 Austro-Prussian War 1545-1563 Council of Trent 1555 Peace of Augsburg 1870-1871 Franco-Prussian War 1588 Spanish Armada 1870 Unification of Italy 1598 Edict of Nantes 1871 Unification of Germany 1603-1714 Stuart rule in England 1880-1914 Height of Imperialism 1607 English found Virginia (Jamestown) 1900 Freud's "Interpretation of Dreams" 1608 French found Quebec 1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War 1609 Spanish found Santa Fe 1905 Einstein's relativity theory 1611 King James version of the Bible published 1914 (June 28) Assassination of Austrian Archduke 1612 Dutch found New York Franz Ferdinand 1613-1917 Romanov rule of Russia 1914 (July-Aug.) WORLD WAR I BEGINS 1618-1648 Thirty Years' War 1917 (April) United States enters World War I 1917 (November) Bolshevik Revolution in Russia 1619 First African slaves in Virginia

1643-1715 Reign of Louis XIV in France

1648 Peace of Westphalia

1918 (March) Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (Russia

leaves WWI)

- 1918 (November) World War I Armistice
- 1919 Treaty of Versailles
- 1920 League of Nations begins
- 1921-1927 New Economic Policy (NEP) in Russia
- 1923 Hitler "Beer-Hall Putsch"
- 1928 First "Five Year Plan" in Russia
- 1929 Stock market crash in United States
- 1930-1935 Great Depression
- 1933 (January) Hitler becomes chancellor of Germany
- 1936 (July) Spanish Civil War begins
- 1936 (October) Rome-Berlin Axis
- 1938 (March) Anschluss (German annexation of Austria)
- 1939 (August) German/Russian Non-aggression Pact
- 1939 (Sept. 1) WWII BEGINS (Germany invasion of Poland)
- 1940 (June) German occupation of Paris
- 1941 (June) German invasion of Russia
- 1944 (June) Allied invasion of Normandy
- 1945 (Feb.) Yalta Conference
- 1945 (May) Unconditional surrender of Germany
- 1945 (Aug.) Potsdam Conference
- 1945 (Aug. 6) Atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima
- 1945 (Aug. 14) Unconditional surrender of Japan
- 1945 (Oct.) United Nations (UN) established
- 1946-1963 COLD WAR
- 1947 Truman Doctrine announced, Marshal Plan announced
- 1948 Communist coup in Czechoslovakia
- 1949 North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) formed
- 1950 Korean War begins
- 1953 (March) Stalin dies
- 1957 SPACE 'RACE' BEGINS ("Sputnik" is launched)
- 1958 European Common Market formed
- 1959 Castro takes over Cuban government
- 1960 OPEC formed
- 1961 Berlin Wall erected
- 1962 (Aug.) Cuban Missile Crisis
- 1963 (Nov.) President John F. Kennedy assassinated
- 1961–1975 UNITED STATES Involvement in VIETNAM
- 1967 Six Day War (Arab-Israeli War)
- 1968 Soviet Union invades Czechoslovakia
- 1969 United States lands a man on the moon
- 1975 Vietnam War ends
- 1978 Revolution in Iran, Camp David Accords
- 1979 Soviet invasion of Afghanistan U.S./China re-establish diplomatic relations
- 1980 Solidarity formed in Poland

- 1981 U.S. launches first space shuttle
- 1985 Gorbachev comes to power in Soviet Union
- 1988 Soviets begin withdrawal from Afghanistan
- 1980-89 Iran/Iraq Middle Eastern War
- 1990 Berlin Wall removed, Democratic reforms sweep Eastern Europe 1990 Germany Unified
- 1992 a Maastricht Treaty on European Union was signed.
- 1992 Balkan Civil war
- 1993 Treaty on European Union entered into force. The EC now became the EU.
- 1995 Austria, Finland and Sweden joined the EU
- 1995 U.S. imposes peace in Balkans
- 1998 Kosovo breaks from Serbia
- 1998 NATO imposes peace in Balkans

Short Outline of European History

1400-1600

Renaissance (1350-1600)

- Trans. between mod. & medieval
- Resurgence of pop. & economy (new wealth)
- Rebirth of classics (Greece & Rome)
- Humanism (response to scholasticism)
- Lay patronage
- Starts in Italy, ends in NW Europe

Greats

- Machiavelli
- Leonardo da Vinci
- Michelangelo
- Rafael
- Erasmus (Northern Humanism)
- More

Growth of Nation-States

- England (War of Roses)
- France (Valois)
- Spain (Ferdinand & Isabella)
- · Not in HRE or Italian City States

Exploration

- Prince Henry
- Diaz & DeGama
- Columbus (America?)
- Cortez (Aztecs) & Pizarro (Incas)

Reformation

- · Church abuses
- Luther's 95 Theses
- · Faith alone for salvation
- Leipzig & Worms
- Peasant revolts

Other Reformers

- Zwingli
- Calvin & Predestination in Geneva (Theocracy, total church control)
- Anabaptists—(Mennonites, Amish, Quakers, Baptists)

Counter Reformation

- Council of Trent
- Index of Forbidden Books
- Loyola & Jesuits
- Inquisition

English Reformation

• Henry VIII & Catherine & Anne Boylen

- Gets own "reformed church", Parl. increases power
- Calvinist Puritans in North
- · Presbyterians in Scotland
- · Eddie's more Protestant
- Mary I (Roman Cath.) Bloody
- Elizabeth I Compromise

Religious Wars

Dutch Revolt

- · More wealthy Calvinist in late 1500s
- Phillip II height of power, needs shipping & tax \$\$\$ (war debt & inflation)
- · Sends in Granville & Alva
- Orange resists
- · Spanish Fury, Pac. of Ghent

French Conflict

- End to Hundred Years' Wars turns conflict inward
- Rom. Cath. (RC) Guises support Monarchy (Catherine & children)
- Huguenots oppose
- Coligny & St. Bart's
- · Henry III & Henry of Navarre
- Edict of Nantes

English/Spanish

- Mary I reverses Reformation
- · Elizabeth vs. Mary Queen of Scots
- Elizabethan England starts trade & expansion
- Elizabethan Settlement & Puritans
- Treaty of Nonsuch
- Mary QOS gets axed
- · Spain's Armada eventually done

Thirty Years' War (1618-1648)

- Habs (Ferd.) try to rid HRE of Protestant princes
- Bohemian Period
- Danish Period
- Swedish Period
- Swedish/French
- Destruction of Germany

- Peace of Westphalia
 - Princes in charge,
 - Prot. recognized,
 - Prussia & Austria only strong states

1600-1789

England

- The Stuarts
- James I (Divine Right, Debt)
- Charles I (1/4, ship money, disbands Parl., thorough, pro-RC)
- Laud & Scots
- Short Par & Long Par Rump
- · Growing wealth of middle-class in Commons
- Parl. Probs: Petition of Right, Grand Remonstrance

English Civil War

- Puritans/Parl. vs. Mon.
- Cavaliers vs. Roundheads (New Model Army)
- Charles is defeated 1646, rallies with Scots, defeated again, executed
- Cromwell becomes Lord Protector
- Unites Eng, Scot. & Ireland

Restoration

- Charles II, return to fun
- Clarendon Code & Test Act vs. non-Anglican evils
- Navigation Acts & Anglo-Dutch Wars
- · Whigs & Tories
- James II the absolutist Glorious

Revolution of 1688

- William III & Mary
- Constitutional Monarchy
- Bill of Rights: fair elections, not subject to monarch, etc.
- Cooperation with Parl. gives them strong base

Absolute France

- Henry IV & Sully build base
- Louis XIII & Richelieu
- (Centralization, elimination of opposition)
- Louis XIV & Mazarin, Fronde

Louis XIV

- Propaganda, army, Versailles
- Bureaucracy of unimportant (intendants)
- Suck up central
- Revoke Edict of Nantes
- Oppose Jansenists

Wars of Louis XIV

Devolution (Span Neth.)

- Seven Yrs' War (Loss of colonies in North America and India)
- Spanish Succession (vs. Haps heir)
- Utrecht (Louis gets Spain, Austria gets turf)

Fading Powers (1686–1740)

- Spain (expensive wars, lack of exports, political disunity, bullion fades)
- Netherlands (jealousy, trade vs. settlement, political disunity, overextended)
- France (starting to fade, big debt, wars)

Flickering Powers

- Poland (feuding nobility, others crave)
- Sweden (rises, but then squashed by Charles XII)

Emerging Powers

- Austria unifies Magyars, Slavs, Italians; Pragmatic Sanction
- Prussia (Great Elector, military, Junkers)
- Russia (westernized by Peter, Boyars & Strelts, outside experts, exerts control)

GB Under Walpole

- Whigs (Hanover) Tories (Stuart)
- Prosperity, peace & patronage
- Walpole 1st Prime Minister after South Sea
- Cabinet System

Scientific Revolution

- Copernicus (challenger to Ptolemy)
- Brahe (publicity & observations)
- Kepler (Cop.+Brahe, elliptical)
- Galileo (telescope, shift to math & reason)
- Newton (universal gravity, whole new world)

New Philosophy

- Bacon (now, prig. & science, empiricism)
- Descartes (deductive, mod. philosophy, absolute truth)
- Pascal (leap, God is rational)
- 17th Cent. Political Thought
- Hobbes (Lev., evil, social contract, anarchy)
- Locke (Nat. Rights, blank slate, freedom)

Philosophes

- Salons, pamphlets, bourg.
- Montesquieu (three branch, no one set of laws)
- Voltaire (free speech, critical of French, bigotry, superstition)
- Rousseau (spheres, will, contract)
- Diderot Encyclopedia (worldly knowledge)

Major Tenets of Enlight/Phil:

Progress+new environment & change

- · Reason reforms ills, mock old
- Deism
- Laws for society can be found through sci. method
- Humanitarianism will remove inhuman practices & institutions
- Material improvement=moral improvement

Ancien regime (pre-1789)

- Nobility (rights & privileges, vary)
- Bourgeoisie (professional mid. class)
- Urban Workers (guild members on down)
- Peasants (largest group)
- Families (vary, economic unit)

Agricultural Revolution

- Demand for change (pop. & prices)
- Enclosure
- New crop rotation
- Iron plow, seed drill
- New crops

Industrial Rev. (early)

- GB leads
- Flying shuttle, spinning jenny
- Water frame (out of home)
- Steam engine (factory)

New Cities of 18th Century

- Semi-industrial
- Hubs, ports
- Wealth & splendor to blight
- Not ready for influx
- Riots

18th Cent. Wars

- Jenkins Ear
- Austrian Succession
- · Diplomatic Rev.
- Seven Years War

Mercantilism

- Main goal is accumulation of bullion
- · Response to fall of Spain
- Trade empires of 1600-1750
- Protectionist—tariffs, shipping regulations, subsidies for national industries

1789-1848

Enlightened Absolutism

- Philosophes were practical monarchists
- Using enlightened ideas to gain traditional powerful ends

· Movement ends with backlash

Examples

- Fred. II (agr. base, religious tolerance, legal reform)
- Marie Theresa (undercuts noble assemblies, taxes nobility & church, lightens peasants robot)
- Joseph II (MC in bur., less control of peasants, rel. tol., takes ch. lands, legal reforms)
- Catherine the Great (needs nobles, reduces trade barriers, boosts industry, gets warm water ports)

French Revolution

- Government & society in crisis (high food prices & government debt)
- Conflict with monarchy & nobility
- 1789—Estates General called
- Nat'l Assembly
- · Bastille, Great Fear & Versailles
- Dec. of Rights of Man & Const. of '91
- Church put under gov't control
- Second Rev. starts
- Austria & Prussia attack (1792)
- Committee for Public Safety holds on but starts "The Terror"
- Thermidorian Reaction
- Directory takes over (1795)

Napoleon

- · Gen. in Rev. wars
- Directory's threat is royalists
- 1802 Consul for life
- Consolidation of Power
- Const. of Year VIII—First Consul
- Bourgeoisie & Proletariat support
- Variety in gov't
- Secret police, cent. Bureaucracy
- Amnesty for émigrés
- Concordat with Church
- New social structure increases power

Nap. Code

- Reforms French law
- Protects property
- No privileges by birth
- Equitable taxation
- Officials based on merit
- Labor orgs. banned
- Men are dominant over women
- · Applied to France, then empire

Building an Empire

- Massive military
- · Can't beat GB, heads east
- Austerlitz (12/05)
- Confederation of Rhine (7/06)
- Berlin Decrees (10/06)
- Installs his family as rulers of Europe
- Cont. Sys.: defeat GB economically
- Treaty of Tilsit (West-East)
- Territorial Peak (1810-11)
- German response
- · Guerilla warfare in Spain
- · Austria renews conflict

Empire Falls with Russ. Campaign

- 1812—don't like continental (timber sales to GB), Grand Duchy, Holland, marriage
- · Conditions suck, scorched earth
- R., Pr., & A push west, Wellington pushes east
- Done except 100 Days
- Louis XVIII, France back to 1792

Congress of Vienna

- Dominated by four powers
- No single state should dominate again
- France & Eastern Europe
- Leg. monarchs, Concert of Eur.
- Results of C of V (GB only emp., solves probs of day, Quad Alliance, HRE officially done, no major wars for 100 years, transfers people)

Spanish Revolution (1820)

- · Military officers revolt vs. Ferdinand VII
- · 2 Sicilies revolt
- Gets Protocol of Troppau: stable gov't can intervene
- Cong of Laibach: restore King to nonconst. gov't
- Cong. of Verona (1822): GB withdraws, OK French into Spain
- · French repress Spanish Rev.
- GB (Canning) prevents repression in
- colonies, dominates trade with Lat. Amer.
- Wars of LA Independence

Nationalism

- Fr. Rev. + Ind. lead to "isms"
- · Defined by ethnicity language
- Self-determination
- Writers & historians (Volksgeist)
- Repression (Ireland, Germany, Poland)

Liberalism

• Bourg. feel excluded

- Enlight: legal =, free trade, free press, rel. tol.
- · Rep. for prop., despised working class
- Mercantilism is bad conservatism (Mon., Aris., Ch.)
- Burke & Hegel
- Only trust arist. gov't.
- · Const. are bad

British Repression

- Hunger & unemployment after war
- Leg. trend against poor
- Spa Fields Coercion Acts
- Peterloo Six Acts: easier to repress

Rest. & Rev. in France & Russia

- Louis XVIII very mod., ultra-royalists dismayed
- Charles X, liberals win (Rev of 1830), Louis Philippe
- 1825—Alex I dies. Constantine vs. Nicolas
- Nicolas wins, hates liberals, becomes reactionary

Belgian Independence

- · Rioting in Brussels after Opera
- Provincial Nat'l gov't formed
- · Powers too busy to stop it

Trouble in Ireland

- Act of Union (1800), reps. to Parl. must be Prot.
- Catholic Association
- Cath. Emancipation Act

Reform in Great Britain

- · Accommodation vs. repression
- · Great Reform Bill
- Rotten boroughs & increase # of voters
- Increases Voters, (men & prop.)
- Reconciles econ. interests to politics
- Makes revolution unnecessary, gives new influence

1848-1919

Problems of 1848

- Hunger
- Unemployment
- City strife & industrialization
- Conservative oppression, liberals appeal to workers
- 50 uprisings

Revolts in Vienna & Hungary

- 3/3/48, Kossuth students inspired & rebel (3/13/48)
- · Metternich resigns, Ferd. gives Const.

- Magyar Rebellion—encourages Hungarians Roms, Serbs & Czechs to resist & support Habsburgs
- 9/48 Aust army crushes revolt
- Czech & Italian Rebellion
- · Want Slavic state, clash with Germans
- 6/12/48 uprising squashed
- Divide & Conquer

Italian Unification Fails

- Aust. out
- Liberal Pope?, he takes off under pressure
- 2/49 Roman Republic declared
- French troops squash Italians & back Pope
- (becomes reactionary)

Germany

- Revolts in states for lib. gov't & unity, fear of independence
- Fred. Will. IV's Liberal Ministry
- · Frankfurt Parl. to write German Const.
- Tick off conservatives & workers
- Kleinsdeutsch
- 3/27/49 Cons. Fred. Will. IV refuses crown
- Liberals crushed

France, February Rev. of 1848

- Banquets (2/21), barricades & protest
- Louis abdicates (2/24)
- Workshops
- Conservatives Assembly (4/23)
- June Days (24-26)
- Workshops close, class warfare in streets
- Army wins, many killed or jailed
- Violence necessary for capitalism
- Chartists see France & rally, prep for revolt squashed

Louis Napoleon (Nap III)

- Wins Pres. election, disperses assembly
- Makes himself emperor (Nap. III)

Rise of the Proletariat

- · No stake, wage system, income to owners
- Division of labor
- End of guilds & artisans
- GB faces no comp. until 1870

Industrialism & the Family

- Fathers employ kids
- Mid-1820's—men supervise women & children not from family
- Child labor (assets), Factory Act 1833
- Break home & child

• 1847—10 hr. day

More Ind. & Family

- Just consumption
- Domestic role for women in working class
- Women work until married
- Prostitution
- Lots of new, unskilled jobs
- Less arranged marriages
- More illegitimate kids

Chartism (1830s-40s)

- Working class in politics
- They push the Charter: universal suffrage,
- annual election, secret ballot, no prop. req.
- Almost all met over time
- Fails as nat'l movement
- Split between violent & peaceful
- Mass movement workers needed to make a difference
- Failure of Chartism leads to rise of unions

Urbanization

- · Draws attention, organize, contact with world
- · Cities are redesigned

Classical Economics

- Gov't should: maintain currency, enforce contracts, protect prop.
- Malthus: WC can't improve, pop. overwhelm food supply, more wages → more kids → less food
- WC needs higher standard & less kids
- Ricardo's Iron Law of Wages, justifies low wages
- Bentham & utility+reason
- Gov't & Classic Econ
- France—accepted for benefit of MC
- Germany—some tariffs abolished
- GB—love them classics
- Poor Law of 1834—sucks to be poor
- Corn Laws

Socialism

- · Saint Simon, Fourier, Owen
- Marx (sci. accuracy, reject reform, need revolution)
- Economic conditions evolve through history
- Capitalism leads to conflict and...
- REVOLUTION
- Dictatorship to reorganize society
- Prolet. can't be an oppressor = no oppression
- This is the culmination of history

Socialism Evolves

- 1871—First International (Marxism)
- Fabianism in GB
- · Reform oriented in France
- SPD in Ger, Bis. tries to oppress
- Bernstein & Revisionists, mainstream

Crimean War

- Russia vs. Ottomans
- France & GB oppose Russia, Aust. Prussia stay neutral
- · Russia lose territory & intimidation
- Ends Concert of Europe
- Stirs the pot of instability for next 20 years

Italian Unification

- Used by France and Austria, unsuccessful
- Republicans (Mazzini &Garibaldi) vs. Monarchists (Cavour, Efficiency &
- Economy)
- Struggles w/Austrian control (Roman Rep.)
- C goes after Austria w/French help
- G goes south, met by C, G accepts nation over republic
- C's boy Victor Emmanuel II becomes king

German Unification

- Prussia sick of #2, Junkers in control, strong industry
- Bismarck cons. opportunist, "blood and iron" Wars of Unification
- Danish (Schleswig-Holstein prob)
- Austrian—spoils, N. German Confed.
- Franco—encirc, EMS, occupation, indemnity, Nap. III done, stragglers join NGC

Third Republic

- Fails abroad, too lib., F-P war, imprisoned, then goes to GB
- 3rd Rep., Monarchists vs. Paris Comm.
- No king, republic survives to WWII despite scandals...
- Dreyfus (wrongly accused, splits France, antisem., RC & army weakened)

Habsburgs in Austria

- Dynastic, absolutist, & agrarian run by Ger.
- Nationalists got shafted (AP) toasted by Italians
- A-P war forces Francis Joseph to deal with Magyars
- 1867—Dual Monarchy of Austria Hungary
- Other nationalities?
- Territories look to Russia

- A-H & Russia competitive in the Balkans Russia
- Unchanged since Peter The Great (1700)
- Reform? rev. reaction? repression
- Alex. II—serfdom abolished new rights: sell stuff, trades, marry freely, 49 years
- Conditions still suck
- Judicial & military reform
- Russification of Poland
- Nobody's satisfied with Alex. Rev. activity
- Land & Freedom, Alex punishes educators, tactics shift to direct
- Alex. III worse

Major Movements

- Labor
- Women
- Education
- Voting rights

GB toward Democracy

- Model liberal state
- Unions push for cash, Parl. absorbs new interests
- Gladstone (lib.) & Disraeli (cons.) expand suffrage
- Second Reform Act of 1867,WC more responsible, Disraeli allows expansion from
- 1.4m to 2.4m
- Gladstone's Great Ministry, 1868–74
- Artist. institutions opened to all, pub.
- schools
- Disraeli follows Gladstone (Health Act, Dwelling Act)
- · Irish Home Rule, major issue of G's 2nd
- 2 major probs: landlords, tithes
- Irish bloc in Parl., back & forth
- 1912—Home Rule Bill passed over Lords veto 3 times, Catholic Ireland (Eire) ind. in 1922, N. Ire stay with GB
- Modern Thought
- New availability of ed (free intellectually)
- Growth of science:

Comte, progress, industry.

Darwin: Sci. & Soc.

Spencer: struggle's imperative

- Intellectuals challenge church, resurgence in response, C & S clash
 - Nietzsche attacks reason: ubermensch, church democracy, etc.
 - Freud: new reasons for actions Weber: need role, group more important, non-rational
- Race Theories (genetics, history, domination, etc.)
- Racism aggressive Nationalism
- Anti-Semitism stirred back up after reprieve, Zionist Movement starts

New Imperialism

- 1850 only GB
- Imp. necessary for power
- Tech use force, cultural superiority
- Methods: capital, infr., exploit
- Motives: rel., raw materials, markets
- 1880–1900 Race for Africa
- 1900—all but Ethiopia & Liberia
- Testing ground for rivalries
- GB in India (Sepoy, direct rule, educ.)
- Dutch in Indonesia
- More Imperialism
- GB vs. Russia in India & Asia
- China: Opium Wars, Open Door Policy, settlements, Boxer Rebellion
- Russo-Japanese War: Manchuria, loss to nonwhite, weakens Russ.
- Alliances upset balance of COV
- Bis. wants to avoid 2 fronts
- 3 Emp. League (ARG)
- 1882—Italy hooks up with A-H & Ger.
- (Triple Alliance)
- 1888—Willy II Bis. (peace) out
- 1894—F & R form defensive alliance
- · GB colon. rival with R, econ. with Ger.
- Ger. messes w/ GB, 1907 Triple Entente
- Colonial competition, industrialism

World War I

- 6/28/14 Archduke FF killed
- Schlieffen Plan
- GB comes in to back Bel. & Fr.
- Allies: numbers, ind. strength, navy
- Cent. Powers: 1st attack, communication
- New weapons (machine gun, poison gas, tank, sub, plane)

- Trench warfare (Galipoli, Marne, Verdun, Somme)
- GB blockades, Ger U-Boats
- War draws to a Close
- 1917 U.S. enters
- R's out -> Ger looks west, U.S. counters
- 3/18—Ger. offensive fails, Allies counter
- Ludendorff—peace on 14 Points
- Meeting at Paris
- U.S., GB, Fr., & It. in, USSR & Ger. left out
- Wilson's idealism vs. war aims of Euros (promised stuff)
 Bolsheviks!!!
- A-H is toast (6 states)
- Poland-Finland buffer vs. USSR
- Reparations, demilitarize, Rhine, etc.
- L of N, w/out U.S.
- Huge cost of war shatters confidence

1919-1993

After the War...

- Democracy, fear of Bols, can't return to prosperity (humans, resources, RRs,
- production)
- Post War France: Treaty, Alliances, inner turmoil, occupy Ruhr
- GB: slow econ., Labour, empire begins to fade Back in Russia
- Russian Civil War (1919–22) dictatorship, White vs. Red, "War Communism"
- Bols. win, policies stir opposition
- Red Terror, strikes, rebellion, mutiny
- New Economic Policy: bank, trade, trans, some private OK, divides party
- Trotsky (Left): Red Army, int., indust., collect., expand Rev.
- Stalin (Right): nat., not int., Gen Sec., Rev.
- in USSR, NEP
- · Comintern: int party, Bols. splits, helps right
- Fascism (bundles of rods) in Italy
- Post war violence against left
- March on Rome emr. powers, fixes elections
- Democracy creates division, unification & power solve probs.

Ireland

- 1916—Easter Rebellion, Sinn Fein & IRA
- 1921—Irish Free Republic
- 1921–23—Civil War

The Successor States

Self determination & provide buffer

- · Dependant on foreign loans, backward econ
- Poland: parts from G, A & R, can't overcome diffs in class, political structure, economic interests, too many parties
- Czechoslovakia: only success, ind., MC, lib.
- ideals, Sudetenland
- Hungary: bad economy, repression
- Austria: Xian Soc., tough economy
- Southeastern Europe ethnic lines, much conflict between groups, Royal Dictatorships

Weimar & Nazis

- T of V, weaknesses, inflation, Streselman, Dawes & Locarno
- Beer Hall, Elections of '28, '30, & '32, Von Papen & Hindenburg
- Nazi Platform, Kristallnacht, propaganda, rearm
- · Reichstag Fire, assass. enemies, pub. works

Great Depression

- Currency & Investments, commodities, lack of leadership
- Gov't cuts spending, fears inflation, attention to home
- GB: Nat'l Gov't, etc.
- France: Popular Front
- Fascism vs. Totalitarianism
- Purges, Collective, 5 Year Plans
- Centralized planning top to bottom, bur., heavy industry & collective agr. (like rev without \$ to owners)
- Kulaks resist & are squashed, livestock slaughtered
- Supplies labor for industry, massive ind. growth (low quality)
- 1933—start of purges, 700k executed, all old Bols. gone
- Stalin in total control

Road to War

- Span. Civil War: Franco, testing ground, fight fascism
- Axis with Italy
- Rhineland, Austria, Sudetenland, Czech... Appeasement
- Defensive France & GB
- Non-agg. with Soviets, invades Poland (9/1/39)
 War, What is it Good For?
- Sweeps west Belg. into France, Dunkirk
- (6/40)

- Vichy Gov't, Festung Europa, Battle of Britain, Lend Lease Act, Pearl Harbor, Barbarossa, North Africa, Sicily, D-Day
- Destruction of Europe, atrocities, area bombing
- Home front: shortages, propaganda, resistance, etc.
- Tehran, Yalta, & Potsdam (divisions lead to CW) Cold War Sets In
- Division of Germany, satellite states, airlift
- Truman Doctrine, Marshall Plan
- UN: SC & GA, veto, nukes
- Warsaw Pact & NATO
- Nuke Arms Race
- China under Mao
- Korean War

Slight Thaw

- 1953—Stalin out
- Spirit of Geneva
- 1955—Khrushchev: Secret Speech, some freedom, cons. goods, space race
- 1956—Suez, Poland, Hungary (recognition of curtain) Thermostat Back Down
- 1957—Sputnik
- 1960—U-2 & Paris
- 1961—Bay of Pigs
- 1962—Cuban Missile Crisis
- 1964—Brezhnev: clamp down, agr. & ind struggle, defense build up,
- 1968—Dubcek & Prague Spring (alienation)

Out of the Cold

- Afghanistan, Grain & Olympics
- Gorby's reforms go awry
- 1989—Poland starts chain reaction (Czech., Rum., Hung., EG)
- United Nations stops Iraqi invasion of Kuwait
- Paris Accord 1990
- 1991—Coup & Gorby done, CIS formed
- 1993—Yeltsin bombs Parliament . to keep control Modern Society
- Americanization
- Greens
- Women's Movement
- Population shifts
- Welfare State

New Europe

- Germany Unites
- European Union Established
- Euro Introduced

- Balkans Crisis
- Hungary Czech Republic and Poland join EU and NATO
- Sweden, Finland, and Austria join EU

European History Identifications

National Monarchies

Papacy

Scholasticism Crusades

Thomas Aquinas

Medieval universities Black Death

Hundred Years War Conciliar movement

Renaissance sculpture, painting,

architecture

Babylonian Captivity Florence (1400–1500's)

Humanism

Francesco Petrarch Niccolo Machiavelli

Dante Charles V Martin Luther Ninety-five Theses

Lutheranism

Peace of Augsburg

John Calvin Calvinism

English Reformation Council of Tent

Jesuits

Thomas More

Erasmus of Rotterdam Commercial revolution Spanish Empire in America

Mercantilism Henry IV Philip II

Edict of Nantes
Spanish Armada
Cardinal Richelieu
Thirty Years War
Treaty of Westphalia

Louis XIV

Balance of power Oliver Cromwell Restoration Poor Laws

English Civil War Revolution of 1688 Jean Baptiste Colbert

War of the League of Augsburg War of the Spanish Succession

Peace of Utrecht Hohenzollern

Extraterritorial privileges

Junker

Cottage industries New world products Treaty of Paris 1763

Jacobites
Francis Bacon
Rene Descartes
Copernican doctrine

John Kepler Galileo

Sir Isaac Newton

Mathematical Principles of Natural

Philosophy Skepticism John Locke

Natural rights/natural law

Thomas Hobbes Idea of progress

18th century Philosophes

Denis Diderot Montesquieu Voltaire Rousseau Adam Smith

Enlightened Despotism American Revolution

Old Regime

First, Second, Third Estates

Tennis Court Oath

Bastille Great Fear "Rights of Man" National Assembly Constitution of 1791

Jacobins Robespierre

Committee of Public Safety Thermidorian Revolution

Directory

Napoleon Bonaparte Napoleonic Codes Battle of Trafalgar

Austerlitz

Continental System Congress of Vienna Agricultural Revolution

James Watt Romanticism

Classical liberalism Socialism

Robert Owen Mazzini

Friedrich Hegel
Conservatism
Peterloo Massacre
Decembrist Revolt

Revolution of 1830 and 1848

Chartism Louis Blanc

Frankfurt Assembly Communist Manifesto

Realpolitik Crimean War Cavour Zollverein Bismarck

Franco-Prussian War

Act of Emancipation (Russia)

Garibaldi

Atlantic migration Dreyfus affair Kulturkampf Origin of Species

Freud Nietzsche

Inner/outer zone of civilization

Balance of power New imperialism Cecil Rhodes Boer War

Russo-Japanese War

Box Rebellion Triple Alliance

Triple Entente/Alliance
Treaty of Brest-Litovsk

Fourteen Points

Sarajevo

Treaty of Versailles Western Front

All Quiet on the Western Front

Schleiffen Plan

Plan 16 Article 231

Social Democrats
Marxist-Leninism
Revolution of 1905
October manifesto

February/March 1917 Rev. October/November 1917 Rev.

Civil War 1918-1922 Communist party

New Economic Policy (NEP)

Five-Year Plans
Third International
Weimar Republic
Mohandas Gandhi
Chinese Revolution

Sun Yat-sen New Deal Nazism Fascism

Totalitarianism Spanish Civil War

Stalingrad

Teheran Conference

Final Solution Yalta Conference Munich pact Potsdam

United Nations

Solidarity

Truman Doctrine Marshall Plan **NATO**

Berlin Blockade

Mao Tse-tung

Common Market

Nikita Khrushchev

Nuremberg Trials

Berlin Wall

Cold War

Korean War

Vietnam War

OPEC

Perestroika

Glasnost

Gorbachev

Yeltsin

Putin

Milosevic

Ethnic Cleansing

Kosovo

European Community

European Union

Maastricht Treaty

Euro

Gulf War

Review Essays

- 1. The Renaissance was a springboard for defining modernity. Assess the validity of this statement.
- 2. Analyze the historical themes illustrated by artists from the Renaissance, Romanticism, and Modern art.
- 3. Describe the role of literature in critiquing European society from the Renaissance to Industrialism.
- 4. Compare and contrast the Northern Renaissance with the Mediterranean Renaissance.
- 5. Compare and contrast Catholicism, Lutheranism and Calvinism from economic, religious, and social perspectives.
- 6. Compare the development of the Commercial Revolution, mercantilism and capitalism.
- 7. Compare and contrast 16th-century and 19th-century imperialism.
- 8. Trace the development of the English parliament during the 17th century.
- 9. Compare 17th-century French Absolutism with 17th-century eastern European Absolutism.
- 10. Describe the relationship between the Enlightenment and the French Revolution.
- 11. Compare and contrast the ideas of Charles Fourier, Louis Blanc, Karl Marx, Robert Owen, Edward Bernstein and Vladimir Lenin.
- 12. Discuss the Parliamentary actions, which brought social and political power to the middle and lower classes of English society in the 19th century.
- 13. Compare and contrast the social classes of the first and second industrial revolution.
- 14. Trace the history of Germany from its rise as a Prussian state through its collapse after the First World War.
- 15. Describe the effect of the theories of Freud, Marx, and Einstein upon the twentieth century.
- 16. Beginning with the French Revolution and ending with the WW II, discuss the manner in which women began to achieve a role in society equal to men.
- 17. Describe the economic and political development of post-World War II Europe.
- 18. Describe the problems in the Balkans from 1917 to 1998.
- 19. Beginning with the end of World War II, describe the demise of the Soviet Union.

- 20. Describe the role of science in changing the history of western civilization.
- 21. Describe the evolution of the family in Europe from 1450 to 1900.
- 22. Describe the changing role of media from the printing press to the Internet.
- 23. Analyze the problems caused by immigration to Europe after WWII.
- 24. Compare the unification of Germany under Bismarck to unification of East and West Germany under Kohl.
- 25. Trace the development of European economic unity following WWII.

(Note: These are NOT normal essay-type questions. They tend to be very broad in order to better serve as a review of the entire course.)

Guide to Writing a Free Response Essay

The purpose of the FRQ (Free Response Question) is to test your knowledge of European History and your analytical skills. You will have two groups of three essays to choose one from each group and write an essay in approximately 35 minutes each.

The following is your guide to writing a successful FRQ.

- 1. Read all three questions in each group before deciding which to choose.
- 2. Read the question carefully.
 - A. Make sure you understand what you are to do (compare, contrast, analyze, identify).
 - B. Identify all the areas to cover (social, political, and economic).
- 3. Write an explicit thesis that covers all parts of the question and maps the body paragraphs of the essay.

For Example:

Question: Describe the three major problems in the Balkans from 1945 to 1989. 9/8 Point Thesis: The problems of the Balkans can be best described by examining the social diversity, the political development and destruction of Yugoslavia, and lack of economic resources.

7/6 Point Thesis: The major problems of the Balkans from 1945-1989 were social, political, and economic.

5/4 Point Thesis: The major problems of the Balkans from 1945-1989 were social and economic. (only answers part of the question)

- 4. In order to save time, the thesis can be your introduction. There are no score points for a complex introduction.
- 5. Use the thesis to map out your bodies. The order of the bodies of the complex thesis above would be social diversity, the political development and destruction of Yugoslavia, and lack of economic resources.
- 6. The first sentence/sentences should define your terms.
- 7. The next sentences should be your evidence.
- 8. The final sentence/sentences should show the tie of your evidence to the bodies specific part of the thesis.
- 9. A conclusion may not be necessary, but if time allows a summation of major points might help grader.

Note: At the 2007 AP European History Reading, the concept of Explicit Thesis was added to the Rubric. It is imperative that you not just restate the thesis, but model your thesis as above with direct answers to all parts of the question.

Free Response Question Rubric (2007)

Score Nine

Explicit thesis

Balanced

Extensive coverage

Strong support/evidence

Analytical

Minor errors

Score Eight

Explicit thesis

Not as balanced

Score Seven

Thesis answers question

Uneven coverage

Descriptive

Lacks order

Some factual errors

Score Six

Thesis answers question

Not much support

Not complex

Score Five

Explicit thesis answers only part of

question

Balanced

Good order

Strong support

Analytical

Some factual errors

Score Four

Explicit thesis answers only part of

question

Unbalanced

No support Many errors

Score Three

Implicit thesis

Score Two

No thesis

No organization

Extensive errors

Score One

Wrong question

Note: Explicit thesis controls score points, so be sure that your thesis answers all parts of the question. An explicit thesis would not just repeat the prompt, but would name specific items.

Guide to Approaching a DBQ

The purpose of the DBQ (Document Based Question) is not to test your knowledge of the subject, but rather to evaluate your ability to practice the historian's craft. You will be required to work with documents and use them to answer a question.

Remember that there is actually no right or wrong answer. Your answer is YOUR interpretation of the content of the documents. As long as your answer is logical and your interpretation is supported by the content of the document, you are correct.

The following is your guide to approaching a successful DBQ.

- 1. Read carefully the prompt and the historical background. Underline the tasks demanded and the terms, which are unique to the question. Make sure you understand what you are to do (compare, contrast, analyze, identify). Identify all the areas to cover: social, political, religious, intellectual, technological and/or economic (SPRITE).
- 2. Read the documents carefully.
 - A. Make sure that you understand the content of the document.
 - B. What is the author's Point of View (POV) (SEE PAGE 107)
 - C. Where is the tension?
 - 1. Are there people from the same place with differing POV?
 - 2. Is a Frenchman critiquing the French or is it an Englishman?
 - 3. Which is biased, and which has great knowledge?
 - D. What is the origin of the document?
 - E. Is the document valid or is it hearsay?
 - F. If time, gender, or age were changed, would the person be saying the same thing?
- 3. You must design an explicit thesis that answers all parts of the question.
- 4. You should strive to use the majority of the documents (50% + 1) to receive the core point. If you go on to use more, be sure that you are using them right. The more you use the greater the chance to use more than one wrong and therefore lose that core point.
- 5. Do not simply cite the documents in "laundry list" fashion. Find at least three groupings (a grouping must be two documents) for the documents.

- 6. Be certain that, if the question allows, you exploit all of the following in writing your answer.
 - A. Point of View is both indicated and discussed from several angles (all documents).
 - B. The validity of documents is noted.
 - C. Change over time is recognized and discussed (if this occurs in the documents).
- 7. You will have 15 minutes to complete the tasks above.

Note: Be sure to know all elements of the Core Scoring DBQ Rubric and include them in your essay.

Guide to Writing a DBQ

The following is your guide to writing a successful DBQ.

1. Write an explicit thesis that covers all parts of the question and maps the body paragraphs of the essay.

For example:

Question: Using the documents below describe the problems in the Balkans from 1945 to 1989.

Simple thesis: The major problems of the Balkans from 1945-1989 were social and economic. Core Point

Complex thesis: The problems of the Balkans can be best described by examining the social diversity, the political development and destruction of Yugoslavia, and the lack of economic resources. Possible Bonus

- 2. Start your introductory paragraph with a short history that leads up to this question. Possible Bonus
- 3. End with your explicit thesis.
- 4. Use the thesis to map out your bodies. The order of the bodies of the complex thesis above would be social diversity, the political development and destruction of Yugoslavia, and lack of economic resources.
- 5. When writing the bodies, the first sentence/sentences should define your terms.
- 6. The next sentences should be your evidence drawn from the documents. (Use parenthetical reference when done using the document (Doc. 1)).
- 7. The final sentence/sentences should tie your evidence to the bodies specific part of the thesis.

8.	With 45 minutes to write this essay a conclusion is expected. Use you concluding
	sentences to your body paragraphs to show your thesis has been proven. The
	conclusion should truly be used to show the reader that you have complete most of
	the core. The following method helps show that you grouped properly, answered al
	of the question and used the proper numbers of documents. Documents
	and illustrate. Documents and illustrate. Documents
	and illustrate. Therefore
9.	(Refer to the thesis being proven). End
	the essay with what happened next in history if possible. Possible Bonus.

Approaching Point of View

The part of the DBQ that students do not tend to do well on is POV. It is important that you read the following two pages and understand how to approach including POV in your responses.

Why is Point of View (POV) important?

Too often, students write essays in which they take the documents at face value. Instead, students should be applying critical thinking skills to documents, evaluating whether they are likely to be accurate and complete, and in what ways the author of the document may be revealing bias.

Authorial point of view.

Student show awareness that the gender, occupation, class, religion, nationality, political position, or ethnic identity of the author may well have influenced the views that are expressed.

Reliability and accuracy of source.

Students critically examine a source for its reliability and accuracy by questioning whether the author of the document would be in a position to be accurate and/or would likely be telling the truth. The student can also evaluate the type of source, e.g. a letter or official report, showing an understanding that different types of sources vary in their probable reliability.

Tone or intent of the author.

Students examine the text of a document to determine its tone (e.g., satire, irony, indirect political commentary) or the intent of the author. This may be particularly useful for visual documents.

Questions to Ask As You Review the Documents of a DBQ

- 1. Who produced it?—gender, age, ethnicity, social status, religion, intellectual beliefs, etc.
- 2. When was it produced? Can it be connected with a significant historical event?
- 3. Who was the intended audience?—written privately, written to be read/heard by others (who?), official document for a ruler to read, commissioned painting, etc.
- 4. What is the MOTIVATION of the writer/producer of the document, based on what you can surmise about them?
 - When you put these together, you get the POV.
 - Why this person would be producing this piece of information at this time.

Then you can evaluate how much you "trust" the information in the document, or what you think was really going on.

Core Scoring DBQ Rubric (2007)

Basic Core:

- 1. Provides an appropriate, explicitly stated thesis that directly addresses all parts of the question. Thesis may not simply restate the question.
- 2. Discusses majority of documents (50% plus one)
- 3. Groups three ways with a group being at least two documents. (If one document is wrong in a two document group this point will be loss so try to use at least three per group)
- 4. Proper use of at least four documents only misinterpreting one.
- 5. Supports the thesis with appropriate interpretation of a majority of the documents. (If no explicit thesis, this point will be lost)
- 6. Three proper POV (Point of View) (SEE PAGE 102)
 - A. Attribution B. Author's bias C. Reliability D. Tone E. Group by authors

(Bolded points are changes starting with 2006 test)

You must score all six above to earn Expanded Core points.

Expanded Core:

- 1. All the documents
- 2. Complex thesis
- 3. At least four POV (should give attribution to all)
- 4. Outside history

Notes:

- 1. Using a parenthetical reference after using each document, i.e. (Doc.1). It lets the reader easily count the number of documents you used.
- 2. Never say "Document 1" in the text; rather, give attribution to all documents you use, i.e. "In a newspaper account, Dr. George Howard said..." or, a map illustrating the political division. Attribution some times is counted as POV.
- 3. Make sure that you do not just "laundry list" the documents; rather, state the point of your thesis the document proves, thus giving you analysis.
- 4. Outside history goes well in the introductory paragraph to set up the time frame being referred to. It is also good in the conclusion if you can use it to say what historical events took place as a result.

Multiple Choice Test Taking Tips

(This Study Guide does not include Multiple Choice questions because many can be found on the Internet.)

The Question

Multiple-choice questions consist of two parts:

The statement or question.

The choices

There are five options from which to choose. You are to select the correct choice, which should complete the thought expressed in the question. There is a 20% chance that you will guess the correct choice. Although multiple-choice questions are most often used to test your memory of details, facts, and relationships, they are also used to test your comprehension and your ability to solve problems. Reasoning ability is a very important skill for doing well on multiple-choice tests.

Hints

Read the question as if it were an independent, freestanding statement. Anticipate the phrase that would complete the thought expressed, and then evaluate each answer choice against your anticipated answer. It is important that you read each choice, even if the first choice matches the answer you anticipated, because there may be a better answer listed.

Another evaluation technique is to read the question together with each answer choice as if it were a true-false statement. If the answer makes the statement false, cross it out. Check all the choices that complete the question as a true statement. Try to suspend judgment about the choices you think are true until you have read all the choices.

Beware of words like "not," "but," and "except." Mark these words because they specify the direction and limits of the answer.

Watch out for words like "always," "never," and "only." These must be interpreted as meaning all of the time, not just 99% of the time. These choices are frequently incorrect because there are few statements that have no exceptions (but there are a few).

If there are two or more options that could be the correct answer, compare them to each other to determine the differences between them, and then relate these

differences with the question to deduce which of the choices is the better one. (Hint: Select the option that gives the most complete information.)

If there is an encompassing answer choice, for example "all of the above," and you are able to determine that there are at least two correct choices, select the encompassing choice.

Make educated guesses—eliminate options any way you can.

Go through the test once and answer all the questions you know immediately. Then go through and use the hints above.

Test Anxiety

I get nervous at the thought of a test. What can I do?

Taking a test makes some students tense and anxious. A little bit of anxiety is useful. It helps you focus your attention and do well. Too much anxiety, however, is not helpful. Some students score lower on a test because they are nervous. Some become physically upset—sweating or having difficulty breathing. Some react emotionally and feel stupid or like failures.

If you have test anxiety, don't waste your time worrying about it. This is self-defeating. It won't help you do better on tests. Instead, keep your anxiety at a level that will help you, not hurt you, on the test.

Here are some suggestions for how to control your anxiety:

- 1. Allow yourself plenty of time to get to the test, find a seat, and get settled. Don't be in a rush. This may make you anxious during the test.
- 2. Have a plan for the test. Plan your test taking ahead of time. The suggestions given here can help you plan for the types of questions you will have on the test. You will feel confident about the test if you have a plan.
- 3. Take good care of yourself before the test. Good physical care includes the following:

Get a good night's rest before the test.

Eat to do well on the test. Have a protein-filled dinner the night before the test, and a meal high in complex carbohydrates such as pasta before the test. Caffeine and sugar filled snacks before and during the test can increase your anxiety. Eat fruit instead.

Relax before the test. Study carefully, ahead of time.

If you cram at the last minute, you're likely to end up very tense.

- 4. Don't talk to others before the test. Anxiety is easy to spread. If you are not anxious already, you might become so.
- Relax during the test. Some tension is normal and can help you focus and do well, so accept it. These exercises can help keep the tension at an acceptable level. Take several slow, deep breaths. Exhale as you let your shoulders drop slowly. Here's an

exercise that may help you relax during the test. Turn your head slowly in a circle — right ear to right shoulder, head back, left ear to left shoulder, head forward.

Some students use test anxiety as an excuse to not prepare. They feel that because they will worry during tests anyway, why study? This is not a helpful way to think. After all, if you prepare well, you should be able to pay attention to the test and do well.

Note: If test anxiety is a problem that you can't seem to overcome, talk to someone about it. Speak to your teachers or guidance counselors. They may be able to help you or refer you to someone else who can.

24 Hours Before the Test

The AP European History test is historically given during the afternoon testing session.

This will allow you to start this 24-hour period after school is over the day before.

In the afternoon, read through *Review Outline 1450–1991* one more time, study the *European History Timeline*, and read the note cards you made for words you did not know from the *European History Identifications*.

For dinner, eat a meal high in protein, which will give you the energy you will be burning during the test.

In the evening, read through the *Review Essays* and think through the writing process you would use to answer each question.

Go to bed by 10:00 PM. Studies show that the person with a rested mind will score higher than the person who stayed up all night studying.

Get up by 6:00 AM, shower, eat a breakfast of grains and fruits, and go for a mile walk to get your body ready for the day. You might suggest to your parents that they excuse you from classes that morning; your mind will be on the test and certainly not on class.

Do not drink any coffee or colas that contain caffeine, they will slow down your thinking.

Put together your test materials, all AP testing paperwork, four sharp pencils, three black ball point pens, some device to keep track of the time during the test, a candy bar and bottle of water for the break.

At 9:00 AM, read through the Guide to Writing a Free Response Essay, Guide to Approaching a DBQ, and Guide to Writing a DBQ.

At 11:00 AM, eat a lunch high in carbohydrates such as pasta. This will turn into energy during the testing session.

Arrive at the test site by 12:00 PM and read the *Short Outline of European History* before you enter the test area.

AP European History and the Internet

Many teachers maintain websites with amazing amounts of information and review materials. Use a search engine such as **www.google.com** and enter AP European History, and you will find many sites that you can use to search for information.

Most textbook publishers now offer websites for their books. Ask your teacher if he/she knows any URLs for the textbook you use. Prentice Hall publishing has a website for their *Kagan AP European History text, Western Heritage* at **www.prenticehall.com/kagan.**

The College Board maintains a website at **www.collegeboard.org/ap/european-history** that contains much valuable and updated material.

Social Studies School Services maintains a website with many different AP materials available. Go to **www.socialstudies.com** and enter AP European History into the search engine for a complete list of materials.

In recent years more emphasis has been given to social history the following sites would be good to visit when reviewing.

European Social History offers many good links. This topic will explore marriage, family, sexual relations in marriage, parent-child relations and the functions and changes in European family structures...

www.suite101.com/welcome.cfm/history_european_family

To present a diversity of source material in modern European, American, ... Although the history of social and cultural elite groups remains important to ... www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/modsbook.html

European Social History Links

Links at Suite101 relating to This topic will explore marriage, family, sexual relations in marriage, parent-child relations and the functions and changes ...

www.suite101.com/links.cfm/history_european_family - 21k

Best AP European Art Sites

Art in European History

Welcome to a collection of art designed to be used to accompany a course in the history of modern Europe. To select a particular period, ...

www.bc.edu/bc org/avp/cas/his/CoreArt/art/art.html

Mother

An extensive group of internet art links based at the University of Michigan.

www.art-design.umich.edu/mother/ - 5k

Above from Google search

Glossary of European History

Absolutism—The theory that the monarch is supreme and can exercise full and complete power.

Adenauer, Konrad (1876–1967)—The first chancellor of West Germany, he was able to establish a stable democratic government.

Adolphus, Gustavus (1594–1632)—A Swedish Lutheran who won victories for the German Protestants in the Thirty Years War and lost his life in one of the battles.

Agadir—The landing site of the German gunboat in Morocco in 1911 when William II tried to force the French to make concessions to Germany in Africa. Like the first crisis, this one drew Britain and France closer together.

Alexander II (1855–1881)—The reforming czar who emancipated the serfs and introduced some measure of representative local government.

Alexander III (1881–1894)—A politically reactionary czar who promoted economic modernization of Russia.

Algeria Conference—The 1906 conference in Spain at which Britain and France, acting in unison, rebuffed German involvement in Morocco.

Algerian Liberation Movement—An eight-year struggle by Algeria to secure independence from French colonial control, achieved in 1962.

Ancien regime (Old Regime)—France prior to the French Revolution.

Anschluss—The union of Austria with Germany as a result of the occupation of Austria by the German army in 1938.

Appeasement—The making of concessions to an adversary in the hope of avoiding conflict. The term is most often used in reference to the meeting between Hitler and British Prime Minister Chamberlain in Munich, where an agreement was made, in September 1938, to cede the Sudetenland (the German-speaking area of Czechoslovakia) to Germany.

Aristotelian-Ptolemaic cosmology—The geocentric view of the universe that prevailed from fourth century B.C. to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and accorded with church teachings and Scriptures.

Army Order Number 1—An order issued to the Russian military when the provisional government was formed. It deprived officers of their authority and placed power in elected committees of common soldiers, leading to the collapse of army discipline.

Article 231—A provision of the Versailles Treaty that blamed Germany for World War I.

Atlantic Charter—The joint declaration, in August 1941, by Roosevelt and Churchill, stating common principles for the free world: self-determination, free choice of government,

equal opportunities for all nations for trade, permanent system of general security and disarmament.

Attlee, Clement—Replaced Churchill before the end of WWII.

Bacon, Francis (1561–1626)—An inductive thinker who stressed experimentation in arriving at truth.

Bakunin, Michael (1814–1876)—A radical Russian who advocated revolutionary violence. He believed that revolutionary movements should be lead by secret societies that would seize power, destroy the state, and create a new social order.

Balboa, Vasco de—The first European to reach the Pacific Ocean in 1513.

Banalities—Fees that peasants were obligated to pay landlords for the use of the village mill, bakeshop and winepress.

Baroque—The sensuous and dynamic style of art of the Counter Reformation.

Bastille—The political prison and armory stormed on July 14, 1789, by Parisian city workers alarmed by the king's concentration of troops at Versailles.

Beauvoir, Simone de (1908-1986)—An existentialist and feminist who wrote on the psychology and social position of women.

Beer Hall Putsch—Hitler's attempt, in 1923, to overthrow the Weimar Republic when he fired his pistol at the ceiling of a Munich beer hall.

Bentham, Jeremy (1748–1832)—The British theorist and philosopher who proposed utilitarianism, the principle that governments should operate on the basis of utility, or the greatest good for the greatest number.

Berlin Wall—The concrete barrier constructed by the Soviets in August 1961 between West Berlin and East Berlin to prevent East Germans from fleeing to the West. Torn down in 1990.

Bernstein, Eduard (1850–1932)—Revisionist German Social Democrat who favored socialist revolution by the ballot rather than the bullet.

Bessemer, Henry (1813–1898)—Englishman who developed the Bessemer converter, the first efficient method for the mass production of steel.

Bill of Rights (1689)—English document declaring that sovereignty resided with Parliament.

Bismarck, Otto von (1815–1898)—Prussian chancellor who engineered a series of wars to unify Germany under the authoritarian rule of the Kaiser.

Black Hand—The Serbian secret society allegedly responsible for assassinating Archduke Francis Ferdinand.

Black Shirts—The private army of Mussolini.

Blanc, Louis (1811–1882)—Wrote the Organization of Work (1840) that proposed the use of competition to eliminate competition. It was the first step toward a future socialist society.

He advocated the principle of "from each according to his abilities, to each according to his needs."

Blank Check—Reference to the full support provided by William II to Austria-Hungary in its conflict with Serbia. Also refers to the promise of support given by Russia to Serbia for development.

Bolshevik—Left wing, revolutionary Marxists headed by Lenin.

Boyar—Russian noble.

Brandt, Willy (1913–)—Chancellor of West Germany in the late 1960s who sought to improve relations with the states of Eastern Europe.

Brethren of the Common Life—The pious laypeople in 16th-century Holland who initiated a religious revival as their model of Christian living.

Brezhnev Doctrine—Policy proclaimed in 1968 declaring that the Soviet Union had the right to intervene in any Socialist country whenever it determined there was a need to do so.

Brezhnev, Leonid (1907–1982)—Soviet leader who helped oust Khrushchev and then replaces him.

Brown Shirts—Hitler's private army of supporters, also known as the SA (Sturm Abteilung).

Bundesrat—The upper house, or Federal Council, of the German Diet (legislature).

Burke, Edmund (1729–1797)—A member of British Parliament and author of *Reflections* on the Revolution in France (1790), which criticized the underlying principles of the French Revolution and argued conservative thought.

Burschenschaften—A group of politically active students around 1815 in the German states proposing unification and democratic principles.

Cahier de doleances—A list of grievances that each Estate drew up in preparation for the summoning of the Estates-General in 1789.

Calvin, John (1509–1564)—A French theologian who established a theocracy in Geneva and is best known for his theory of predestination.

Camus, Albert (1913–1960)—A French existentialist who stated that, in spite of the general absurdity of human life, individuals could make rational sense out of their own existence through meaningful personal decision making.

Carbonari—Italian secret societies calling for a unified Italy and republicanism after 1815.

Carlsbad Decrees (1819)—The repressive laws in the German states limiting freedom of speech and dissemination of liberal ideas in the universities.

Cat and Mouse Act (1913) – The law that released suffragettes on hunger strikes from jail and then rearrested and jailed them again.

Catherine the Great (1762–1796)—An "enlightened despot" of Russia whose policies of reform were aborted by pressure from serf rebellions. She opened the Caspian to Russians

and helped divide Poland.

Catholic Emancipation Bill (1829)—A bill that enabled Catholics to hold public office for the first time.

Cavour, Count (1810–1861)—Italian statesman from Sardinia who used diplomacy to help achieve unification of Italy.

Cellini, Benvenuto—A goldsmith and sculptor who wrote an autobiography, famous for its arrogance and immodest self-praise.

Charles I (1625–1649)—The Stuart king who brought conflict with Parliament to a head and was subsequently executed.

Charles II (1660–1685)—The Stuart king (Merry Monarch) during the Restoration, following Cromwell's Interregnum.

Charles V (1519–1556)—A Habsburg dynastic ruler of the Holy Roman Empire and of extensive territories in Spain and the Netherlands.

Cheka—The Russian Revolution secret police.

Church Statute of 1721—A Holy Synod that replaced the office of patriarch. All of its members (lay and religious) had to swear allegiance to the czar.

City-state—A concept where the city rules the surrounding area. True in Greece and in Italy at the beginning of the Renaissance.

Napoleon Code—The codification and condensation of laws assuring legal equality and uniformity in France.

Colbert, Jean-Baptiste (1619–1683)—The financial minister under the French King Louis XIV who promoted mercantilist policies.

Cold War (1945–1989)—An intense conflict between the superpowers (USSR and USA) using all means short of military might to achieve their respective ends.

Columbus, Christopher—First European to sail to the West Indies, 1492.

Committee of Public Safety—The leaders under Robespierre who organized the defenses of France, conducted foreign policy, and centralized authority during the period 1792–1795.

Common Market—Another name for the European Economic Community, which created a free-trade area among the Western European countries.

Concordat (1801)—Napoleon's arrangement with Pope Pius VII to heal religious division in France with a united Catholic church under bishops appointed by the government.

Concordat of Bologna (1516)—The treaty under which the French Crown recognized the supremacy of the pope over a council and obtained the right to appoint all French bishops and abbots.

Condorcet—A sketch of the progress of the human mind.

Condottiere—A mercenary soldier of a political ruler.

Conservative Party—Formerly the Tory Party, it was headed by Disraeli in the nineteenth century.

Constitutional Democrats—Also known as the Cadets, it was the party of the liberal bourgeoisie in Russia.

Constitutionalism—The theory that power should be shared among ruler, their subjects and the state governed according to laws.

Continental System—Napoleon's efforts to block foreign trade with Great Britain by forbidding importation of British goods into Europe.

Copernicus, Nicolas (1473–1543)—A Polish astronomer who proposed a heliocentric universe in place of a geocentric universe.

Corn Laws - Tariffs were placed on the import of grain in Great Britain and became a symbolic protection of aristocratic landholdings. Repealed in 1846.

Cortez, Fernando—Conqueror of the Aztecs, 1519-1521.

Corvee—Roadwork; an obligation of peasants to landowners.

Council for Mutual Economic Aid (Comecon)—An economic alliance, founded in 1949, to coordinate the economic affairs of the Soviet Union and its satellite countries.

Council of People's Commissars—The new government set up by Lenin following the Red Guard seizure of government buildings on November 6, 1917.

Council of Trent—The congress of learned Roman Catholic authorities that met intermittently from 1545 to 1563 to reform abusive church practices.

Coup—Overthrow of those in power.

Crimean War (1853–1856)—The conflict that waged to protect Orthodox Christians in the Ottoman Empire, but in actuality to gain a foothold in the Black Sea. Turks, Britain, and France forced Russia to sue for peace. The Treaty of Paris (1856) forfeited Russia's right to maintain a war fleet in the Black Sea. Russia also lost the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia.

Cromwell, Oliver (1559-1658)—The principal leader and a gentry member of the Puritans in Parliament. Led Model Army against Charles I and established the Protectorate.

Crystal Night (Kristallnacht)—The November 1938 destruction, by Hitler's Brown Shirts and mobs, of Jewish shops, homes, and synagogues.

Darwin, Charles (1809-1882)—The British scientist who wrote Origin of Species (1859) and proposed the theory of evolution based on his biological research.

Dawes Plan (1924)—The provision of U.S. loans to Germany to help meet reparation payments.

De Gasperi, Alcide (1881–1954)—The leader of the Christian Democrats in Italy, who was committed to democracy and moderate social reform.

De Gaulle, Charles (1890–1970)—The first president of the French Fifth Republic and former head of the Free French movement in World War II.

De Gouges, Olympe—The author of the Declaration of the Rights Of Women during the French Revolution.

De Medici, Catherine (1547-1589) - The wife of Henry II (1547-1559) of France, who exercised political influence after the death of her husband and during the rule of her weak sons.

De Medici, Lorenzo—Leader of the city-state of Florence, patron of Michelangelo.

Decembrist Revolt—The 1825 plot by Russian liberals (upper-class intelligentsia) to set up a constitutional monarchy or a republic. The plot failed, but the ideals remained.

Decembrists—Russian revolutionaries calling for constitutional reform in the early nineteenth century.

Declaration of Pillnitz (1791)—Austria and Prussia agreed to intervene in France to end the revolution with the unanimous agreement of the great powers.

Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen (August 27, 1789)—The document that embodied the liberal revolutionary Ideals and general principles of the Philosophes' writings.

Declaration of The Rights Of Women—A document that embodied the liberal revolutionary Ideals and general principles of the Philosophes' writings for women written by Olympe de Gouges. It was rejected.

De-colonization—The collapse of colonial empires between 1947 and 1962, practically all-former colonies in Asia and Africa gained independence.

Defenestration of Prague—The hurling, by Protestants, of Catholic officials from a castle window in Prague, setting off the Thirty Years' War.

Deism—The belief that God has created the universe and set it in motion to operate like clockwork. God is literally in the wings watching the show go on as humans forge their own destiny.

Descartes, Rene (1596–1650)—A deductive thinker with a famous saying, cogito, ergo ("I think therefore I am").

Détente—A reference to the period of relaxation or thaw in relations between the superpowers during Khrushchev's rule in the Soviet Union.

Dialectical materialism—The idea, according to Karl Marx, that change and development in history results from the conflict between social classes. Economic forces impel human beings to behave in socially determined ways.

Diaz, Bartholomew—The first European to reach the southern tip of Africa, 1487.

Diderot, Denis—Author of *The Encyclopedia*.

Diggers—A radical group in England in the 1650s who called for the abolition of private ownership and extension of male suffrage.

Directory (1795–1799)—The five-man executive committee that ruled France in its own interests as a republic after Robespierre's execution and prior to Napoleon's coming to power.

Disraeli, Benjamin (1804–1881)—The leader of the British Tory Party who engineered the Reform Bill of 1867, which extended the vote to the working class men added the Suez Canal to English overseas holdings.

Divine right monarchy—The belief that a monarch's power derives from God and represents Him on earth.

Domestic system—The manufacture of goods in the household setting, a production system that gave way to the factory system.

Dreadnought—A battleship with increased speed and power over conventional warships, developed by both Germany and Great Britain to increase their naval arsenals. It carried 10 300mm guns mounted in 5 turrets.

Dreyfus, Alfred (1859–1935)—French Jewish army captain unfairly convicted of espionage in a case that lasted from 1894 to 1906.

Dual Monarchy—An 1867 compromise between the Germans of Austria-Bohemia and the Magyars of Germany to resolve the nationalities problem by creating the empire of Austria and the kingdom of Hungary, with a common ministry for finance, foreign affairs, and war.

Duke of Alva (1508–1582)—Military leader sent by Philip n to pacify the Low Countries.

Duma—Russian national legislature.

Dutch East India Company—Dutch government-chartered joint-stock company that controlled the spice trade in the East Indies.

Edict of Nantes (1598)—The edict of Henry IV that granted Huguenots the rights of public worship and religious toleration in France.

Elizabeth I (1558–1603)—Protestant ruler of England who helped stabilize religious tensions by subordinating theological issues to political considerations.

Emancipation Edict (1861)—The imperial law that abolished serfdom in Russia and, on paper, freed the peasants. In actuality they were collectively responsible for redemption payments to the government for a number of years.

EMS Dispatch—The carefully edited dispatch by Bismarck to the French ambassador Benedetti that appeared to be insulting, thus requiring retaliation by France for the seeming affront to French honor.

Enabling Act—Article 48 of the Weimar constitution, which enabled Hitler to issue decrees carrying the force of law.

Encirclement—Before both world wars, this was the policy of other European countries that, Germany claimed, prevented German expansion by denying it the right to acquire "living room" (Lebensraum).

Engels, Friedrich (1820–1895)—A textile factory owner who collaborated with Karl Marx Engels and supplied Marx with the hard data for his economic writings, most notably Das Kapital (1867).

Enlightenment—The intellectual revolution of the eighteenth century in which the Philosophes stressed reason, natural law, and progress in their criticism of prevailing social injustices.

Entente Cordiale—The 1904 "gentleman's agreement" between France and Britain establishing a close understanding.

Estates General—The French national assembly summoned in 1789 to remedy the financial crisis and correct abuses of the ancien regime. First Estate = Clergy, Second Estate = Nobility, Third Estate = all others.

European Coal and Steel Community—Organized by Jean Monnet (1888-1979), it called for an integration of the coal and steel.

European Economic Community (Common Market)—An organization that began on January 1, 1958, which included France, German Federal Republic, Italy, and the Benelux nations (Belgium, Netherlands, and Luxembourg). By 1966 the Common Market would eliminate all customs barriers between the countries, set up a common tariff policy on imports, and gradually remove all restrictions on the movement of workers and capital.

European Free Trade Association—An association of Western European nations agreeing to favor each other in respect to tariffs. Its members were Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Austria, Portugal, Switzerland, and Great Britain. Sometimes referred to as the Outer Seven.

European Union—new name of EC in 1993.

Existentialism—A label for widely different revolts against traditional philosophy, stressing choice, freedom, decision, and anguish emerging strongly during and after the World War II.

Fabian Society—A group of English socialists, including George Bernard Shaw, who advocated electoral victories rather than violent revolution to bring about social change.

Factory Act—Limited children's and adolescents' workweek in textile factories.

Fascism—The political and economic methods of Mussolini in Italy. The name comes from the fasces, or bundle of rods, tied around an axe, the symbol of authority in ancient Rome.

Fichte, J. G. (1762–1814)—A German writer who believed that the German spirit was nobler and purer than that of other people's.

Fifth Republic—Government established in France in October 1958. The First Republic lasted from 1793 to 1804; the Second, from 1848 to 1852; the Third from 1875 to 1945; and the Fourth, from 1946 to 1958.

Fourier, Charles (1772–1837)—A leading utopian socialist who envisioned small communal societies in which men and women cooperated in agriculture and industry, abolishing private property and monogamous marriage as well.

Fourteen Points—Wilson's peace plans calling for freedom of the seas, arms reduction, and the right of self-determination for ethnic groups.

Francisco Pizarro—Conqueror of Peru, 1532-1533.

Frederick the Great (1740–1786)—The Prussian ruler who expanded his territory by invading the duchy of Silesia and defeating Maria Theresa of Austria.

Frederick William (1640–1688)—The "Great Elector," who built a strong Prussian army and infused military values into Prussian society.

Frederick William IV (1840–1861)—King of Prussia who promised constitutional reforms in 1848.

Free French—The supporters of General de Gaulle who refused to acknowledge the French armistice in 1940. In 1944, de Gaulle's Committee of National Liberation was proclaimed and recognized as the French provisional government.

Free Trade—An economic theory or policy of the absence of restrictions or tariffs on goods imported into a country. There is no "protection" in the form of tariffs against foreign competition.

French Classicism—The style in seventeenth-century art and literature resembling the arts in the ancient world and in the Renaissance.

Freud, Sigmund (1856–1939)—A Viennese psychoanalyst whose theory of human personality based on sexual drives shocked Victorian sensibilities.

Fronde—An aristocratic revolt against Louis XIV.

Galileo (1564–1642)—The Italian scientist who formulated terrestrial laws and the modern law of inertia. He also provided evidence for the Copernican hypothesis.

Gapon, Father—The leader of the factory workers who assembled before the czar's palace to petition him on January 1905 (Bloody Sunday).

Garibaldi, Giuseppe (1807–1882)—A soldier of fortune who amassed his "Red Shirt" army to bring Naples and Sicily into a unified Italy.

Gladstone, William (1809–1898)—English Prime Minister (Liberal) known as the "Grand Old Man." He instituted liberal reforms, which were designed to remove long-standing abuses without destroying existing institutions. He believed in Home Rule for Ireland. In 1870 he passed the Education Act of 1870 and the Order in Council, which replaced patronage as a means of entering civil service with competitive examinations. In 1871 he removed the

Anglican religion qualification for faculty positions at Oxford and Cambridge universities and introduced the Ballot Act of 1872 that provided for a secret ballot.

Glasnost—Gorbachev used this term to explain his new policy of "openness" in allowing Russians more freedom to dissent.

Glorious Revolution—A reference to the political events of 1688-1689 when James II abdicated his throne and was replaced by his daughter Mary and her husband, Prince William of Orange.

Great Fear—The panic and insecurity that struck French peasants in the summer of 1789 and led to their widespread destruction of manor houses and archives.

Guizot, Francois (1787–1874)—The chief minister under Louis Philippe Guizot's repression that led to the revolution of 1848.

Gulag—The forced labor camps set up by Stalin for political dissidents.

Habeas corpus—The legal protection that prohibits the imprisonment of a subject without demonstrated cause.

Hegelian dialectic—The idea, according to G.W.F. Hegel (1770-1831), a German philosopher, that social change results from the conflict of opposing ideas, i.e. the thesis is confronted by the antithesis, resulting in a synthesis, which then becomes a new thesis. The process is evolutionary.

Henry IV (1589–1610)—Formerly Henry of Navarre, Henry IV ascended the French throne as a convert to Catholicism. He survived St. Bartholomew Day, signed Edict of Nantes, and was quoted as saying "Paris is worth a mass."

Herder, J. G. (1774–1803)—The forerunner of the German Romantic movement who believed that each people shared a national character, or Volksgeist.

Hindenburg, Paul von (1847–1934)—President of Weimar Germany who appointed Hitler chancellor in 1933. He was formerly a general in World War I.

Hitler, Adolph (1889–1945)—The Nazi leader who came to power legally in Germany in 1933. He set up a totalitarian dictatorship and led Germany into World War II.

Hobbes, Thomas (1588–1679)—Political theorist advocating absolute monarchy based on his concept of an anarchic state of nature. Author of *The Leviathan*.

Holy Alliance—An alliance envisioned by Alexander I of Russia by which those in power were asked to rule in accord with Christian principles.

House of Savoy—The Italian dynasty ruling the independent state of Piedmont-Sardinia. Its head was King Victor Emmanuel II.

Huguenots—French Calvinists.

Humanism—The recovery and study of classical authors and writings.

Hume, David—Author of An Inquiry Concerning Human Understanding.

Hungarian Revolt (1956)—The attempt by students and workers to liberalize the Communist regime and break off military alliance with the Soviet Union.

Imperialism—The acquisition and administration of colonial areas, usually in the interests of the administering country (The Second Age of Exploration).

Indemnities—The financial demands placed on loser nations.

Indemnity Bill (1867)—The bill passed by the German Reichstag that legitimated Bismarck's unconstitutional collection of taxes to modernize the army in 1863.

Index—A list of books that Catholics were forbidden to read.

Individualism—The emphasis on the unique and creative personality.

Indulgence—Papal pardon for remission of sins.

Inquisition—A religious committee of six Roman Cardinals that tried heretics and punished the guilty by imprisonment and execution.

Interregnum—The period of Cromwell's rule (1649–1659) between the Stuart dynastic rules of Charles I and Charles II.

Ivan the Great (1462–1505)—The Slavic Grand Duke of Moscow, he ended nearly 200 years of Mongol domination of his dukedom. From then on he worked at extending his territories, subduing the nobles, and attaining absolute power.

Ivan the Terrible (1533–1584)—He earned his nickname for his great acts of cruelty directed toward all those with whom he disagreed. He became the first ruler to assume the title Czar of all Russia.

Jacobins—The dominant group in the National Convention in 1793 that replaced the Girondists, headed by Robespierre.

James I (1603–1625)—The Stuart monarch who ignored constitutional principles and asserted the divine right of kings.

James II (1685–1688)—The final Stuart ruler; he was forced to abdicate in favor of William and Mary, (Glorious Revolution) who agreed to the Bill of Rights, guaranteeing parliamentary supremacy.

Jaspers, Karl (1883–1969)—A German existentialist seeing all people as equally coresponsible for the terrors and injustices of the world.

Jaures, Jean (1859–1914)—A French revisionist socialist who was assassinated for his pacifist ideals at the start of World War I.

Jesuits—Also known as the Society of Jesus, this group was founded by Ignatius Loyola (1491-1556) as a teaching and missionary order to resist the spread of Protestantism.

Kellogg-Briand Pact (1928)—A document, signed by fifteen countries, which "condemned and renounced war as an instrument of national policy."

Khrushchev, Nikita (1894–1971)—The Soviet leader who denounced Stalin's rule and brought a temporary thaw in the superpowers' relations.

Knox, John (1505–1572)—A Calvinist leader in 16th-century Scotland.

Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) formed in 1998 to fight for independence from Serbia.

Kulak—An independent and propertied Russian farmer.

Kulturkampf—Bismarck's anticlerical campaign to expel Jesuits from Germany and break off relations with the Vatican. Eventually, after little success, Bismarck halted these policies.

Labor Party—The British party that replaced the Liberals in the early twentieth century and championed greater social equality for the working classes through the efforts of labor unions.

Laissez-faire—The economic concept of the Scottish economic philosopher Adam Smith (1723-1790) In opposition to mercantilism, Smith urged governments to keep their hands off the operation of the economy. He believed the role of government was analogous to the night watchman, guarding and protecting, but not intervening in the operation of the economy, which must be left to run in accord with the natural laws of supply and demand.

LaSalle, Ferdinand (1825–1864)—The leader of the revisionist socialists who hoped to achieve socialism through the ballot rather than the bullet. They agreed to work within the framework of the existing government.

Lateran Agreement (1929)—A pact that provided recognition by Mussolini of the Vatican and a large sum of money to the church as well.

Law of the Maximum—The fixing of prices on bread and other essentials under Robespierre's rule.

League of Nations—A proposal included in Wilson's Fourteen Points to establish an international organization to settle disputes and avoid future wars.

Lenin, Vladimir I. (1870–1924)—The Bolshevik leader who started the Marxist revolution in November 1917 and modified orthodox Marxism in doing so.

Levee en masse—The creation under the Jacobins, of a citizen army with support from young and old, heralding the emergence of modern warfare.

Levellers—A radical group in England in the 1650s who called for the abolition of private ownership and extension of the male suffrage.

Liberal Party—Formerly the Whig Party, it was headed by Gladstone in the nineteenth century.

Locarno Treaty (1925)—A pact that secured the frontier between Germany and France and Germany and Belgium. It also provided for mutual assistance by France and Italy if Germany invaded its border countries.

Locke, John (1632–1704)—The political theorist who defended the Glorious Revolution with the argument that all people are born with certain natural rights to life, liberty, and property. Wrote *Two Treatises on Government* and *Essay on Human Understanding*.

Louis XIV (1643–1715)—Also known as the "Sun King"; he was the ruler of France who established the supremacy of absolutism in seventeenth-century Europe. ("I am the State.")

Lusitania—British merchant liner carrying ammunition and passengers that was sunk by a German U-boat in 1915. The loss of 139 American lives on board was a factor in bringing the United States into World War I.

Luther, Martin (1483–1546)—German theologian who challenged the church's practice of selling indulgences, a challenge that ultimately led to the destruction of the unity of the Roman Catholic world and creation of the Protestant Movement.

Maastricht Treaty—Established formula for entry into EU and proposed monetary union.

Machiavelli—The author of The Prince, his political ideology used the concept of "the end justifies the means".

Magellan, Ferdinand—The first man whose crew circumnavigated the globe, 1519–1522.

Malthus, Thomas (1776–1834)—An English parson who's Essay on Population (1798) argued that population would always increase faster than the food supply.

Maria Theresa (1740–1780)—Archduchess of Austria, queen of Hungary, who lost the Habsburg possession of Silesia to Frederick the Great but, was able to keep her other Austrian territories. Came to power through the Pragmatic sanction.

Marshal Tito, (Josip Broz) (1892–1980)—The Communist chief of Yugoslavia who proclaimed independence of his country from Soviet influence.

Marshall Plan—The program that advanced more than \$ 11 billion for European recovery to sixteen Western nations from 1947 to 1953; the final cost to the United States was \$20 billion.

Marx, Karl (1818–1883)—A German philosopher and founder of Marxism, the theory that class conflict is the motor force driving historical change and development. Author of Communist Manifesto and Das Kapital.

Mazzini, Giuseppe (1805–1872)—Idealistic patriot devoted to the principle of a united and republican Italy in a world of free states

Mein Kampf (My Struggle)—A work written by Hitler while in prison in 1923. The book outlines his policies for German expansion, war, and elimination of non-Aryans.

Menshevik—Right wing or moderate Marxists willing to cooperate with the bourgeoisie.

Mercantilism—Governmental policies by which the state regulates the economy, through taxes, tariffs, subsidies, laws.

Metternich, Prince Clemens von (1773–1859)—An Austrian member of the nobility and chief architect of conservative policy at the Congress of Vienna.

Michelangelo—Artist of the Renaissance. Known for *David*, three *Pietas*, and the murals of the Sistine Chapel.

Mill, John Stuart (1806–1873)—British philosopher who published *On Liberty* (1859), advocating individual rights against government intrusion, and *The Subjection of Women* (1869), on the cause of women's rights.

Milosevic—Leader of Serbia. Tried for War Crimes. Civil wars in 20th-century Bosnia.

Mir—A village commune where the emancipated serfs lived and worked collectively in order to meet redemption payments to the government.

Montesquieu—Author of *Spirit of the Laws*, *Persian Letters*. Admired England's system of "checks and balances."

More, Sir Thomas (1478–1535)—Author of Utopia, Renaissance humanist and Chancellor of England. Henry VIII executed him for his unwillingness to recognize, publicly, his king as Supreme Head of the church and clergy of England.

Moro, Aldo—Former premier of Italy and leader of the Christian Democratic Party who was assassinated by a terrorist group in 1978.

Moroccan Crises—German incidents leading to WWI.

Mussolini, Benito (1883–1945)—The founder and leader of the Italian Fascist Party.

Nagy, Imre (1896–1958)—Hungarian Communist Party leader who attempted to end association with the USSR that led to the 1956 Hungarian revolt.

Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821)—Consul and later emperor of France (1799-1815) who established several of the reforms (Napoleon Code) of the French Revolution during his dictatorial rule.

Napoleon III (1852–1870)—The former Louis Napoleon who became president of the Second Republic of France in 1848. HE engineered a coup d'état, ultimately making himself head of the Second Empire.

Napoleon, Louie Bonaparte (1808–1873)—Nephew of Napoleon I; he came to power as president of the Second French Republic in 1848.

National Socialist German Workers' Party (Nazis)—The political party of Adolf Hitler.

Nationalism—The shared belief among people of a common heritage, culture, and customs, and speaking a similar language (there may be dialect differences).

Nepotism—The practice of rewarding relatives with church positions.

New Economic Policy (NEP)—A plan introduced by Lenin after the Russian civil war. Essentially it was a tactical retreat from communism, allowing some private ownership among the peasants to stimulate agrarian production.

New Model Army—The disciplined fighting force of Protestants led by Oliver Cromwell in the English civil war.

New Monarchs—The term applied to Louis XI of France, Henry VII of England, and Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, who often strengthened their monarchical authority by Machiavellian means.

Newton, Isaac (1642–1727)—An English scientist who formulated the law of gravitation that proposed a universe operating in accord with natural law.

Nicholas II (1894–1917)—The last czar of the Romanov dynasty whose government collapsed under the pressure of WWI.

Nietzsche, Friedrich (1844–1900)—A German philosopher and forerunner of the modern existentialist movement; he stressed the role of the Ubermensch or Superman, who would rise above the common herd of mediocrity.

Night of August 4, 1789—The date of the declaration by liberal noblemen of the National Assembly at a secret meeting to abolish the feudal regime in France.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)—A military alliance founded in 1949, among the United States and Great Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Canada, Norway, Iceland, Denmark, Portugal, and Italy. More nations joined later including former Warsaw Pact nations.

Norton, Caroline (1808–1877)—A British feminist whose legal persistence resulted in the Married Women's Property Act (1883), which gave married women the same property rights as unmarried women.

Nuremberg Laws (1935)—Measures that excluded Jews from white-collar professions and from marriage and habitation with non-Jews.

O'Connell, Daniel (1775–1847)—Irish advocate for the Penal Laws against Catholics. He tried to have the Act of Union of 1800 repealed, which linked Britain and Ireland legislatively. Elected to Parliament and lobbied for the passage of the 1829 Catholic Emancipation Act that declared Catholics eligible for Public Office.

Owen, Robert (1771–1858)—Utopian socialist who improved health and safety conditions in mills, increased workers wages and reduced hours. He dreamed of establishing socialist communities; the most notable was New Harmony (1826), which failed.

OPEC—Organization of Petroleum Counties.

Pankhurst, Emmeline (1858–1928)—British suffragette and founder of the Women's Social and Political Union.

Pan-Slavism—The movement to unite Slavs in the Balkans.

Paris Accords—Ended the Cold War called for scaling down of European militaries.

Paris Commune—The revolutionary municipal council, led by radicals, that engaged in a civil war (March-May 1871) with the National Assembly of the newly established Third Republic, set up after the defeat of Napoleon III in the Franco-Prussian War.

Parlement—Law court staffed by nobles that could register or refuse to register a king's edict.

Parliament Act of 1911—The legislation that deprived the House of Lords of veto power in all money matters (realistically curtails the power of the House of Lords).

Parnell, Charles Stewart (1846–1891)—Elected to Parliament in 1875, he came to prominence by obstructing other legislation to gain a hearing for home rule for Ireland. In 1885, Parnell's party won 86 seats, exactly the number of votes separating the Liberals (335) from the Conservatives (249). This forced Gladstone to announced his support for a Home Rule Bill.

Pasternak, Boris (1890–1960)—Russian author of Dr. Zhivago, a novel condemning the brutality of the Stalin era.

Peace of Augsburg (1555)—The document in which Charles V recognized Lutheranism as a legal religion in the Holy Roman Empire. The faith of the prince determined the religion of his subjects.

Peace of Utrecht (1713)—The pact concluding the War of the Spanish Succession, forbidding the union of France with Spain, and conferring control of Gibraltar on England.

Peace of Westphalia (1648)—The treaty ending the Thirty Years' War in Germany. It allowed each prince—whether Lutheran, Catholic, or Calvinist—to choose the established religion of his territory.

Peace, land, and bread—The promise Lenin made to his supporters on his arrival on April 1917 in Russia after his exile abroad (in Germany).

Peninsular War (1808–1813)—Napoleon's long-drawn-out war with Spain.

Perestroika—Gorbachev's policy of "restructuring" which included reducing the direct involvement of the Communist Party leadership in the day to day governing of the nation and decentralization of economic planning and controls.

Perovskia, Sofia—The first woman to be executed for a political crime in Russia, she was a member of a militant movement that assassinated Czar Alexander II in 1881.

Peter the Great (1682–1725)—The Romanov czar who initiated the westernization of Russian society by traveling to the West and incorporating techniques of manufacturing as well as manners and dress.

Petition of Right (1628)—Parliamentary document that restricted the king's power, most notably it called for recognition of the writ of habeas corpus and held that only Parliament could impose new taxes.

Petrarch—Father of Humanism

Petrograd Soviet—The St. Petersburg, or Petrograd, council of workers, soldiers, and intellectuals who shared power with the provisional government.

Philip II (1556-1598)—Son and successor to Charles V, ruling Spain and the Low

Countries.

Philosophes—Social critics of the eighteenth century who subjected social institutions and practices to the test of reason.

Pluralism—The holding of several benefices, or church offices.

Poor Law of 1834—Legislation that restricted the number of poverty-stricken eligible for aid.

Potsdam Conference—The July–August 1945 meeting of Truman, Stalin, and Clement Attlee of Great Britain, at which disagreements arose over the permanent borders of Germany and free elections in East European countries. Stalin refused to hold free elections, in fear of anti-Soviet governments.

Prague Spring—The liberal reforms introduced by Alexander Dubcek, the Czechoslovak Communist Party secretary. On August 20, 1968, twenty thousand troops from the Soviet Union and its satellite countries occupied Prague to undo the reforms.

Prince Henry the Navigator—Sponsor of voyages along West African coasts, 1418.

Prince William of Orange (1572–1584)—Leader of the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands.

Provisional government—The temporary government established after the abdication of Nicholas II (1881–1970), from March until Lenin's takeover in November 1917.

Pugechev (1726–1775)—Head of the bloody peasant revolt in 1773 that convinced Catherine the Great to throw her support to the nobles and cease internal reforms.

Puritan Revolution—A reference to the English civil war (1642-1646), waged to determine whether sovereignty would reside in the monarch or in Parliament.

Puritans—Protestant sect in England hoping to "purify" the Anglican church of Roman Catholic traces in practice and organization.

Putsch—Forcible and illegitimate attempt to seize power.

Quadruple Alliance—Organization, made up of Austria, Britain, Prussia, and Russia, to preserve the peace settlement of 1815; France joined in 1818.

Rasputin—An uneducated Siberian preacher (nicknamed Rasputin, the Degenerate) who claimed to have mysterious healing powers. He could stop the bleeding of Czarina Alexandra's son-possibly through hypnosis-and was thus able to gain influence in the czar's court, much to the dismay of top ministers and aristocrats, who finally arranged for his murder. The czarina's relationship with Rasputin did much to discredit Czar Nicholas's rule.

Rationalism—The application and use of reason in understanding and explaining events

Realpolitik—The "politics of reality," i.e., the use of practical means to achieve ends. Bismarck was a practitioner.

Red Brigade—Terrorist group committed to radical political and social change that claimed responsibility for the assassination of former Italian premier Aldo Moro in 1978.

Red Guards—The Bolshevik armed forces.

Red Shirts—Volunteers in Garibaldi's army.

Referendum—A plebiscite: the referring of a matter to the people for a decision.

Reform Bill of 1832—Gave the vote to all men who paid ten pounds in rent a year; eliminated the rotten boroughs.

Reichstag—The lower house of the German Diet, or legislature.

Renaissance—The period from 1400 to 1600 that witnessed a transformation of cultural and intellectual values from primarily Christian to classical or secular ones.

Repeal of Test Act (1828)—Allowed Protestants who were not members of the Church of England to hold public office.

Rerum Novarum (1891)—Papal encyclical of Leo XIII (1878–1903) that upheld the right of private property but criticized the inequities of capitalism. It recommended that Catholics form political parties and trade unions to redress the poverty and insecurity fostered under capitalism.

Restoration—The return of the Stuart monarchy (1660) after the period of republican government under Cromwell-in fact, a military dictatorship.

Revanche—The French desire for revenge against Germany for the loss of Alsace and Lorraine in the Franco-Prussian War (1870).

Revisionists—Marxists who believed that workers empowered to vote could obtain their ends through democratic means without revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat, known as revisionism.

Ricardo, David (1772–1823)—English economist who formulated the "iron law of wages," according to which wages would always remain at the subsistence level for the workers because of population growth.

Richelieu, Cardinal (1585–1642)—Minister to Louis XIII. His three-point plan (1. Break the power of the nobility, 2. Humble the House of Austria, 3. Control the Protestants) helped to send France on the road to absolute monarchy.

Risorgimento—Italian drive and desire for unity.

Robespierre (1758–1794)—Jacobin leader during the Reign of Terror (1793–1794).

Romanov, Michael—In 1613, an assembly of nobles chose Michael as the new czar. For the next 300 years the Romanov family ruled in Russia.

Rotten Boroughs—Depopulated areas of England that nevertheless sent representatives to Parliament.

Rousseau, Jean-Jacques—Author of The Social Contract and Emile. His ideas are sometimes referred to as the culmination of the idea of the relationship of man and government.

Royal Society of London and French Academy of Sciences—Organized bodies for scientific study.

Russell, William—A British journalist who reported the events of the Crimean War first hand for the people at home.

Russian Revolution—1917 overthrow of Czar.

SALT I (1972)—Treaty between America and Soviet Union that limited the number of intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) at their existing levels for five years.

SALT II—Additional arms limitations signings in 1979, which places limits on long-range missiles, bombers and nuclear warheads.

Sans culottes—A reference to Parisian workers who wore loose-fitting trousers rather than the tight-fitting breeches worn by aristocratic men.

Sarajevo—The Balkan town in the Austro-Hungarian province of Bosnia where Princip assassinated Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne.

Sartre, Jean-Paul (1905–1980)—French existentialist most famous for his statement that "existence precedes essence" (first we exist and then our decisions and choices shape our character or essence).

Schleswig-Holstein—Two duchies located south of Denmark. In 1863, Denmark's' annexation of Schleswig prompted Bismarck's Danish War.

Schlieffen Plan—Top-secret German strategy to fight a two-front war against Russia and France. The idea was to invade neutral Belgium for a quick victory against France, and then direct German forces against a more slowly mobilizing Russia.

Schumann Plan—An international organization set up in 1952 to control and integrate all European coal and steel production; also known as the European Coal and Steel Community.

SDP—The Social Democratic Party in Germany based on Marx's Ideology.

Secularism—The emphasis on the here-and-now rather than on the spiritual and otherworldly.

Self-determination—The ability of an ethnic group to decide how it wishes to be governed, as an independent nation or as part of another country.

Siege of Paris—The four-month Prussian assault on the French capital after Napoleon III's surrender in 1870.

Simony—The selling of church offices.

Smith, Adam—Author of Wealth of Nations, father of capitalism.

Social Darwinism—The belief that only the fit survives in human political and economic struggle.

Solidarity—Polish political party (anti-communism) led by Lech Walesa, wanted free elections for Poles.

Solzhenitsyn, Alexander (1918–)—Russian author of One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich, a novel detailing life in a Stalinist concentration camp.

Spanish Armada (1588)—Spanish vessels defeated in the English Channel by an English fleet, thus preventing Philip II's invasion of England.

Spartacists—Left-wing Marxists in Germany who hoped to bring about a proletarian revolution in 1919.

Spencer, Herbert (1820–1903)—English philosopher who argued that in the difficult economic struggle for existence, only the "fittest" would survive.

St. Bartholomew's Day (August 24, 1572)—Catholic attack on Calvinists on the marriage day of Margaret of Valois to Henry of Navarre (later Henry IV).

Stolypin, Peter (1862–1911)—Russian minister under Nicholas II who encouraged the growth of private farmers and improved education for enterprising peasants.

Sudetenland—German-speaking area of Czechoslovakia ceded to Germany in the Hitler-Chamberlain Munich meeting (September 1938).

Syllabus of Errors (1864)—Doctrine of Pope Pius IX (1846-1878) that denounced belief in reason and science and attacked "progress, liberalism, and modern civilization."

Syndicalism—The French trade-unionist belief that workers would become the governmental power through a general strike that would paralyze society.

Syndicats—French trade unions.

Tabula Rasa—John Locke's concept of the mind as a blank sheet Taille - A direct tax from which most French nobles were exempt.

Tennis Court Oath—Declaration mainly by members of the Third Estate not to disband until they had drafted a constitution for France (June 20, 1789).

Test Act (1673)—Law prohibiting Catholics and dissenters to hold political office.

Thatcher, Margaret—Conservative British Prime Minister and first woman to head a major European government.

Theocracy—A community, such as Calvin's Geneva, in which the state is subordinate to the church.

Third Reich—Name given to Germany during the Nazi regime, between 1933 and 1945. The First Reich (or empire) was from 963 to 1806 (the Holy Roman Empire); the second was from 1871 to 1917 (the reigns of William I and William II).

Third Way—East German plan to become democratic socialists and not join West Germany.

Three Emperors' League—The 1873 alliance between Germany, Austria, and Russia.

Totalitarianism—An attempt by government to control a society totally through a dictatorship that employs the modern methods of communication (press, radio, and later TV) to glorify the state over the individual. Its varieties are Fascism, Nazism, and Communism.

Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (March 1918)—The pact by which Lenin pulled Russia out of WW I with Germany and gave up one third of the Russian population in the western territories.

Treaty of Frankfurt—The end of the Franco-Prussian War, which ceded the territories of Alsace and most of Lorraine to Germany.

Treaty of Rome (1957)—Set up the European Economic Community (also known as the Common Market).

Treaty of Tilsit (1807)—Agreement between Napoleon and Czar Alexander I in which Russia became an ally of France, and Napoleon took over the lands of Prussia west of the Elbe as well as the Polish provinces.

Triple Alliance—The 1882 alliance between Germany, Austria, and Italy.

Triple Entente—After 1907, the alliance between England, France, and Russia.

Tristan, Flora (1803-1844)—Socialist and feminist who called for working women's social and political rights.

Trotsky, Leon (1879–1940)—Lenin's ally who organized and led the Bolshevik military takeover of the provisional government headed by Kerensky, in November 1917.

Truman Doctrine—Policy providing military aid to Greece and Turkey in an effort to contain Communism (1947–1948).

Two Tactics for Social Democracy—The 1905 essay in which Lenin argued that the agrarian and industrial revolutions could be telescoped. It was unnecessary for Russia to become an industrialized nation before the Marxist revolution.

Usury—The practice of lending money for interest.

Valla, Lorenzo (1407–1457)—A humanist who used historical criticism to discredit an eighth-century document giving the papacy jurisdiction over Western lands.

Vatican—Independent sovereign state of the Pope and the Catholic Church, established in Rome In 1929.

Vatican Council of 1870—A gathering of Catholic Church leaders that proclaimed the doctrine of papal infallibility.

Vatican II—Pope John XXIII called the conference, which met in four sessions between 1962-65. The purpose was to bring the church up to date (aggiornamento).

Versailles—The palace constructed by Louis XIV outside of Paris to glorify his rule and subdue the nobility.

Victor Emmanuel III (1900–1946)—King of Italy who asked Mussolini to form a cabinet in 1922, thus allowing Mussolini to take power legally.

Virtu—The striving for personal excellence.

Voltaire—Author of Philosophical Letters and Candide, a harsh critic of Louis XIV.

War of the Spanish Succession (1701–1713)—The last of Louis XIV's wars involving the issue of succession to the Spanish throne.

Warsaw Pact—A military alliance, formed in 1955, of the Soviet Union and its Eastern European satellite nations.

Washington Naval Conference (1921)—Conference of major powers to reduce naval armaments among Great Britain, Japan, France, Italy, and the United States.

Weimer—A reference to the republic of Germany that lasted from 1919 to 1933.

Weltpolitik ("world politics")—The policy of making Germany a major global power through an expanding navy and the acquisition of colonies, the dream of William II.

William of Orange (1672–1702)—Dutch prince and foe of Louis XIV who became king of England in 1689.

Wilson, Woodrow (1856–1924)—President of the United States and key figure in the peace conferences following World War I; he intended to make the world "safe for democracy."

Witte, Sergei (1849-1915)—Finance minister under whom Russia industrialized and began a program of economic modernization, founder of the Tran Siberian Railroad.

Wollstonecraft, Mary—Author of A Vindication of the Rights of Woman, attacking Rousseau's concept of separate spheres for women.

Young Italy—An association under the leadership of Mazzini that urged the unification of the country.

Young Plan (1929)—A schedule that set limits to Germany's reparation payments and reduced the agreed-on time for occupation of the Ruhr.

Zeikin, Clara (1857–1933)—German Marxist who focused on women's issues in the Communist Party.

Zemstovo—A type of local government with powers to tax and make laws; essentially, a training ground for democracy, dominated by the property-owning class when established in 1864.

Zimmermann telegram - A secret German message to Mexico supporting the Mexican government in regaining Arizona and Texas if the Mexicans declared war on the United States, a factor propelling the United States into WWI in April 1917.

Zionism—Founded by Theodor Herzl (1860–1904), the Zionists sought the creation of

a national homeland for the Jews in Palestine. It was supported by the British Balfour Declaration during WWI, but did not become a reality until 1948.

Zollverein—Economic customs union of German states established in 1818 by Prussia and including almost all German-speaking states except Austria by 1844.