



THE CHURCH IN THE LATE MIDDLE AGES (1300 – 1500)

- A. PYRAMIDAL ORGANIZATION** – believers at the base, then priests, supervised by bishops. The pope ruled over the church and its clergy. Monks, nuns, and friars were also governed by the pope.
- B. PAPACY** – leader of the Western church, faced problems which reduced prestige.
- Criticisms against the papacy were aimed at individuals and church practices but not the idea of the church or Christian beliefs.
 - Corruption.
 - Simony – the purchase of church positions.
 - Pluralism – the holding of more than one office.
 - Critics of the church were often attacked and labeled as heretics. Some major critics were:
 - John Wycliff – an English friar, he believed the church should follow only the Scriptures.
 - John Huss – a Czech priest, led Bohemian followers in their rejection of the pope's authority.
- C. LAY PERSONS** – attempted to find different ways of being pious both inside and outside the institution of the church.
- Meister Eckhart – German mystic sought union with God through emotion.
 - Thomas à Kempis – German mystic sought direct knowledge of God through inner feelings.
 - Gerard Groote – began a semi-monastic life for lay persons in the low countries guided by Christian principles.
- D. BABYLONIAN CAPTIVITY** – popes were subservient to French kings during this 68-year period and resided in Avignon.
- E. GREAT SCHISM** – two popes were elected; one resided in Rome, the other in France during this 40-year period.
- The Conciliar Movement attempted to overcome the problems of two popes and proposed that the church be ruled by bishops, cardinals, abbots, and laity.
 - Marsiglio of Padua urged that the church be governed by a general council.
 - Church was reunited under Pope Martin V but failed to reform itself; the pope rejected the Conciliar Movement.
- F. RENAISSANCE POPES** – were, for the most part, patrons of the arts (Sixtus IV and Julius II) but failed to reform the church.

THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR (1337 – 1453)

- A. CAUSES** – struggle between England and France over the French duchy of Aquitaine; England's king, Edward III, had a claim to the French throne through his mother, a French princess; French nobles sought power over France's king whose control over the wool trade was growing; kings and nobles on both sides seized the chance to put chivalric values into action.
- B. THE WAR** – fought on French soil, involved sieges and raids. The French wore down the English invaders.
- Major battles of Crecy, Poitiers, and Agincourt were English victories.
 - Technological advances included the use of the English longbow and stronger French armor for knights.
 - Joan of Arc rallied the French for several victories, was captured by the French allies of England, and was sold to the English who tried her for heresy.

Joan was burned at the stake in 1431.

C. IMMEDIATE RESULTS OF THE WAR

- England lost all French possessions except Calais.
- French land was devastated.
- France and England spent huge sums of money on war.
- Population in France declined.
- Trade was disrupted.
- Peasants were taxed heavily.

D. LONG-TERM RESULTS OF THE WAR

- England's parliament became more powerful due to parliamentary approval of taxation.
- Nobles gained more power in England.
- Factional struggles resulted in England's War of the Roses (1450 – 1485).
- French king retained power which he refused to share with noble assemblies.
- Nationalism grew in each country fed by propaganda, hatred of the enemy, and military victories; national literatures expressed in the language of the people arose both in England and France in the works of Chaucer and Villon, respectively.

HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE LATER MIDDLE AGES

A. THE EMPEROR'S POWER DECLINED IN GERMANY AND ITALY.

- After 1326, seven German electors had the power to name the emperor.
- City-states or communes in Italy sought independence from the emperor.
 - Despots (in Milan and Florence) or oligarchies (in Venice) ruled the city-states.
 - Large cities came to dominate outlying territories.
- Hapsburgs ruled the empire after 1272.
 - Their main interest during this period was to create possessions in Austria and Hungary.
- Ottoman Turks – pressured the empire from their base in Constantinople.
- Swiss cantons gradually threw off rule by the empire.

GROWTH OF STRONG MONARCHIES (AFTER 1450)

A. MONARCHS FACED VARIOUS CHALLENGES TO THEIR AUTHORITY

- Money had to be raised through new taxes.
- Nobles sought power over the monarch and other nobles and were often involved in internal conflicts.
- Weak kings hindered the growth of royal power.
- Noble clergy often sided with fellow nobles against kings.
- Newly independent towns were unwilling to obey the royal ruler.

B. STRONG MONARCHIES – in France, England, and Spain.

- France defeated England in the 100 Years War; duchy of Burgundy was defeated, trade was expanded, Louis XI exerted ruthless control over nobles.
- War of the Roses in England wiped out many nobles; royal court controlled nobles via Star Chamber; standard procedures of law and taxation were developed.
- Spain was united under Ferdinand and Isabella; Navarre was added to kingdom; Muslims were driven out in 1492; sheep farming was encouraged; cities and towns were organized against nobles; the Inquisition reformed and controlled the church.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS IN THE LATE MIDDLE AGES

- A. BLACK DEATH** – wiped out 25 to 40 percent of Europe's population by 1350; cities were most affected by the plague because of poor sanitation, overcrowding, and poor nutrition.
- B. CONSEQUENCES OF PLAGUE** – economic decline, growth of pessimism in population and, among intellectuals, anti-Semitism was prevalent.
- C. DECLINE OF POPULATION** – after 1350 resulted in shortage of workers and a rise in wages, an end to serfdom in many places, guilds arose to protect merchants and artisans, trading leagues controlled international, regional trade, enclosures of fields in England forced many farmers off their land.
- D. PEASANT REVOLTS** – resulted as a consequence of higher taxes, a desire for higher wages, and hostility to nobles.
- Jacquerie in France (1358).
 - Peasants' Revolt in England (1381).
 - Revolt of poor workers in Florence (1378).
 - Worker revolts in the Low Countries, Germany, Spain, and Sicily.

THE RENAISSANCE (1300 – 1600)

- A. BEGINNINGS** – the Italian city-states of Florence, Venice, Milan, Padua, and Pisa.
- A secular movement.
 - Stressed the individual over the group – “man was the measure” of all things.
 - Developments were limited to the rich elites.
 - Announced the re-awakening or rebirth of interest in the classical past of Greece and Rome; stressed humanism and human abilities in all areas of life.
- B. CAUSES** – Rich Italian merchants had wealth to invest in pursuit of new ideas in art and learning; they became patrons of artists and writers; independent city-states were free of control and could follow their own way in artistic areas; citizens were aware of their ancient past; new ideas entered Italy from the East; princes sought justifications for their wars and conflicts in the past; legalists studied Roman laws to support their disputes with popes and emperors.
- C. LITERARY GIANTS** – included Dante (*Divine Comedy*), Petrarch (writer of sonnets), Boccaccio (*The Decameron*), and Castiglione (*The Book of the Courtier*).
- D. ART BREAKTHROUGHS** – took place in painting, sculpture, and architecture.
- Artists depicted secular themes and employed linear perspectives.
 - Sculptors celebrated the human form and non-religious subjects and copied classical models.
 - Architects copied classical styles in constructing buildings both religious and secular.
- E. LEADING RENAISSANCE ARTISTS** – included Giotto (father of Renaissance painting), Donatello (bronze *David*), Masaccio, Leonardo da Vinci (*Last Supper* and *Mona Lisa*), Raphael, Michelangelo (Sistine Chapel and *David*).
- F. LEADING RENAISSANCE SCHOLARS** – included Leonardo Bruni (first to use term the “humanism”), Lorenzo Valla (author of *Elegances of the Latin Language*), Machiavelli (author of *The Prince* and leading political analyst of his day).
- THE RENAISSANCE SPREADS**
- A. ITALY** – the ideas of the Renaissance spread northward and west to the Low Countries, Germany, France, Spain, and England.

1. Renaissance innovations in Western Europe were made in art, literature, drama, and technology.
 - a. Movable type – Gutenberg (1450).
 - b. Rabelais's *Gargantua and Pantagruel*.
 - c. El Greco's paintings.
 - d. Van Eyck, Brueghel, and Rembrandt in painting.
 - e. Drama as culminated in the works of Shakespeare.

CHRISTIAN HUMANISM

- A. THINKERS OUTSIDE ITALY** – focused on using the techniques of the Italian humanists to guide people in their behavior. They emphasized education and the power of the human intellect to bring about moral improvement.
1. Desiderius Erasmus – most notable Christian humanist; wrote “In Praise of Folly.”
 2. Thomas More – wrote *Utopia*.
 3. Jacques Lefeuere “Etables” – produced five versions of the Psalms.
 4. Francesco de Cisneros – reformed the Spanish clergy.

THE REFORMATION (1517 – 1560)

- A. RELIGION'S UNITY** – destroyed in Europe, spread to England, and resulted in a Counter Reformation on the part of the Catholic church.
- B. ABUSES IN THE CHURCH** – led some to question the church's authority in determining the individual's role vis-à-vis God.
- C. MARTIN LUTHER** – an Augustinian friar and teacher, initiated the Reformation in his native Germany.
1. Luther questioned basic teachings of the church and held that salvation was possible only through faith alone.
 2. He attacked the sale of indulgences.
 3. He argued that the Bible and not traditions or papal bulls could determine correct religious beliefs.
 4. Luther was excommunicated by the pope.
 5. Luther wrote extensively about his beliefs and translated the Bible into German.
- D. LUTHERANISM** – Luther's teachings had wide impact in Germany and Europe.
1. Peasants revolted in Germany in 1524 and were supported by Luther.
 2. Augsburg Confession of 1530 was a statement of Lutheran beliefs.
 3. Church lands were often seized in lands where Lutheranism took hold.
 4. Germany was divided into two religious camps: Catholic and Lutheran; the religion of a region would be that of the ruler of the region.
- E. OTHER REFORMERS** – included Zwingli in Switzerland, Anabaptists in Switzerland and Germany, Calvin in Geneva, Switzerland.
1. Calvinism was noted for its stern and militant stance and its rejection of most of the medieval church's practices and traditions.
- F. CHURCH AND KING BREAK IN ENGLAND** – as a result of Henry VIII's divorce of his wife and the king's declaration of his control of the church in England.
1. Edward VI adopted Calvinism.
 2. Mary restored Catholicism.
 3. Elizabeth I restored Protestant beliefs.
 4. The Church of England retained many Catholic practices, rules, and rituals. Many English remained Catholic in private.
 5. Some Protestants wanted to purify the church of all Roman Catholic elements. They came to be known as Puritans.
- G. PROTESTANTISM SPREADS**
1. Landlords and people near Dublin in Ireland became members of the Protestant church.

2. John Knox set up Calvinist-style church in Scotland.
3. Huguenots in France made inroads among the French nobility.

THE COUNTER REFORMATION

- A. EFFORTS TO REFORM THE CHURCH** – included the establishment of new religious orders such as the Society of Jesus, the work of specific popes such as Paul III, the purge of certain abuses such as the sale of church offices, and councils (the Council of Trent) that settled doctrinal issues which had come under attack by Protestants.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CATHOLICISM AND PROTESTANTISM

- A. PROTESTANTS** – stressed the role of the Bible, priesthood of all believers, a clergy that preached, and denied the efficacy of some or all of the sacraments.
- B. CATHOLICS** – retained church hierarchy, sacraments, authority of the pope, and belief in good works.
- C. LONG-TERM RESULTS OF THE REFORMATION**
1. Political rulers gained power over the church.
 2. Religious enthusiasm grew.
 3. Individualism grew.

WARS OF RELIGION (1560 – 1648)

- A. CATHOLICS AND PROTESTANTS** – fought each other in France, the Netherlands, and Germany. They were aided by the use of powerful cannons, well-organized infantry, larger armies, and mercenaries.
1. Spain vs. the Netherlands – Spain's devout ruler Philip II aimed to make Europe Catholic and led the attack on the Netherlands, ruled by Spain in the 1500s. Calvinists had sought refuge in the Netherlands after fleeing persecution in France.
 - a. Sources of Spain's power – gold and silver from the New World and the world's largest navy.
 - b. Dutch resisted Spain's attempt to assert a more centralized government on the Dutch provinces and rebelled.
 - c. Leaders – Spain's Duke of Alba executed Calvinists, imposed new taxes, and established the Inquisition. William of Orange led the Dutch.
 - d. Results of the war – two sections of the Netherlands broke up into religious factions – Union of Utrecht (Protestant) and Union of Arras (Catholic); Spain was driven out of the northern Netherlands in the 1590s but retained control of southern provinces called the Spanish Netherlands.
 2. Civil war in France – each French king was a Catholic until 1589 and the monarch was willing to work with Catholics or Calvinists as it suited him.
 - a. Nine wars took place between 1562 and 1589; the most bloody event was the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre of 1572 in which 20,000 Huguenots were killed.
 - b. Royal assassinations took place in the late 1500s and Spain intervened with troops to support Catholics in 1590.
 - c. Henry of Navarre, a Calvinist, became king in 1589. His conversion to Catholicism helped unite the country. Henry issued the Edict of Nantes in 1589 which extended religious tolerance to Huguenots.
 3. England and Spain compete for power – Mary, daughter of Henry VIII, sought to restore Catholicism in England. She married Philip II of Spain and promoted Spain's interests.
 - a. Elizabeth I, after an attempt at compromise between Catholics and Protestants, countered moves to place the Catholic Queen of Scotland, Mary, on the throne of England.
 - b. England defeated Spain's Armada in 1588 and crushed an attempt to enforce Catholicism on the nation.
 4. The Thirty Years' War – Protestants fought Catholics across Europe. In addition, Protestants fought

one another for control. Germany suffered major destruction since it was the main battleground and was weakened politically.

- a. Major battles – White Mountain (1620): Calvinist leader, Frederick, was defeated and Bohemia made Catholic; Breitenfeld (1630): Sweden defeats Hapsburgs.
- b. Ferdinand, Holy Roman Emperor, defeated Christian IV of Denmark and established a strong Hapsburg presence in northern Germany.
- c. Results of the war – Treaty of Westphalia (1648) reasserted the principles of the Peace of Augsburg and included the Calvinists; Swiss Confederacy achieved independence from Holy Roman Empire; over 300 German states obtained nearly complete independence from the Holy Roman Empire; Catholic crusade to reunite Europe failed; France entered a time of disunity; realistic political leaders came to dominate monarchies; Spain entered a period of decline.

THE GROWTH OF THE STATE AND THE AGE OF EXPLORATION

- A. NATION-STATES** – pursued different political systems: constitutionalism and absolutism in the period after the wars of religion.
1. Constitutionalism – rules limited government; consent of the governed provided the basis for the legitimacy of the regime.
 2. Absolutism – kingship is often viewed as divine.
- B. ENGLISH MONARCHS** – needed support of Parliament to levy taxes.
1. Charles I – trying to raise money for wars involved him in conflicts with Parliament.
 2. Open war between Charles and Parliament (Cavaliers vs. Roundheads) led to his execution.
 3. 1628 Petition of Right declared illegal the king's actions in raising taxes thus setting a precedent for parliamentary action.
- C. FRENCH MONARCHS** – proceeded from a France disunited and weakened by wars of religion, the rule of powerful ministers, and the attempts of nobles to control the capital to the absolutism of Louis XIV.
1. Henry IV – Duke of Sully was the strong minister who involved the state in mercantilism.
 2. Louis XIII – real power was held by Cardinal Richelieu.
 3. Louis XIV – Cardinal Mazarin ruled during Louis' minority. By 1652, Louis headed a strong, centralized government with himself at the helm.
- D. OTHER CONSTITUTIONAL STATES**
1. Holland – became a major trading nation under the guidance of the merchant class.
 2. Sweden – became a world power under Gustavus Adolphus while the government was dominated by rich and powerful groups.
- E. EXPLORATIONS AND CONQUESTS** – Europeans sought gold, silver, and spices to fuel their home economies.
1. English settled North America.
 2. Spanish settled in South America.
 3. African slaves were taken to the Americas.
 4. Explorations by Spain, Portugal, England, and France opened up the New World to colonization.
 5. English colonies in the New World.
 - a. Jamestown – 1607.
 - b. Massachusetts Bay – 1620.
 6. Dutch – New Amsterdam – 1625.
- F. SOCIETY** – underwent a change in which two groups of people lived – urban and rural.
1. Urban societies – mainly merchant and artisan and mobile.
 2. Cities grew at a rapid rate in the 1600s; London and Paris were major cities with populations over 150,000.
 3. Trade increased within Europe and specialization took hold in industries such as textiles.
 4. Governments sought to export manufactures rather than import them, thus increasing the need for colonies and world markets.

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INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

- A. HISTORICAL SETTING IN 1648** – Thirty Years War ends, Germany and Central Europe devastated, Bourbon dynasty stronger.
- B. PEACE OF WESTPHALIA (1648)** – Dutch and Swiss republics recognized. Sweden, Prussia, and France gain new territory.
- C. TREATY OF THE PYRENEES (1659)** – Spain cedes part of Spanish Netherlands to France. Louis XIV of France marries daughter of Phillip IV of Spain.
- D. WAR OF DEVOLUTION (FIRST DUTCH WAR), 1667-1668** – Louis XIV claims Spanish Netherlands after death of Phillip IV. Triple alliance formed (England, Holland, Sweden).
 1. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668) – France receives 12 towns on border, but loses Franche-Comte (Burgundy).
- E. SECOND DUTCH WAR (1672-1678)** – France invades Holland. Dutch open dikes and flood land to beat French. Peace of Nijmegen grants Holland all territory back.
- F. INVASION OF THE SPANISH NETHERLANDS (1683)** – France occupies Luxembourg and Lorraine. League of Augsburg formed in response (Holy Roman Empire, Holland, Spain, Sweden, Palatinate, Saxony, Bavaria, Savoy).
- G. WAR OF THE LEAGUE OF AUGSBURG (1688-1697)** – France battles Holland and England on Rhine, in Low Countries, and in Italy.
 1. Treaty of Ryswick (1697) – Captured territories returned, French sovereignty over Alsace and Strasbourg acknowledged.
- H. WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION (1701-1713)**
 1. The Grand Alliance – England, Holland, Holy Roman Empire, and Prussia support Charles VI and oppose Phillip of Anjou for Spanish throne.
 2. War – Battle of Blenheim prevents French from dominating Europe. French and Spanish drive Allies from Spain and place Phillip on throne.
- I. TREATY OF UTRECHT (1713)** – Spanish empire partitioned, Phillip V crowned King, Hapsburgs gain Spanish Netherlands, England gains territory in New World.
- J. WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION (1740-1748)** – Frederick the Great invades Silesia. England sides with Hapsburgs against Prussia, Bavaria, France, and Spain. Prussia retains Silesia and emerges as great power.
- K. THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756-1763)** – Austria attempts to regain Silesia with help of France and Russia. Britain sends funds to Prussia.
 1. Treaty of Paris (1763) – France loses all New World possessions to Britain, Spain cedes Florida to Britain.
- L. THE AMERICAN WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE AS A EUROPEAN WAR, 1775-1783** – France and Spain join Americans to regain territories lost to Britain.
 1. Treaty of Paris (1783) – Britain recognizes U.S. and retrocedes Florida to Spain, France gets nothing.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS

- A. TRADITIONAL ECONOMIC CONDITIONS** – Subsistence farming the norm, contagious diseases decimate towns.
- B. MERCANTILISM** – Wealth measured in commodities, increases power of government, favorable balance of trade important, colonies existed for

mother country.

- C. GROWTH OF TRADE** – Route around Africa to Asia discovered and opening of Western Hemisphere.
- D. AGRICULTURAL CHANGES** – Growth of absentee landlords and commercial farms. All-metal plows come into widespread use.
- E. IMPROVEMENTS IN TRANSPORTATION** – Canal lock invented. All-weather roads constructed.
- F. INDUSTRIAL TECHNOLOGY** – Steam engine developed and improved (1769), textile machines revolutionized industry (flying shuttle, spinning jenny, spinning frame, power loom).

SCIENCE, LEARNING, AND SOCIETY

- A. REVOLUTIONS IN SCIENCE** – astronomy and scientific methodologies experienced great advances.
 1. Copernicus – heliocentric theory of universe placed humans in a vast system.
 2. Tycho Brahe – made important observations of the heavens that swept away age-old myths of the unchanging sky.
 3. Johannes Kepler – established the concept of the elliptical orbits of the planets.
 4. Galileo – discovered four moons of Jupiter and expanded the use of the telescope; his support of scientific observations brought him into conflict with the church.
 5. Francis Bacon – formalized empiricism and advocated useful knowledge.
 6. Rene Descartes – formulated analytic geometry and believed scientific laws could be found by deductive reasoning.
- B. SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES** – Royal Observatory (Britain, 1675), Royal Society (Britain, 1662), Academie des Sciences (France, 1666), Berlin Academy of Sciences (Prussia, 1700), St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences (Russia, 1725)
- C. THE AGE OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT** – Secular view of the world; God created it then was no longer involved.
 1. Rationalists – stressed deductive reasoning or mathematical logic.
 2. Empiricists – inductive reasoning, emphasis on sensory experience.
 3. The Philosophes – teachers and journalists who popularized Enlightenment.
- D. THE “COUNTER-ENLIGHTENMENT”** – Diverse and disparate groups who opposed Enlightenment.
- E. RESULTS OF SCIENTIFIC INNOVATIONS** – experienced throughout society.
 1. Schools of mathematics and physics established in European universities.
 2. Warfare became more precise as a result of mathematical measurements.
 3. Science of medicine employed new thinking to discover workings of human body.
 4. Scientific methods employed by philosophers to develop new ideas.

BOURBON FRANCE

- A. FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV (1643-1715)**
 1. Government of France Under Louis XIV – Aristocracy kept out of government, orders transmitted to provinces by intendants, nullification of all institutions that might challenge Louis. Peasants not farming conscripted into army or workhouses. Growth of French trading companies and merchant marine.
 2. Palace of Versailles – Third of a mile long, 1400 fountains, 60% of taxes put toward upkeep of court

and attendants.

3. Louis XIV's Policies Toward Christianity – Pope has no temporal authority over French Church, Protestants persecuted, many flee to England and Holland.
- B. FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XV (1715-1774)** – Inherits throne at age five. Leaves the same problems as he inherited.
 - C. FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVI (1774-1792)** – Sought to make reforms, aristocracy refused to implement, married to M. Antoinette.

SPAIN: HAPSBURG AND BOURBON

- A. SPAIN IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY** – Continued expulsion of Moors, industry declines, Spanish navy ceased to exist by 1700.
- B. CHARLES II** – sick and timid, dies childless which leads to War of Spanish Succession.
- C. PHILLIP V (1700-1746)** – Modernizes Spanish army, industry, agriculture, and ship-building revived; his son, Ferdinand VI, rules 1746-1759.
- D. CHARLES III (1759-1788)** – Continues to enact reforms, eliminates laws that restrict internal trade. Strongly Catholic, Spanish intellectuals ignore Enlightenment.

AUSTRIAN HAPSBURG AND CENTRAL EUROPE

- A. GOVERNMENT OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE** – Consists of remnants of Holy Roman Empire, no single constitutional system for all parts.
- B. FEUDALISM IN THE HAPSBURG EMPIRE** – Lord of manor has absolute control over lives of peasants.
- C. MUSIC AND VIENNA** – Leopold I is patron of music. People from around Europe come to Vienna to compose.
- D. EMPEROR LEOPOLD I (1658-1705)** – Patron of arts, devout Catholic, drove Turkish army from Austria (1683).
- E. EMPEROR CHARLES VI (1711-1740)** – Takes throne after death of his older brother. Recognizes personal liberties of Hungarians (Treaty of Szatmar).
- F. MARIA THERESA (1740-1780)** – Increases army, centralized government of empire in Austria.
- G. JOSEPH II (1765-1790)** – Ruled with his mother for first 15 years, expanded state schools, granted religious tolerance.

PRUSSIA AND THE HOHENZOLLERNS

- A. FREDERICK WILLIAM (1640-1688)** – increases army through heavy taxation, build canal to link Elbe and Oder Rivers. Settled Huguenots on his estates.
- B. FREDERICK I (1688-1713)** – Founds several universities, encourages intellectuals as well as tradesman to settle in Prussia.
- C. FREDERICK WILLIAM I (1713-1740)** – Fourth largest army in Europe, paid off Prussia's debts, increased treasury, developed most efficient bureaucracy in Europe.
- D. FREDERICK THE GREAT (FREDERICK II: 1740-1786)** – Pondered questions of religion, morality, and power; read French poetry. First 23 years of reign spent at war, the second 23 spent rebuilding a population that had doubled in size and increased territory.

THE DUTCH REPUBLIC

- A. GOVERNMENT OF THE NETHERLANDS** – Consisted of seven provinces, each with Stadholder, na-

tional policy decided by delegates from each province.

- B. DUTCH ECONOMY** – Lacked government controls and monopolies, greatest mercantile nation in Europe, no natural resources so most income came from finishing raw goods.
- C. DUTCH ART** – Rembrandt, Van Goyen, Vermeer paint scenes of everyday life.
- D. WARS AND FOREIGN POLICY** – Peace of Westphalia (1648) ends 80 years of war between Spain and the Netherlands. Freedom from Spain brought Dutch Republic into wars with England over trading rights and colonial competition. Louis XIV's efforts to move into the Low Countries brought the Dutch into a drawn-out war with France.

ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND

- A. ENGLISH CIVIL WAR (1642-1649)** – underlying issue was whether the king could govern without the consent of parliament.
 1. Charles I (1625-1649) – Inherits English and Scottish thrones, demands money from parliament then forces loans upon wealthier citizens. Imprisons those who refuse to loan king money. Both houses of parliament oppose king.
 2. The Petition of Right (1628) – King bribed with tax grant in exchange for signing Petition of Right which stipulated that no loan or tax could be levied without parliamentary consent, no one could be imprisoned or detained without due process, and soldiers would not be billeted in homes of private citizens.
 3. The Parliament of 1629 – King seeks to force adjournment of Parliament, but his messenger is detained and several resolutions were passed; when the messenger finally arrived the king dissolved Parliament (1629-40). Some Puritan leaders were imprisoned.
 4. Religious Persecution – Church of England was only legal church under Charles I, others were harshly suppressed.
 5. National Covenant of Scotland (1638) – Covenant affirmed loyalty of people to the Crown, but declared the king could not reestablish episcopate over church. Charles orders army into Scotland.
 6. War in Scotland – The army leaves Scotland without a fight when faced with a superior force. Scottish granted right to determine constitution for themselves.
 7. The Short Parliament – King reconvenes Parliament to vote new taxes to pay for Scottish war. When presented with list of grievances, he again dissolves it.
 8. The Scots Invade – Scots invade northern counties and treaty with England leaves things exactly as they were.
 9. The Long Parliament – King summons Parliament because he had no money, no army, and no support. Trial begins against T. Wentworth, principal minister for the king, for treason against country. Charles signs the execution order fearing Parliament and mob violence.
 10. Rebellion in Ireland and the Grand Remonstrance – Irish Catholics murder Protestants. House of Commons votes funds for army, but questions over parliamentary or royal army delays action.
 11. The English Civil War Begins – Charles orders impeachment proceedings against leaders of Puritans in House of Commons. Charles arrives with 400 soldiers but is forced back to Hampton Court.
 12. The Division of the Country – North and west side with king, east and south side with Parliament. Navy and merchant marine support Parliament.
 13. The King Attacks London – King's sizable force takes Oxford, but is driven back from London.

14. Early Stages of the War – Royalist forces won early victories, but began losing ground when Scots persuaded by parliamentary forces to attack from the north. Charles defeated by O. Cromwell at Naseby and becomes fugitive. Surrenders to Scots in May 1646.
15. Controversy Between Parliament and the Army – Army ordered to disband without pay, when they refuse plan is devised to bring Scottish army to remove them. King arrested by the army as he is brought in from Scotland.
16. The Death of the King – Scots invade but are defeated by Cromwell. Charles I was tried and executed.

B. THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE PROTECTORATE (1649-1659)

1. The Commonwealth (1649-1653) – Parliament institutes a Commonwealth governed by representatives to Parliament. The people, however, were not represented.
2. Opposition to the Commonwealth – Royalists and Presbyterians were against Parliament, Army dissatisfied that elections not held. Russia imprisons English merchants, France is openly hostile, Holland allows royalist privateers to fit.
3. Ireland – Cromwell lands in Dublin and massacres Catholic/Protestant coalition at Drogheda. Roman Catholic lands confiscated to pay soldiers.
4. Scotland – Proclaims Charles II king. Scots defeated by Cromwell and army led by Charles II annihilated to almost the last man, Charles flees to France.
5. The Protectorate (1653-1659) – When elections were not held, Cromwell took troops to Parliament and dissolved it. New elections were held and Cromwell became Lord Protector. With Cromwell's death, new Parliament elected under old systems.

C. THE RESTORATION (1660-1688)

1. Charles II (1660-1685) – New Parliament restores a limited monarchy. Charles agrees to abide by decisions of Parliament.
2. The Convention Parliament (1660) – Pardons given to all but twelve participants of civil war. Royalists allowed to recover their lands in court. Feudalism abolished.
3. The Clarendon Code – Cavalier Parliament (1661) attempts to drive Puritans out. Several acts passed with severe penalties for not following codes set up by Anglican church.
4. Scotland's Independence – Scotland gains independence with return of Charles II. Charles then disregards earlier agreements and begins religious persecution of Presbyterians. In 1666, armed revolt began. Charles II dies in 1685.
5. James II (1685-1688) – Brother of Charles II. Strong Roman Catholic who sought to return England to Catholicism.

- D. THE GLORIOUS REVOLUTION OF 1688** – Parliament invites William and Mary of Holland to assume the English throne. They do so, James starts to advance on them, then flees to France. William summons free Parliament. The English Bill of Rights was passed as well as several acts providing limited religious freedom.

- E. QUEEN ANNE (1702-1714)** – Weak and ineffective ruler. Does unite England and Scotland into one kingdom.

- F. EIGHTEENTH CENTURY ENGLAND** – Monarchs now ruled as Kings-in-Parliament, which meant that support of Parliament was necessary for actions to be taken. In 1690, William lands in Ireland to put down rebellion started by James II. Scots offer throne to William and Mary in exchange for recognition as Presbyterian. James's son and grandson both attempted to incite Scottish Highlanders to rebellion and both were beaten.

SCANDINAVIA

- A. SWEDEN IN THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR** – King Gustavus Adolphus drove Imperial Forces from Pomerania (1630). Swedish troops occupied all of Bohemia, organized a new Protestant Union, and invaded Bavaria.
- B. SWEDISH EMPIRE** – Baltic and German provinces

too difficult to defend and were eventually lost.

- C. POLITICAL SITUATION** – After death of Gustavus Adolphus government ruled by oligarchy of the nobility. Brief return to absolute monarchy with Gustavus III, until his assassination (1792).
- D. SCANDINAVIAN RELATIONSHIPS** – Finland part of Swedish empire, and Norway was part of Denmark.
- E. DENMARK** – Frederick III (1648-1670) becomes absolute ruler, Frederick IV (1699-1730) fights in war with Russia against Sweden. Christian VII allows more civil liberties and economic freedoms.

RUSSIA OF THE ROMANOVS

- A. BACKGROUND TO 17TH CENTURY** – Ivan the IV (1533-1584) begins Westernizing Russia, his death preceded by power-struggles.
- B. THE ROMANOV DYNASTY** – Estates General elect M. Romanov as Czar. Annexes Ukraine (1654), Westernization continues, many Westerners brought into Russia to train Russians.
- C. PETER THE GREAT (1682-1725)** – Seven feet tall with great strength and boundless energy. Great drive to modernize Russia. Visits Europe in disguise to learn techniques and cultures. Sends many technicians and craftsman back to Russia. Treaty of Nystad with Sweden grants Russia Livonia and Estonia. Builds St. Petersburg.
- D. 18TH CENTURY RUSSIAN CZARS AFTER PETER THE GREAT** – ruled by one family member after the next from 1725-1762, until Catherine II takes over and continues to modernize Russia and annexes Crimea.

ITALY AND THE PAPACY

- A. THE PAPACY** – Church loses influence over matters of state due to growth of Enlightenment and an inability of Papal leadership to counter anti-clerical feelings.
- B. 17TH AND 18TH CENTURY ITALY**
 1. Independent Italian States – Italy consisted of numerous independent states, most controlled by foreign powers.
 2. Savoy – only state with native Italian dynasty. In 1713, awarded Sicily which it exchanged with Austria for Sardinia.

THE OTTOMAN TURKISH EMPIRE IN EUROPE

- A. TURKISH DECLINE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES** – Government finance based on spoils of war, tributes, and sales of office.
- B. MOHAMMED IV (1648-1687)** – Attempted to take Vienna, routed after arrival of Polish army.
- C. MUSTAPHA II (1695-1703)** – Loses Hungary and Transylvania to Austria.
- D. AHMED III (1703-1730)** – Gained port of Azov in Black Sea after defeating Peter the Great (1711), lost Serbia and Belgrade to Austria (1718), abdicates in face of rebellion.
- E. MAHMUD I (1730-1754)** – Russia regains Azov (1737), but Austria loses Belgrade, political governors begin to become independent of sultan.
- F. ABDUL HAMID I (1774-1789)** – Catherine the Great of Russia forces Turks to surrender Crimea, Austria retakes Belgrade (1789).

CULTURE OF THE BAROQUE AND ROCOCO

- A. AGE OF THE BAROQUE (1600-1750)** – Emphasized grandeur, spaciousness, unity, and emotional impact.
 1. Baroque Architecture – G. Bernini creates colonnade for piazza of St. Peter's Basilica, Palace at Versailles designed on symmetry and balance.
 2. Baroque Art – Peter Paul Rubens, Flemish painter.
 3. Baroque Music – A. Vivaldi, G. Handel.
- B. ROCOCO** – Emphasizes elegance, pleasantness, more sentimental than emotional. Compositions of F. J. Haydn and W. A. Mozart contain characteristics.

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THE FRENCH REVOLUTION, 1789-1814

A. INFLUENCE OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

1. The Philosophes – Voltaire, Denis Diderot, Baron de Montesquieu, and Jean Jacques Rousseau believed that knowledge should be converted into reform. They believed their task was to apply reason to society for the purpose of human improvement.
2. Assumptions of the Enlightenment – Human progress was possible by changing the environment. Humans were free to use reason to reform the evils of society. Laws governing human society would be discovered using the method of scientific inquiry. Human liberty would ensue as individuals became free to choose what reason dictated or required as good.
3. Enlightenment Effect of Society – Change or reform must be instituted when institutions cannot demonstrate a rational base of operation.
4. Era of “Enlightened Despotism” – As absolute rulers became “enlightened,” they would use their power to improve society. They opposed democracy. Examples of Enlightened Despots included Frederick the Great of Prussia (1740-1786) Catherine the Great of Russia (1762-1796) and Joseph II of Austria (1765-1790).

B. CAUSES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

1. The American Revolution – The American revolution acted as a “shining beacon” to Europeans anxious for change, and helped prove that people could govern themselves without help from monarchs. The concept of revolution was validated as a legitimate means to procure social and political change.
2. Cumulative Dissent with the Ancient Regime – The poor and middle class paid taxes, while the nobility and clergy were exempt from taxation. As the economy worsened, this burden became increasingly unbearable. The state controlled economy was assailed by businessmen and bankers. The political theories of Locke, Rousseau and Montesquieu created a climate of opposition.
3. Immediate Cause: Financial Mismanagement – France had a deepening public debt, resulting from colonial wars with England, French support of the American Revolution, maintaining a large military, and the extravagance of Versailles. As France neared bankruptcy, inflation caused prices to increase, while wages failed to adjust. Assembly of Notables refused to approve the taxation of the nobility.
4. Estates General Summoned – King Louis XVI called the ancient feudal body to approve new taxes. The Third Estate, representing bourgeoisie and lower classes, insisted on voting per capita, rather than by estate.

C. PHASES OF THE REVOLUTION

1. The National Assembly (1789-1791) – The Third Estate declared itself the National Assembly of France. King Louis XVI was forced to recognize it after defections from the First and Second Estate. Violence erupted throughout France, including the storming of the Bastille. National assembly abolishes feudalism, begins to govern France, and writes a constitution for France.
2. The Legislative Assembly (1791-1792) – Constitutional monarchy established. New radical political

- factions began to emerge, including Jacobins, Girondins and Sans-culottes. Austria and Prussia issue the Declaration of Pillnitz, with the restoration of the French monarchy as its goal. The defeat of France led to radical demands for a new Constitution.
3. The National Convention (1792-1795) – Monarchy abolished, Louis XVI was accused of treason, found guilty and executed. England and Spain joined Austria and Prussia in opposing revolution. “Reign of Terror” begins (1793-1794). Excesses of Terror resulted in the fall of Robespierre and a new constitution.
 4. The Directory (1795-1799) – The middle class was in control of government, voting and holding office was reserved for property owners. Facing opposition, the Directory ignored public opinion and election results. Military victories by General Napoleon Bonaparte overshadowed the weak and corrupt government.
 5. European Reaction – Liberals and radicals such as Immanuel Kant, Joseph Fichte, Joseph Priestly and Thomas Paine hailed the birth of liberty and freedom. Conservatives, such as Edmund Burke predicted social anarchy if the French revolutionaries succeeded.
 6. Results – The first ten years of revolution in France destroyed the old social system and replaced it with a new one based on equality, ability and the law. It laid the foundation for the modern nation-state.

D. THE ERA OF NAPOLEON, 1799-1815

1. Background of Napoleon – Napoleon pursued a military career. He associated with the Jacobins and advanced rapidly in the army when vacancies were caused by the emigration of aristocratic officers.
2. Role in Directory Government, 1795-1799 – He was made Commander of the Army after saving the Directory government from being overthrown by a Parisian Mob in 1795. In 1799, a crisis atmosphere prevailed in France. Fearing a return to monarchy, a group of conspirators decided to save the revolution by overthrowing the Directory. Napoleon was invited to furnish the armed power and his name to the takeover.
3. Consulate Period (1799-1804) Napoleon held supreme power. Features of his reform included strong central government, religious unity, balanced budgets, economic reform, and public education. The Code Napoleon stipulated equality before the law, freedom of conscience, property rights, and the abolition of serfdom.
4. Empire Period (1804-1814) – Napoleon crowned himself Emperor. Military victories gave France a large empire, with French troops in enemy capitals from Lisbon and Madrid to Berlin and Moscow. Downfall of Napoleon was the result of his inability to conquer England, economic distress caused by boycott of British goods, Peninsular war with Spain, the German War of Liberation and the Invasion of Russia. Napoleon was defeated at the Battle of Leipzig and exiled to Elba. Returned to seize power from restored French King, Louis XVIII, but defeated at Waterloo and exiled to St. Helena.
5. Results of Napoleonic Era – Consolidated revolutionary institutions. Thorough centralization of French Government. Made a lasting settlement with the Catholic church. He spread positive achieve-

ments of French Revolution to the rest of the world. Napoleon also repressed liberty, subverted republicanism, oppressed conquered peoples, and caused terrible suffering.

6. Evaluation – The Congress of Vienna stabilized the international system. Not until the unification of Germany in 1871 was the balance of power upset. Not until World War I did Europe have another general war. However, the leading statesmen at Vienna underestimated the new nationalism generated by the French Revolution.

E. POST-WAR SETTLEMENT: THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA (1814-1815)

1. Personalities – The Vienna Settlement was the work of representatives of Austria, England, Prussia and Russia. France was later included to mediate between Prussia and Russia. The “Dancing Congress” included pageantry, with parties, balls and banquets.
2. Principles of Settlement – Legitimacy meant returning power to ruling families. Compensation meant territorially rewarding states that made sacrifices to defeat Napoleon. Balance of power meant arranging the map of Europe so one state could not upset the international order.
3. Enforcement Provisions – The “Quadruple Alliance” of Russia, Prussia, Austria and England provided for concerted action to arrest any threat to peace or the balance of power.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

A. ENGLAND BEGINS THE REVOLUTION

1. Roots of Industrial Revolution – Economic growth spurred by the Commercial Revolution (1500-1700), the mechanical inventions and technological advances of the Scientific Revolution, the increase of population in Europe, and the rise of the middle class in the 19th century.
2. English Assets – A supply of cheap labor, a good supply of coal and iron, large supplies of capital, a class of inventive people, access to raw material from colonies, government support of industry, a long series of successful wars.
3. Early Progress – The revolution first occurred in the cotton and metallurgical industries. The need for coal as an energy source led to the increase of coal mining and the invention of the steam engine and locomotive. Hard surface macadam roads and the steamboat served new transportation needs. Revolutions in agriculture made it possible for fewer farmers to feed more people.

B. SPREAD OF INDUSTRIALIZATION TO EUROPE

1. Challenges to spread of industrialization – Wars on the continent retarded economic growth. Although England had a sizable lead in industrialization, other countries were able to catch up by avoiding English mistakes. However, the continent lacked the large labor supplies of England’s cities, and did not have the concentration of iron and coal.
2. Route of Industrialization – Industrialization of Europe occurred mostly in the latter half of the 19th century, and, in the southern and eastern regions, in the 20th century.

C. INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

1. New Social Classes – The Bourgeoisie was the new

aristocracy. They included the upper bourgeoisie, bankers, merchants, and industrialists and the lower bourgeoisie, small industrialists, merchants and professional men. The factory worker had no land, no home, no source of income but his job. The wage earner had no job security.

2. Social Effects of Industrialization – More people lived in cities. Workers in cities became aware of their numbers and common problems and began to unite for political action. Families ceased to be units of production and consumption, and became units of consumption alone. Women's roles began to be associated with domestic activity.
3. Evaluation – Increased production meant increased wealth. Many luxuries became commonplace, life expectancy and leisure increased. Workers, however, did not share in the dramatic increase in the standard of living until the second half of the nineteenth century.

D. IMPACT OF THOUGHT SYSTEMS ON THE EUROPEAN WORLD

1. Romanticism – A reaction against classicism, appealing to emotion rather than reason. Leading romantic writers included Keats, Goethe, Hugo. In music, romantics included Brahms, Schumann, and Chopin. Leading philosophers included Fichte and Hegel.
2. Conservatism – A reaction to liberalism, supported monarchy. Intellectuals leaders included Edmund Burke. Conservatism supported tradition, order and traditional religion.
3. Liberalism – The individual is a self-sufficient being whose liberty is the sole reason for the existence of society. The American Declaration of Independence and the French Declaration of Rights of Man are liberal documents. Leading intellectual figures included Adam Smith, Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill.
4. Nationalism – Political unity sought around an identity of nation, those who shared a common language, history and culture. Johann Gottfried Herder was a leading German nationalist philosopher.
5. Socialism – Those who favored a social mechanism to be developed for a more just distribution of wealth. Anarchism and Marxism were more extreme forms of socialism that called for revolution rather than reform.

EUROPE IN CRISIS, 1815-1833

A. POST WAR REPRESSION, 1815-1820

1. England – The conservative Tory government was in control of England. It passed the Corn Law of 1815, halting the importation of cheaper foreign grains, increasing food costs for factory workers. Suspension of habeas corpus and other repressive measure attempted to provide authorities with new powers.
2. France – Louis XVIII governed France (1814-1824) as a constitutional monarch. Royalist mobs murdered thousands of former revolutionaries during the White Terror of 1815. Louis XVIII's government made liberal activity illegal, restricting franchise to the wealthiest classes, and imposing censorship.
3. Austria and the Germanies – Metternich was one of the staunchest opponents of liberalism. Liberals were driven underground.
4. Russia – Czar Alexander I followed the reactionary model of Metternich.

B. REVOLUTIONS I (1820-1829)

1. The Concert of Europe – A new spirit of consultation and cooperation between nations in Europe. Did not last because nations could not always agree on cooperative action.
2. The Revolutions of the 1820s – Revolution in Spain opposed to King Ferdinand VII crushed by French troops. In Italy, liberal-nationalist organizations incited an uprising in Naples. Austrian forces defeated revolutionaries. In Greece, a nationalist revolution was supported by Russia, England, and France in order to weaken the Ottoman Empire. Decembrists were upper-class opponents of the succession of Nicholas to Czar of Russia. They favored his older, more liberal brother Constantine. Nicholas responded by turning Russia into a police state.
3. England Chooses Reform over Revolution – Younger conservative politicians began questioning the reactionary policies of party elders and called for moderation. Prison and legal reform were initiated. Colonies were permitted to trade with nations other than England. The Test Act, which barred religious dissenters from office, was repealed.

C. REVOLUTIONS II (1830-1833)

1. France – The July Revolution: Revolution sparked after liberals won election victories in 1830 and Charles X responded by decreeing Four Ordinances. Radicals in Paris, with workers and students raised barricades in streets, Charles X abdicated and fled France. A Constitutional monarchy was established, with control by Bourgeoisie and King Louis Phillippe.
2. The Belgian Independence Movement (1830-1831) – Inspired by France, revolt against Dutch rule broke out in Brussels led by students and workers. Dutch army was defeated. Liberal constitution written, and constitutional monarchy established.
3. Poland – Nationalist uprising challenged historic Russian domination of Poland. Russian army invaded and crushed rebellion, and Poland was declared to be a part of the Russian empire.
4. Italy – Outbreaks of liberal discontent occurred in northern Italy. The Italian revolutionaries were disorganized and easily defeated by Austrian troops under Metternich.
5. Germany – With word of France's July Revolution, German students led street demonstrations. The expression of nationalism and liberalism was crushed by Metternich's domination of the German Confederation.
6. Great Britain – Reform continued with the election of the opposition Whigs. The number of eligible voters was increased by fifty percent. "Rotten Boroughs," depopulated electoral districts, were eliminated. King William supported these reforms.
7. Evaluation – Neither the forces of revolution nor those of reaction were able to maintain the upper hand between 1789 and 1848. The polarization of Europe was becoming clear – the liberal middle class West, which advocated constitutionalism and industrial progress; and the authoritarian East, which was committed to preserving the status quo.

THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

A. CAUSES OF REVOLUTION

1. Demands More Widespread – Whole classes and nations demanded to be fully included in society. A massive tide of discontent swept across the Western World
2. New Movements – Romanticism, nationalism and liberalism influenced revolutionary movements. The absence of liberty a common complaint.
3. Economic Crises – Severe food shortages, a downturn in the commercial and industrial economy, business failures and widespread unemployment contributed to a sense of discontent. Wages were di-

minishing and the system of poor relief was becoming overburdened.

4. Middle Class Predominance – Liberals pushed for more reform and civil liberty by enlisting the working class.

B. FRANCE: THE SECOND REPUBLIC AND LOUIS NAPOLEON

1. Revolution Begins – Riots erupted in Paris in protest of the corruption of King Louis Phillippe. Workers took control of Paris, and Louis Phillippe abdicated.
2. Provisional Government – Liberal Alphonse Lamartine favored a moderate republic. His bourgeois allies had little sympathy with the poor and did not intend to pursue a social revolution.
3. Working Class Response – Demanded the Provisional government deal with unemployment and improve the lives of workers.
4. June Days – Provoked when government closed the national workshop. Workers took to streets when they felt their revolution had been nullified by the bourgeoisie. Genuine class warfare, a revolt of poverty, and a cry for the redistribution of justice. Revolt extinguished after General Cavaignac was given dictatorial powers.
5. Louis Napoleon – Installed as President of the republic. Expected to prevent any working class disorder. However, declared himself Emperor Napoleon III and France retreated from republicanism.

C. REVOLUTIONARY EUROPE

1. Italy – Italian nationalists and liberals sought to unify Italy. Italian regions revolted, with some initial success. Austrian and French troops crushed the rebellion.
2. Austria – Inspired by events in France, rebellions began. Revolutionary groups ruled Vienna, and a liberal assembly gathered to write a constitution. Their inability to govern effectively made it easier for the Hapsburgs to regain control.
3. Bohemia – Nationalist feeling among the Czechs or Bohemians had been smoldering for centuries. They demanded a constitution and autonomy within the Hapsburg Empire. An attempt to unite all Slav people was defeated because of internal divisions. In June, 1848, Prague submitted to a military occupation followed by military dictatorship after all revolutionary groups were crushed.
4. Hungary – Hungarian autonomy was declared in April, 1848 but failed to win popular support because of the tyrannical treatment of the Slavic minorities. War between Austria and Hungary was declared in October, 1848, and Hungarian armies drove within sight of Vienna. Desperate resistance from Slavic minorities forced the Hungarians to withdraw. Austria and Russia invaded and defeated Hungary.
5. Germany – Liberal and Nationalistic demonstrations in Germany were met with reaction from Prussian King Frederick William IV. The constitution excluded all but landlords and wealthy bourgeoisie from officeholding. The military services swore their allegiance to the king alone. The Frankfurt constitution was a liberal plan to unite Germany. Frederick William also wanted to unite Germany under Prussian domination. Austria opposed this plan, and continued to dominate the German "Bund."
6. Great Britain and the Victorian Compromise – The middle class and the aristocracy united to exclude the working class from power. Reforms continued, including the abolition of slavery, prohibition of labor by children under age nine, and the repeal of the Corn Laws and the old navigation acts. The working class Chartist movement failed because it was divided over the use of violence and increasing wages robbed the movement of momentum.

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REALPOLITIK AND THE TRIUMPH OF NATIONALISM

A. CAVOUR AND THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY

1. Realpolitik – Italian nationalists, led by Camillo de Cavour in Sardinia practiced the politics of realism.
2. Sardinian reforms – Cavour, Prime Minister of Sardinia (1852-1861), implemented a series of liberal reforms to modernize Sardinia.
3. Alliance with Napoleon III – If Sardinia went to war with Austria, France would provide military assistance. Austrians declared war on Sardinia in 1859. Sardinia received Lombardy. In 1860, Sardinia annexed Parma, Modena, Romagna and Tuscany, and the process of Italian unification had begun.
4. Nationalist activity in the South – Giuseppe Garibaldi and his nationalist forces, the Red Shirts, took control of Sicily and Naples. These territories fell under Sardinian influence, and the Italian peninsula was united under King Victor Emmanuel.
5. Venetia and Rome – Were incorporated into Italy in 1866 (Venetia) and 1870 (Rome) through alliances with Bismarck of Prussia.

B. BISMARCK AND THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

1. Prussia – During the period after 1815, Prussia emerged as an alternative to a Hapsburg-based Germany.
2. Otto von Bismarck – Principle advisor to King William I of Prussia. He advocated a Prussian based Germany.
3. The German Civil War – The Austrian army suffered a humiliating defeat by Prussian forces. Austria would not be part of any German state.
4. North German Confederation – Bismarck established this move toward a unified German State.
5. Franco-Prussian War – Prussian troops defeated France and occupied Paris. France ceded the territory of Alsace-Lorraine. A German empire was proclaimed in 1871.

C. INTER-EUROPEAN RELATIONS

1. The Crimean War – Russia occupied several Danubian principalities of the Ottoman Empire. The Turks demanded that Russia withdraw. The Russians failed to respond, and the Turks declared war. Britain and France joined with the Turks. The war ended when Russia agreed to acknowledge international regulation of navigation on the Danube, and renounce claims to occupied territories. The independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire was recognized.
2. The Eastern Question – A series of conflicts between the Ottoman Turks and Russia in the Balkans quickly became a conflict between Britain and Russia. Russia and Turkey signed the Peace of San Stephano, which would have resulted in Russian hegemony in the Balkans. Britain denounced this agreement.
3. The Congress of Berlin – The delegates of the major powers convened in Berlin in 1878. Britain had a series of secret arrangements to restrict Russian expansion, reaffirm the independence of Turkey, and maintain British control of the Mediterranean. Rumania, Serbia, and Montenegro were recognized as independent states. Bulgaria was established as an autonomous principality. Austria acquired Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Cyprus was transferred to Great Britain.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL MOVEMENTS

A. CAPITALISM AND THE EMERGENCE OF THE NEW LEFT (1848-1914)

1. The New Industrial Order – Urbanization increased. Increased production improved the lives of many people, but the working class was vulnerable because of the fragile nature of the industrial economy. Trade-unions and socialist political parties attempted to address the inequities of the system.
2. Marx and Scientific Socialism – The primary ideology of protest and revolution. Marx stated the history of humanity was the history of class struggle and that the process of the struggle would continue until a classless society was realized. The working class, or proletariat needed to be educated and led towards a violent revolution, and establish the dictatorship of the proletariat under Communist Party leadership.
3. Anarchists – A situation where there would be no property or authority, would be attained through enlightened individualism. Pierre Proudhon argued that anarchism would be achieved through education and without violence. Michael Bakunin stated violent, terrorist actions were necessary.
4. The Revisionist Movement – The Fabian Society in England and the Social Democratic Party in Germany were parties sympathetic to Marxism but did not advocate revolution, instead worked through democratic politics. Other revisionist parties emerged in other European countries.

B. EUROPEAN CULTURAL DEVELOPMENTS (1848-1914)

1. Charles Darwin – Published *The Origin of Species* (1859) which argued the theory of evolution.
2. Sigmund Freud – established a new approach to understanding human behavior which was known as psychoanalysis.
3. Quantum Physics and Relativity – The theories of Max Planck, Albert Einstein, and the Michelson Morley Experiment led to a new generation of scientists reexamining many of the assumptions of the past.
4. Richard Wagner – A classical composer developed an aestheticism that demanded absolute artistic integrity.
5. Impressionism and Symbolism – Monet, Manet, and Renoir were leading Impressionist painters, who no longer saw the need for actual representation in art.
6. Literature – Oscar Wilde, Thomas Mann, and James Joyce were interested in discussing themes that had great personal value and meaning.

BRITAIN AND FRANCE

A. BRITAIN

1. The Age of Palmerston – Lord Palmerston dominated British politics from 1850- 1865. In foreign affairs Palmerston was preoccupied with colonial problems, trouble in China, and British interests in the American Civil war. He expressed little interest in domestic affairs.
2. Benjamin Disraeli – Prime Minister who argued for an aggressive foreign policy, the expansion of the British Empire, and, after opposing democratic reforms, the extension of the franchise.
3. William Gladstone – First ministry (1868-1874) was

characterized by a wave of domestic legislation which reflected the movement toward democracy.

B. FRANCE – THE SECOND REPUBLIC AND THE SECOND EMPIRE

1. Louis Napoleon – Skilled politician who won support of monarchists and moderates by using the French military to protect the Pope in Rome. He initiated a policy which minimized the importance of the legislative assembly, and courted the support of the Catholic church. He drafted a new constitution which declared him Emperor Napoleon III, with a highly centralized government.
2. Liberal Empire (1860-1870) – Liberalization of Napoleon III's regime. Conditions generally improved. Public improvements were initiated, and cultural life flourished. Napoleon III was less successful in the conduct of foreign policy, culminating in the defeat of France in the Franco-Prussian War.

EASTERN EUROPE

A. IMPERIAL RUSSIA

1. Reforms of Alexander II – Fearing the transformation of society from below, Alexander II instituted a series of reforms. Serfdom was eliminated. The jury trial was initiated, and arbitrary judicial processes were abolished. These reforms did not result in substantial improvements for most Russians
2. Industrial Development – Russian industry, particularly textiles and metallurgy developed. Between 1870 and 1900, as the result of French loans, the Russian railroad network was expanded significantly. Organized labor was suppressed.
3. Czars – Alexander II was assassinated in 1881 and succeeded by Alexander III who advocated a national policy based on "Orthodoxy, Autocracy, and Nationalism." He was succeeded in 1894 by Nicholas II, the last of the Romanov Czars. His rule was ineffective, resulting in the Russian Revolution in 1917.
4. Opposition – Populists worked for an agrarian utopian order. However, they had no national base of support. Opposition to the Czarists became more focused with the emergence of the Russian Social Democrats and Russian Social Revolutionaries, Marxist groups. Lenin became leader of the Bolsheviks, a splinter of the Social Democrats.
5. Political Unrest (1904-1905) – Strikes and peasant revolts, coupled with defeats in the Russo-Japanese war resulted in a lack of confidence in the government. Nicholas II summoned the Duma, or assembly of state. He extended civil liberties. The Duma was paralyzed by internal factions, and by 1907, Nicholas II regained control of the government.

B. THE HAPSBURGS IN DECLINE: AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

1. Difficulties – German nationalism, the rise of national aspirations of ethnic Balkan groups, and managing an empire which was not integrated because of historical tradition and cultural diversification confronted the Austrian empire after 1848.
2. Ausgleich – A compromise which transformed Austria into the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Austria became a secondary power to Germany in Central Europe.
3. Cultural Revival – Scholars (Sigmund Freud, Carol Menger, and Heinrich Friedjung), painters (Hans Markart and Adalvert Stiflor), dramatists, and writers

(Stefan Zweig and Rilke) were renowned throughout the world.

C. BALKAN STATES AND THE DISINTEGRATION OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

1. Decline of Empire – Internal structure, the ineptitude of its leaders, the lack of cohesion within the empire, the development of nationalist ambitions among ethnic groups in the region, and the expansionist policies of Austria-Hungary, Russia and Great Britain contributed to the decline of the empire between 1848 and 1914.
2. New Nations – By 1914, Rumania, Serbia, Bulgaria and Montenegro had been established as independent states.

THE NEW IMPERIALISM

A. MOTIVES FOR THE NEW IMPERIALISM

1. Economic Motivations – Industrial economies were producing more than they could consume. Excess capital was available for foreign investment, and the need for raw materials served as an economic stimulant for imperialism.
2. Religious Motivations – Missionary societies sought government protection in extending Christianity throughout the world.
3. Political Motivations – Politicians were interested in asserting their power overseas.

B. THE SCRAMBLE FOR COLONIES

1. Africa – Britain, France, Germany, Portugal, Belgium, Spain, and Italy established colonies throughout Africa. Britain was the most active and successful.
2. The Boer War – The discovery of gold in the Transvaal, a settlement of Dutch Boers, led to a conflict between Britain and the Boers. Britain prevailed, and by 1909, had established the Union of South Africa.
3. The Pacific – During the 1880s and 1890s, naval ships required coaling stations. Germany and the United States were the most active states in the region.
4. Open Door Policy – Recognized the independence and integrity of China and provided economic access for all powers.

THE AGE OF BISMARCK, 1871-1890

A. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

1. Otto von Bismarck – Dominated European diplomacy and established an integrated political and economic structure for a new German state.
2. German Constitution – Emperor would be executor of state and establish domestic and foreign policies. A bicameral legislature was established. The Reichstag, a lower body, represented the nation, and the Bundesrat, an upper body, represented the various German states. The Bundesrat was reactionary, and checked any populism of the Reichstag.

B. EUROPEAN DIPLOMACY

1. Dual Alliance (1879) – A “hard” diplomatic alliance, with specific military commitments between Germany and Austria-Hungary.
2. Triple Alliance (1881) – A “hard” alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy.
3. Reinsurance Treaty (1887) – A “hard” alliance between German and Russia.
4. Results of Bismarck’s Diplomacy – France was diplomatically isolated on the continent. Germany neu-

tralized Great Britain by supporting most of its interests.

5. Wilhelm II – Came to power in 1888 and sought to run the government personally. He found himself in conflict with Bismarck, and had him dismissed.

THE MOVEMENT TOWARD DEMOCRACY IN WESTERN EUROPE TO 1914

A. GREAT BRITAIN

1. Reform in Great Britain – Efforts went beyond the extension of the franchise and involved social and economic reforms.
2. Fabian Society (1883) – A revisionist Marxist group which argued for evolutionary political transformation into full political democracy and economic socialism.
3. Parliament Act of 1911 – Eliminated the powers of the House of Lords. Life span of Parliament was reduced from seven to five years.

B. THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC

1. Paris Commune (1870-1871) – Radicals seized control of Paris and refused to recognize the authority of the National Assembly. Fought troops of the National Assembly. Thousands died, and when Paris surrendered, there were thousands of executions.
2. Challenges to the Third Republic – The Boulanger Crisis (1887-1889), the Panama Scandal (1894), and the Dreyfus Affair (1894-1906) were serious domestic problems. In all cases, the challenges came from the right. The Third Republic was able to survive these crises because of the able leadership of the government and the commitment of the bourgeoisie to republicanism.

C. THE LESSER STATES OF WESTERN, NORTHERN, AND SOUTHERN EUROPE

1. Belgium – Leopold I (1865-1909) and Albert I (1909-1934) extended the franchise and introduced social and economic reforms.
2. Denmark – After a struggle between the old guard, represented by Christian IX who opposed parliamentary government, and the Social Democrats who advocated democratic principles, The Danish Constitution of 1915 provided a basic democratic political system.
3. Sweden – Recognized the independence of Norway in 1905; Norway moved quickly toward democracy, granting women the vote in 1913. Sweden, under Gustavus V, pronounced a comprehensive democratic system in 1909.
4. Southern Europe – There was little progress toward democracy in Spain, Portugal or Italy. These countries had parliamentary monarchies until after World War II.

INTERNATIONAL POLITICS AND THE COMING OF WAR, 1890-1914

A. THE POLARIZATION OF EUROPE

1. Dual Entente – When Germany failed to renew its Reinsurance Treaty with Russia in 1891, Russia entered a comprehensive military alliance with France in 1894.
2. Great Britain – Unable to achieve an alliance with Germany, Britain made alliances with Japan (1902), France (1904) and Russia (1907).
3. Triple Entente – By 1907, Britain France, and Russia entered into alliance. In terms of military power and economics, Germany became isolated by 1907.

B. THE RISE OF MILITARISM

1. Diplomatic Failures – The apparent inability of diplomats to develop lasting settlements supported the perception that the use of military power was desirable to bring about a resolution to the increasingly hostile political conditions in Europe.

2. Schlieffen Plan – By 1905, The German military developed a plan to conduct a war on two fronts with France and Russia. France would have to be defeated quickly through the use of enveloping tactics involving 1.5 million men.

3. Plan XVII – France expected a German attack would be concentrated in the region of Alsace-Lorraine and that French forces should be massed in that area.

4. The Arms Race – Nationalistic militarism manifested itself through a continuing arms race, including the development of new and improved weapons. Britain and Germany spent vast sums of money to build large navies.

C. IMPERIALISM AS A SOURCE OF CONFLICT

1. Fashoda Crisis (1898-1899) – France and Britain staged a standoff over Fashoda at the headwaters of the Nile. While France withdrew its troops for several months, a major war was contemplated over the issue.
2. Moroccan Crisis (1905-1906) – Wilhelm of Germany made a speech in Tangier supporting the independence of Morocco. This position was at odds with the position agreed to by Britain and France. No European nation, except Austria, supported Germany, and its diplomatic isolation became evident.
3. Balkan Crisis (1908) – Austria and Russia conflicted over Austria’s annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. However, the Russians disengaged because they were unprepared for a major war with Austria.
4. Agadir Crisis (1911) – France announced its troops would be sent to Morocco to restore order. Germany sent a naval ship. After exchanging threats for several weeks, Germany recognized French control of Morocco in exchange for the transfer of two sections of the French Congo to Germany.

ORIGINS OF WORLD WAR I

A. IMMEDIATE CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I

1. Balkan Crisis – Part of the rapidly decaying Ottoman (Turkish) Empire, saw two forces, ethnic nationalism and competition between Austria-Hungary and Russia over influence in the region, complicate an already unstable region.
2. Assassination and Reprisals – On June 28, 1914, Serbian nationalist Gavrilo Princip assassinated Archduke Franz Ferdinand. Germany gave Austria a blank check to take whatever steps necessary to punish Serbia. Russia informed Germany and Austria that it intended to back Serbia in the dispute. Austria went to war against Serbia on July 28. Russia declared full mobilization on July 30.
3. War Begins – German declared war on Russia on August 1, 1914. Germany declared war on France on August 3. Belgium refused Germany permission to send its troops through its territory to attack France. England and Belgium declared war on Germany on August 4. The alliance of the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey) faced the Allied powers of England, France, Russia, Japan, and in 1917, the United States.

B. THE WAR IN 1914

1. The Western Front – Germany attacked France on five fronts in an effort to encircle Paris rapidly. France was defeated in the Battle of the Frontier. However, the Germans had to transfer important forces eastward to halt a Russian attack. The French army counterattacked. They stopped the German drive and created a battle front that would determine the demarcation of the Western Front for the next four years.
2. The Eastern Front – Russian forces invaded East Prussia and Galicia. With only 9 of 87 divisions in the east, the German defense faltered.

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WORLD WAR I

A. THE WAR IN 1915

1. The Western Front – With Germany concentrating on the East, France and England launched a series of small attacks that resulted in a few gains and extremely heavy casualties. Italy joined the Allies and declared war on May 23.
2. The Eastern Front – Austro-German forces began an offensive in Russia and the Carpathians. The assault was stopped. Russian forces drove deeper into the Carpathians. Germans began a counteroffensive, and by August 1915, much of Russian Poland was in German hands.
3. The Eastern Mediterranean – Turkey entered the war, and prevented the shipment of Anglo-French aid to Russia through the straits.
4. The Middle East – To protect petroleum interests in the Persian Gulf, Anglo-Indian forces fought Turkey in Iraq.

B. THE WAR IN 1916

1. The Western Front – The Germans attacked the French fortress town of Verdun. They suffered 281,000 casualties while the French lost 315,000 in successfully defending their position. Anglo-French forces attacked the Germans at the Battle of the Somme, taking some pressures off the French at Verdun but at a cost of 600,000 casualties.
2. The Eastern Front – Russia advanced into Galicia and the Carpathians. Enemy casualties were 1.5 million, while the Russians lost 500,000.
3. Peace Talks – The central powers offered four separate peace proposals, but the Allies rejected them, feeling them insincere.
4. War on the High Seas, 1914-1916 – By 1914, Allied fleets controlled the high seas, and Germany lost control of its colonial empire. Germany began to use the submarine to weaken the British. The main naval engagement was The Battle of Jutland in 1916, which contained the German high fleet in port for the rest of the war.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917

A. RUSSIA AT WAR – THE HOME FRONT, 1914-1917

1. The Military – A draft increased Russia's armed forces from 1,350,000 forces to 6,500,000 during the war, though Russia was able to equip only a small percentage of the troops.
2. The Civilian Economy – Because of growing labor shortages, production of foodstuffs fell by one-third.
3. The Government and the Bureaucracy – Those in government who appeared critical of the Tsar's policies were dismissed, and in time the government lost its most effective leaders.

B. THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION

1. Riots and Strikes – Growing discontent with the government's handling of the war saw a new wave of civilian unrest engulf the country.
2. The Duma – Duma leaders began to demand drastic solutions to the country's problems. A civil war began, and on March 15, 1917, the Tsar abdicated. He turned the throne over to his brother, the Grand Duke Michael, who gave it up the following day.
3. The Provisional Government in Power (March-November, 1917) – Made up of middle class and intellectual leaders, it had little contact or sympathy with workers or peasants. Its leaders felt the government had to remain a loyal ally to maintain its credibility.

C. LENIN AND JULY DAYS

1. Lenin Returns to Russia – A committed Marxist, Lenin formed his "Bolshevik" faction of the Social Democratic Party in 1903. He spent much of the period between

1905 and 1917 in exile. Aided by the Germans, he returned to Russia in April, 1917.

2. The April Theses – The war should become a revolution against capitalism, he concluded, with all soldiers on both sides joining the struggles.
3. The July Crisis – Russia mounted an offensive to counter French military failures and mutinies on the Western Front. After some initial success, the Austro-German troops pushed the Russians back. The retreat turned to panic and desertions became rampant.
4. 500,000 soldiers and workers mounted a spontaneous protest against the Provisional Government. They demanded that the Petrograd Soviet take power. The Soviet leaders refused, and on July 18, troops loyal to the provisional government put the demonstrations down.

D. THE BOLSHEVIK OCTOBER REVOLUTION

1. The Provisional Government – Leaders could not rebuild support for the Provisional Government. Lenin and Leon Trotsky were convinced to seize power.
2. Lenin's Decision to Seize Power – Lenin returned from Finland on October 23-24 to meet with the Party's Central Committees to plan a coup. Though he met with resistance, a Political Bureau (Politburo) was created to oversee the revolution.
3. The Coup of November 6-7 – Lenin and Trotsky ordered their supporters to seize the city's transportation and communication centers. The Winter Palace was captured that evening.
4. The II Congress of Soviets – The II Congress opened on November 7. Over half the delegates were Bolshevik supporters. Many moderate socialists walked out, leaving Lenin and the Bolsheviks in control of the meeting. It called for immediate peace with Germany without any consideration of indemnities or annexations. It also abolished private land ownership and decreed a peasant could have only as much land as he could farm.
5. The Constituent Assembly – A democratically elected assembly, it presented problems for Lenin because the Bolsheviks could not win a majority. When it convened on January 18 in the Tauride Palace, the building was surrounded by Red Guards and others. It adjourned until the next day. When the delegates returned to the Tauride Palaces they found it surrounded by troops, who announced that the Constituent Assembly was dissolved.

WORLD WAR I – THE FINAL PHASE, 1917-1918

A. THE WESTERN FRONT, 1917

1. The French Offensive – French offensive failed, and as a result, a series of mutinies broke out in the French army that forced the replacement of Nivelle for Marshal Henri Petain, who restored order.
2. The British Offensive – To shore up the French, the British began a series of attacks in Flanders. It succeeded in capturing the Passchendaeles Ridge and seriously damaged the strength of the German 4th Army. The British suffered heavy losses.
3. The Italian Front and the Battle of Caporetto – A Central Power campaign began at Caporetto, which resulted in an Italian retreat and the capture of 250,000 Italians. The loss convinced the Allies of the need to form a Supreme War Council at Versailles to enhance Allied cooperation.

B. THE MIDDLE AND NEAR EAST, 1917

1. Mesopotamia – The British retook Al Kut and captured Baghdad.
2. Palestine – After two unsuccessful attempts, the British took Gaza. They were then able to take Jerusalem.

C. THE US ENTERS THE WAR

1. American Neutrality – Woodrow Wilson issued a

declaration of neutrality four days after war broke out in 1914, and offered to work to settle differences between both sides.

2. Germany and Submarine Warfare – The failures of peace initiatives resulted in unlimited German submarine warfare in the Atlantic in 1917, risking the US' entrance into the war.
3. The Zimmerman Telegram – British intelligence published the Zimmerman Telegram, with which Germany sought an alliance with Mexico to seize the American Southwest if the US entered the War. It convinced the President and American public opinion to enter the war.

D. RUSSIA LEAVES THE WAR

1. Armistice at Brest-Litovsk – Germany and the Soviet government signed an armistice as a prelude to peace discussion.
2. Trotsky and Initial Peace Negotiations with Germany – Trotsky was surprised when Germany demanded Poland, Lithuania and Kurland. He returned for consultation with Moscow.
3. Soviet Differences over Peace Terms – With deep dissension, the Soviet leadership elected to continue the conflict as a revolutionary war to spread Bolshevism.
4. Negotiations Resume – Trotsky attempted to stall at peace talks. The Germans responded with broad attacks all across the Eastern Front that met with little Soviet Opposition.
5. The Soviet Response and the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk – Lenin barely convinced Party leaders to accept Germany's earlier offer. Berlin responded with harsher terms, which the Soviets reluctantly accepted. Russia lost its Baltic provinces, the Ukraine, Finland, Byelorussia and part of Transcaucasia.

E. THE ALLIED BREAKTHROUGH

1. The German Offensive of 1918 – After defeating Russia, the German High Command decided to launch an all out offensive against the Allies in France to win the war. The Germans came within 37 miles of Paris. However, the increasing number of American troops began to turn the war against Germany.
2. The Allied Offensive of 1918 – Allied drives succeeded in taking Hindenburg line. Germany was advised to begin seeking a peace settlement. Italy forced Vienna to sign terms on November 3.
3. The Armistice with Germany – Germany asked for an Armistice based on Wilson's "Fourteen Points." The Allies hesitatingly agreed and the war ended on the Western Front on November 11.

THE PARIS PEACE CONFERENCE

A. CONDITIONS AT THE END OF THE WAR

1. War Losses and Their Impact on the Peace Conference – The general mood of victorious Europe's population wanted the Central power severely punished for the devastation of the war.
2. Woodrow Wilson and the Fourteen Points – Wilson promoted his Fourteen Points as the basis for the peace settlement. Among other provisions, they called for open covenants of peace, and the establishment of a League of Nations.
3. Secret Allied Agreements Concluded During World War I – Secret arrangements used during the war to encourage countries to join the Allies complicated peace negotiations.

B. THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

1. League of Nations – Any country that ratified the treaty in turn accepted the League of Nations Covenant in the first article.
2. War Guilt – The treaty's war guilt statement was the justification for its harsh penalties against Germany.
3. Territorial Losses for Germany – Germany had to return Alsace and Lorraine to France and Eupen-Malmedy to Belgium. France got Germany's Saar

coal mines as reparations. Poland got a number of German provinces and Danzig, now a free city, as its outlet to the sea.

4. Foreign Losses – Germany lost its African and Asian colonies.
5. Military Reduction Clause – The German Army was limited to 100,000 men and officers. The Navy lost its submarines and most offensive naval forces and was limited to 15,000 men. Aircraft and blimps were outlawed.
6. Reparations – Germany's war debt to the Allies was calculated at \$31.4 billion, to be paid over an extended period of time.
7. German Reluctance to Sign the Treaty – Claiming the treaty violated the spirit of Wilson's Fourteen Points, the Germans refused to sign. After some minor changes, the Allies threatened an advance into Germany if Germany refused to sign. The treaty was signed on June 28, 1919 at Versailles.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS IN POST-WAR EUROPE

A. ENGLAND

1. David Lloyd George and the Election of 1918 – The Representation of the People Act gave women over 30 the right to vote. Holding the first parliamentary elections since 1910, the Conservative coalition and Lloyd George won a landslide victory.
2. The Economy – England enjoyed an economic boom fueled by government policies and economic production based on pre-war conditions. Unfortunately, government retrenchment, blended with tax increases and over production resulted in a severe recession by the end of 1921.
3. The Irish Question – Sinn Fein declared Irish independence in Dublin, which prompted a civil war between the Irish Republican Army and the Black and Tan, England's special occupation forces. In 1921, London created the Irish Free State, from which Ulster withdrew as a part of the British Commonwealth.

B. FRANCE

1. The Bloc National, 1919-1924 – A new moderate-conservative coalition ruled France.
2. Economic Policy and Reparations – France had borrowed heavily during the war and spent great sums to rebuild its economy. It relied on German reparations to fund these costs. Conflict over reparation payments caused friction with Germany. Declaring Germany in default, France occupied the Ruhr. The occupation cost more than it gained in terms of reparations, and France had to raise taxes 20% to cover the cost of the occupation.
3. The Cartel des Gauches, 1924-1926 – Tax increases help to defeat the Bloc National. The Cartel des Gauches was a radical-socialist coalition.
4. The Union Nationale, 1926-1928 – The fall of the franc caused a political crisis so severe that the country had six cabinets over nine months. Drastic measures restored the franc, but political and psychological scars left by the crisis would haunt France for two more decades.

C. WEIMAR GERMANY, 1918-1929

1. Provisional Government – The Provisional Government was beset by divisions within and threats of revolution throughout Germany. Elections for a National Constituent Assembly gave no party a clear majority. A coalition promulgated a new constitution, the Weimar Constitution.
2. Problems of the Weimar Republic, 1919-1920 – The forced acceptance of the Versailles Treaty undermined its prestige. Germany had to borrow heavily to pay its war debt, resulting in a severe inflationary spiral.
3. The Politics of Gustav Stresemann – The dominant figure in German politics between 1923 and 1929, he believed that Germany must adhere to the terms of the Versailles settlement.
4. Weimar Politics, 1924-1928 – In 1925, a coalition of Con-

servative parties was able to get its candidate, war hero Paul von Hindenburg, elected in a narrow victory over a Centrist coalition and the Communists. Hindenburg vowed to uphold the Weimar constitution.

D. ITALY

1. Italian Politics 1918-1919 – No strong majority coalition emerged in this or the Parliament elected May 1921 that was able to deal effectively with the country's numerous problems.
2. Government of Giovanni Giolitti (1920-1921) – Italy's premier followed of policy of resolving Italy's international conflicts and staying aloof from its domestic conflicts.
3. Benito Mussolini and Italian Fascism – Socialist strikes and unrest enabled Mussolini to convince Italians that he alone could bring stability and prosperity. Fascists controlled the streets of northern Italy through violence. In 1922, Fascists seized control of Bologna and Milan. Fascists began to take over other cities. On October 29, King Victor Emmanuel III asked Mussolini to form a new government.
4. Mussolini's Consolidation of Power – A coalition government granted Mussolini near dictatorial powers for nine years. In violent elections in 1924, Fascists gained 60% of the vote.

E. SOVIET RUSSIA

1. The Russian Civil War – "White" Russians, opposed to Lenin fought the Red Army. Weakened by lack of a unified command and strategy, White efforts collapsed. In 1920, the Polish government sought to take advantage of the Civil War to retake territory lost to Russia.
2. Domestic Policy and Upheaval, 1918-1921 – To provide more food to Russia's cities, the government implemented a policy of forced grain seizures and nationalization of major industries. The amount of land under cultivation and total grain production dropped between 1918-1921.
3. Death of Lenin and the Struggle for Power (1924-1925) – Lenin died from a series of strokes in 1924. He feared Josef Stalin, but had not been able to remove him from power. Stalin fought Trotsky for control of the party. Stalin supported "Socialism in one country," while Trotsky supported a doctrine of permanent revolution. Stalin won the struggles.
4. Foreign Policy 1918-1929 – Adoption of the New Economic Plan required more integration with the outside world. Soviet diplomatic interests conflicted with the Comintern, a body that sought to coordinate revolutionary activities of communist parties abroad.

EUROPE IN CRISIS – DEPRESSION AND DICTATORSHIP, 1929-1935

A. ENGLAND

1. Depression – Unemployment reached over 25% of the labor force by 1932.
2. Economic Policies – The British government abandoned the gold standard on September 21, 1931, and adopted a series of high tariffs on imports.

B. FRANCE

1. The Economy – The Depression did not hit France until 1931, and it took four years to begin to recover from it.
2. Rise of Political Extremists – The government's inability to deal with economic and political problems saw the emergence of radical groups from across the political spectrum.

C. GERMANY

1. Germany and the Depression – The Depression had a dramatic effect on Germany. National income dropped 20% while unemployment rose to 43%.
2. The Rise of Adolf Hitler and Nazism – In 1923, the Nazi Party, which had 55,000 members tried to seize power, first by a march on Berlin, and then, when this seemed impossible, on Munich. The march was stopped by police, and Hitler and his supporters were arrested. Hitler used the trial to voice Nazi ideology, which gave him a national reputation.
3. The Nazi Movement, 1924-1929 – Hitler decided to seek power through legitimate channels.
4. Hitler Becomes Chancellor – Nazi success in the Reichstag elections of 1932 led to the appointment of Hitler as Chancellor.

5. Nazification of Germany – Hitler dissolved the Reichstag and called for new elections. He initiated a violent anti-communist campaign. He placed political opponents in concentration camps. The German state was placed under the authority of the Nazi Party.
6. Hitler Consolidates Power – A violent purge coordinated by the Gestapo and the SS eliminated many of Hitler's opponents.
7. Religion and Anti-Semitism – A state Protestant church was created in 1934. Nazis severely restricted Catholic religious practice. Anti-Semitism was a constant theme of the Nazis. Non-Aryans were forbidden to work in the civil service. The Nuremberg laws of 1935 deprived Jews of German citizenship and outlawed marital or sexual relations between Jews and other Germans, thus isolating them from mainstream German Society.

D. ITALY

1. Fascist Economic Reforms – Increased economic well-being and growth were the promised results of Mussolini's restructuring of the economic system.
2. Church and State – Italy recognized the Vatican as an independent state, with the Pope as its head, while the papacy recognized Italian independence. Catholicism was made the official religion of Italy.
3. Foreign Policy – Driven by a strong patriotic desire and to create an empire to thwart domestic concerns, Mussolini invaded Ethiopia.

E. SOVIET RUSSIA

1. Collectivization of Soviet Agriculture – At the end of 1927, Stalin, concerned over problems of the grain supply, ordered the consolidation of the country's 25 million small farms into state-run collective farms. Peasant resistance, including destroying livestock, resulted in 14.5 million deaths.
2. Industrialization – Stalin hoped to achieve industrial parity with the West in a decade. Labor unions lost their autonomy and workers, including impressed peasants, were forced to work at locations and under conditions determined by the state.
3. Party Politics and the Origin of Purges – Soviet leader initiated one of the country's periodic purges of the Party. 70% of the 1934 Central committee and a large percentage of the upper military ranks were purged. Stalin sent between 8 and 9 million to camps and prisons, causing untold deaths, before purges ended in 1938.
4. Foreign Policy – The period from 1929 to 1933 saw the USSR retreat inward as the bulk of its energies were put into domestic growth. In 1934, concerned about Hitler and Japanese aggression, Russia joined the League of Nations.

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS, 1918-1935

A. THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

1. The Preamble of the League's Covenant – This statement defined the League's purposes, which were to work for international friendship, peace, and security.
2. Organization of the League of Nations – The League could recommend action to member states. It had the right to seek ways to reduce arms strength, and it had the authority to search for means to stop war.

B. IMPORTANT INTERNATIONAL TREATIES

1. The Locarno Pact (1925) – Germany would accept its Western Boundaries in return for early Allied withdrawal. Germany entered the League of Nations.
2. The Kellogg-Briand Pact – Fifteen nations signed this pact in 1928 which renounced war as a means of solving differences and as a tool of international policy. There was no enforcement of this treaty.

C. LEAGUE AND ALLIED RESPONSE TO AGGRESSION

1. The League's Lytton Report and Manchuria – Japan began the gradual conquest of Manchuria in 1931. The Lytton report recommend a negotiated settlement. Japan resigned from the League in 1933.
2. The Stresa Front – England, France and Italy condemned Germany's plan to rearm and introduce conscription.
3. Italy and Ethiopia – The League declared Italy the aggressor, but economic sanctions were ineffective.

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EUROPEAN STATES, 1936-1939

A. THE AUTHORITARIAN STATES

1. The Soviet Union – By the late 1930s the USSR presented two images to the world: one a regime of absolute dictatorship and repression and the other of undeniable economic progress during a period of world depression.
2. Nazi Germany – By the beginning of World War II Germany had been transformed into a disciplined war machine ready to follow the Fuhrer anywhere, and with all dissent stifled.
3. Fascist Italy – Emphasis on foreign adventures and propaganda concerning a new Roman Empire were used to maintain a regime of force and brutality.
4. Other Authoritarian Regimes – Military regimes or governments on the fascist model were established throughout Europe. Poland and Greece were military dictatorships by 1939. Yugoslavia, Rumania, and Bulgaria were ruled by authoritarian monarchies. Spain was a fascist dictatorship under Franco. Austria was a clerical-fascist regime until it was annexed by Germany, and in Portugal, Salazar ruled as dictator.

B. THE DEMOCRACIES

1. Great Britain – The Conservative government dealt with the problem of German and Italian aggression by a policy of appeasement.
2. France – A left-wing coalition government, the Popular Front lasted just over a year (1936). Antisemitism contributed to the rise of a conservative government, which collaborated with Britain in a policy of appeasement.
3. Other Democratic States – Czechoslovakia was the only democratic state in Eastern Europe. Switzerland maintained a precarious neutrality throughout the 1930s and World War II. Sweden also maintained its democratic existence by a firm policy of neutrality.

C. CULTURE IN THE LATE 1930S:

1. Engagement – Uncertainty and fragmentation pervaded European thought and arts. Some intellectuals, such as Arthur Koestler, Ernst Cassirer and Erich Fromm, became “engaged” in resistance to Fascism and Nazism.
2. Existentialism – The philosophy that best exemplified European feelings in the era of the World Wars, which sought to come to grips with life’s central experiences and the trauma of war, death, and evil.

D. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS – THE ROAD TO WAR

1. Dissatisfaction with Versailles Treaty – Germany, Italy, Japan and the USSR were not satisfied with the peace settlement of 1919. They used force to achieve change.
2. Stalin and Hitler Sign Treaty – After evidence of Anglo-French weakness, Stalin entered into an agreement with Hitler in 1939. This event heightened suspicion of Soviet motives.
3. Appeasement – Based on a desire to remove causes of discontent inherent in the Versailles settlement and thus create conditions where peace could be maintained.

E. THE COURSE OF EVENTS

1. Occupation of the Rhineland – An area demilitarized by the Versailles Treaty. Neither France nor Britain was willing to oppose these moves.
2. The Spanish Civil War (1936-1939) – Right wing generals under General Franco led a military revolt against the elected republican government. The democracies followed a course of neutrality. Germany and Italy aided the fascist forces of Franco. The USSR aided the anti-fascists. Franco’s fascist forces won by 1939.
3. The Anschluss – German troops annexed Austria. Britain and France took no effective action.
4. Eastern Europe – Hitler annexed Czechoslovakia and Memel in Lithuania in 1939. Italy seized Albania.

5. War Preparations – Disillusioned by these aggressive actions, Britain and France made military preparations. Germany and the USSR made an agreement to divide Poland, and the USSR agreed to remain neutral in any conflict between German and Britain or France.

WORLD WAR II

A. THE FALL OF FRANCE

1. The Polish Campaign – The German attack overwhelmed the poorly equipped Polish Army. The Russian army also attacked Poland. Germany captured the Western half of Poland, while the USSR occupied eastern Poland.
2. The Winter War Between Russia and Finland – The Soviet Union attacked Finland. The Finns resisted, but were defeated by superior Russian forces.
3. The German Attack on Denmark and Norway – Denmark and Norway were simultaneously attacked.
4. The Battle of France – On May 10, 1940, the main German offensive was launched against France. Surprised by an attack through the Ardennes Forest, the British were just able to evacuate their troops, along with some French troops through Dunkirk.
5. Churchill becomes Prime Minister – A government was formed under Winston Churchill, whose warning of German danger and the need for British rearmament all during the 1930s made him Chamberlain’s logical successor.
6. France Makes Peace – Paris fell to the Germans in mid-June. Hitler’s forces occupied the northern part of France. A French capitul was established at Vichy and followed a policy of collaboration with their former enemies.

B. FROM THE FRENCH DEFEAT TO THE INVASION OF RUSSIA

1. Germany’s “New Order” in Europe – Jews were forced into slave labor for the German war effort, and increasingly large number were sent to concentration camps where they were systematically murdered.
2. The Battle of Britain – Hitler began preparations for invading Britain (Operation “Sea Lion”). The German Air Force began its air offensive against the British in the summer of 1940. The Germans were eventually defeated.
3. Involvement of the United States – The Churchill government worked actively to gain help from the United States.
4. Germany Turns East – During the winter of 1940-1941, having given up Operation Sea Lion, Hitler began to shift his forces to the east for an invasion of Russia (Operation “Barbarossa”).
5. The Balkan Campaign – Rumania, Bulgaria and Hungary became German allies, accepting occupation by German forces. Germany invaded and conquered Yugoslavia and Greece.
6. Barbarossa: The Attack on Russia – The German invasion of Russia began June 22, 1941. In the first season of fighting, the Germans seized White Russia and most of the Ukraine. During the winter a Russian counterattack pushed the Germans back from Moscow and saved the capitol.

C. THE UNITED STATES ENTERS THE WAR

1. The Far Eastern Crisis – With the coming of the Great Depression and severe economic difficulties, Japanese militarists gained more influence over the civilian government.
2. Expansion in Asia – Japan began a policy of empire building on the Asian mainland. The Japanese occupied all of Manchuria, and began a full scale war with China.
3. Alliance with Germany and Italy – Japan’s policy of friendship with Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy was consolidated with the signing of a formal alliance in

September 1940.

4. Tensions with the United States – The US viewed Japanese aggression with disfavor, and failed to renew a trade treaty with Japan and scrap metals and oil were embargoed by the American government.
5. Pearl Harbor – Japan launched a surprise attack on December 7, 1941. The United States was caught off guard and suffered a disastrous defeat, although not as complete as the Japanese planned. The United States entered the war in the Pacific. German and Italian declarations of war meant the total involvement in World War II.

D. THE TURNING OF THE TIDE

1. The Second German Offensive in Russia– Stalingrad – German forces launched a second offensive in the summer of 1942. This attack concentrated on the southern part of the front, aiming at the Caucasus and oilfields around the Caspian sea. The Germans were stopped at Stalingrad. From then on, the Russians were on the offensive.
2. The North African Campaigns – British and American troops, through a series of campaigns, forced German troops into northern Tunisia and then forced them to surrender in May 1943, about the same time as Stalingrad.
3. Winning the Battle of the Atlantic – Relatively safe shipping routes across the Atlantic were essential to British survival. A long, drawn out battle against German submarines resulted in securing these routes by 1943.

E. ALLIED VICTORY

1. The Second Front in Normandy – The Normandy invasion (Operation “Overlord”) was the largest amphibious operation in history. The first day, 130,000 men were successfully landed. By 1944, all of France had been seized. A second invasion freed southern France, and by the end of 1944 the Allied armies stood on the border of Germany ready to invade.
2. The Eastern Front – Russian successes brought their forces to the border of Poland by July 1944. Russia invaded Poland and recognized a group of Polish Communists as the government of Poland.
3. The Balkans – By late summer of 1944 the German position in the Balkans began to collapse. Britain and the Soviet Union worked out a sphere of influence agreement to divide control of Eastern Europe.
4. Final Questions of Strategy – A final German counter offensive, the Battle of the Bulge, was launched. The Allies halted this offensive in January, 1945. In early spring of 1945, the Allied armies crossed the Rhine. The Russians invaded from the east. Hitler committed suicide. On May 7, the Germans made the final unconditional surrender.
5. The Yalta and Potsdam Conference – Stalin, Churchill and Roosevelt made final decisions regarding the end of the war. Russia would maintain its influence in Eastern Europe, and Germany would be divided into four occupation zones, British, American, Russian and the French.
6. The Atomic Bomb and the Defeat of Japan – Truman decided to use an atomic bomb on Japan. A bomb was dropped on Hiroshima. When no surrender was received, a second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. Surrender quickly followed. The only concession to unconditional surrender was that Japan was allowed to keep its Emperor Hirohito.

EUROPE AFTER WORLD WAR II – 1945 TO 1953

A. EASTERN EUROPE – 1945-1953

1. The Soviet Union – The Russians faced tremendous problems. Russia had been devastated by the war, with 25 million people homeless. Recovery was

achieved using the same dictatorial methods used by the Communists during the 1930s. Stalin also pursued an aggressive foreign policy and established satellite states throughout Eastern Europe

2. Communization of Eastern Europe – The fate of Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and the Russian zone of Germany was determined by the presence of Soviet armies in the area.

B. WESTERN EUROPE – 1945-1953

1. Italy – The monarchy which had governed since the time of unification in the mid-19th century was discarded in favor of a republic.
2. France – General Charles de Gaulle provided leadership for France to play a significant military and political role in Europe.
3. West Germany – At its surrender in 1945, Germany lay in ruins. A court was established at Nuremberg to try war criminals. A German government was re-established in the Western zones. As relations between the three Western powers and the Soviets broke down, East and West Germany became separate states.
4. Great Britain – During the war the standard of living for the poor had actually risen. Britain embarked on a program for “full employment in a free society” and social security from “cradle to grave.”
5. The Marshall Plan – George C. Marshall proposed an aid program for Western European countries and others.

THE COLD WAR

A. THE COLD WAR

1. The Breakup of the Allies – The Question of Poland initiated the breakdown of the wartime alliance between the United States and Britain on one hand and the USSR on the other.
2. Conflict in Germany – The Russians made plain their intention to communize their zone in Germany.
3. The Containment Policy – Truman adopted a patient, but firm, long term policy of resisting Soviet Expansionism.
4. The Truman Doctrine – Containment was translated into a policy of military alliances, foreign aid, and American bases to ring and contain the Soviet Union militarily, as well as a policy of resisting Communist wars in unstable areas of the world.

B. THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

1. China at the End of World War II – The Nationalist government under Chiang Kai-Shek was recognized as the legitimate government, but the Communist had a strong position in north China and was in a good position to compete with the government forces for control of former occupied territory.
2. Aid to Nationalists: The Wedemeyer Mission – Despite shortcomings of the Nationalist government, the US sent supplies, equipment and loans to prevent the Communist takeover of China. This effort failed as Chinese Communists defeated the Nationalists in 1949.

C. THE KOREAN WAR

1. Korea at the End of World War II – The USSR declared war on Japan in 1945 after the US had dropped the atomic bomb. During the brief period, the Russian army invaded Manchuria and occupied Korea to the 38th parallel. At the end of the war, Korea was divided along the 38th parallel, with North Korea controlled by Communists.
2. The North Korean Invasion – In 1950, as North Korea invaded South Korea, the United States decided to intervene. This force virtually destroyed the invading army.
3. The Decision to Cross the 38th Parallel – A decision was made to cross the 38th parallel and unify Korea. Some units reached the border with China, when Chinese Communists entered the battle. The UN forces were driven south of the 38th Parallel, but re-

covered and reached a line approximately at the 38th parallel once again.

LOSS OF EUROPEAN OVERSEAS EMPIRES

A. BRITISH OVERSEAS WITHDRAWAL

1. Creation of Israel – Britain had received a mandate from the League of Nations to govern Palestine. Following World War II, there was a considerable migration of Jews who had survived the Nazi Holocaust. Zionist leaders proclaimed a new Israeli state. Egypt, Syria and other Arab states invaded the area, but Israel defeated the invaders.
2. Further Arab-Israeli Wars – Egypt closed the Suez canal to Israel, and Israel launched a six-day war against Egypt. The Arab forces were badly defeated, and the Israelis occupied additional territory including the Jordanian sector of Jerusalem.
3. The Palestine Liberation Organization – The PLO was formed to fight for the establishment of an Arab Palestinian state. The PLO resorted to terrorist tactics against Israel and other states.
4. India and Pakistan – British rule in India came to an end in 1947 with a relatively peaceful transfer of power. Muslims did not want to live in a state dominated by Hindus, and insisted on a state of their own. Britain partitioned the subcontinent in Hindu India and Muslim Pakistan. Independence resulted in rioting where as many as 1 million died.

B. FRENCH IN INDOCHINA AND ALGERIA

1. Indochina – Following the War, the French attempted to restore their rule. War broke out between the French and opposition nationalist forces. The French were unable to maintain their position. In 1954, their force was surrounded at Dienbienphu and forced to surrender.
2. The 1954 Geneva Conference – Cambodia and Laos became independent and Viet Nam was partitioned at the 17th parallel.
3. Algeria – France did not grant independence to Algeria, considering it part of metropolitan France. Arabs, who had few rights, began a large scale revolt in 1954. A campaign of suppression lasted over seven years.
4. Algerian Independence – De Gaulle moved toward Algerian autonomy. In 1961, in a referendum, the French people voted in favor of Algerian self-determination. In 1962, French rule ended in Algeria.

THE COLD WAR AFTER THE DEATH OF STALIN

A. RUSSIAN AMERICAN RELATIONS

1. The U-2 Incident – In 1960, a US spy plane was shot down over the Soviet Union, and the pilot was captured alive. The incident was used as an excuse for the Soviet Union to pull out of an upcoming peace conference.
2. The Berlin Wall – Following the U-2 incident, the East German Border was closed and a wall built through Berlin, separating the Russian and Western sectors.
3. The Cuban Missile Crisis – In an attempt to protect the Castro regime and to project its power to the borders of the US, Khrushchev initiated a policy of installing Russian missiles in Cuba. President Kennedy ordered a quarantine of Cuba. Russian ships turned back rather than risk possible war.

B. THE CHANGING BALANCE OF POWER

1. Detente – Under President Nixon, the policy of better relations with the Soviet Union became known as detente.
2. Agreements on Nuclear Weapons – The USSR and the US agreed to ban nuclear tests in the atmosphere, underwater and in outer space. France and China refused to sign. Agreements were also reached to ban the further proliferation of nuclear weapons.

A NEW EUROPE

A. RUSSIA AFTER STALIN

1. Stalin's Death – Stalin died in 1953. After a power struggle, a little known party functionary, Nikita Khrushchev came to power in 1954. Khrushchev re-

laxed the terror and oppression of the Stalin years. Khrushchev was ousted as a result of the Cuban Missile Crisis and the failure of agricultural policies.

2. Khrushchev's Successors: Brezhnev, Andropov, and Gorbachev – Brezhnev permitted limited freedom, but controls were maintained and in some cases tightened. He was briefly succeeded by Andropov and then Gorbachev who initiated a wide range of reforms known as perestroika.

B. CHANGE IN EASTERN EUROPE

1. Poland – In the 1980s the trade union movement known as Solidarity emerged as a political force. The ruling Communists were forced to recognize the opposition and make concessions.

C. CHANGE IN WESTERN EUROPE

1. NATO and the Common Market – NATO, established in 1948, has been an alliance to contain Communism and protect Western Europe from any threat of Russian attack or subversion.
2. Great Britain since 1951 – Britain's major postwar problems have been economic. British industry has been plagued by poor management and frequent strikes.
3. France Under the Fifth Republic – Under De Gaulle, a new constitution called for a strengthened executive. In 1981, socialist Mitterand was elected. He tried to stimulate the economy by expanding worker purchasing power. His efforts were not successful.
4. Germany after Adenauer – Prosperity and Adenauer's maintaining a firm alliance with NATO kept the Christian Democrats in power. The Social Democrats came to power in 1969, and moved toward improved relations with the East. In 1982, economic difficulties brought the Christian Democrats back into power.
5. Italy – Italian politics have been plagued with instability and corruption. Italy advanced economically.
6. Spain and Portugal – Portugal's dictatorship came to an end in 1968 when a stroke incapacitated Salazar. An era of change began. In Spain, dictatorship ended when Franco's designated successor, the Bourbon Prince Juan Carlos, proved to be a popular leader who took the country from dictatorship to constitutional monarchy.

D. THE FALL OF COMMUNISM

1. Poland – Gorbachev de-emphasized Soviet concerns in eastern Europe. After years of effort by Solidarity, Poland became the first European nation to shift from Communism to democracy. Elections were held in 1989.
2. Hungary – In August 1989, Hungary opened its borders with Austria. Hungary proclaimed itself a free republic.
3. East Germany – When Hungary opened its border with Austria, a route to the West was also opened for thousands of East Germans to cross into Hungary. East Germany opened its border with Czechoslovakia, and eight days later, the Berlin Wall fell.
4. Czechoslovakia – When a crackdown on pro-democracy demonstrations in November 1989 proved futile, the pro-Soviet government was replaced by reform minded Communists who relinquished power to a freely elected parliament.
5. Romania – Pro-Democracy demonstrators were met with force. The military began joining the opposition, and eventually dictator Nicolae Ceausescu was forced from power.
6. Bulgaria and Albania – In 1990, a multiparty coalition took power in Bulgaria. Albania opened borders with Greece and legalized religious worship.
7. Yugoslavia – The fall of Communism led to the reopening of ancient ethnic feuds. Serbs fought with Croatians.

E. THE FALL OF THE SOVIET UNION

1. Communist Coup d'Etat – Hardliners placed Gorbachev under house arrest. The coup failed because the army and the KGB did not fully support it, and the people were distrustful of the government. Boris Yeltsin rallied the populace and rank and file party members.
2. The Fall of Gorbachev – His power had been eroded. The Soviet Union became a Commonwealth of Independent States, and Gorbachev no longer had a country to govern.

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