

The history of world civilization.

3 cyclus (1450-2070)

New time ("new antiquity"), capitalism ("new slaveownership"), upper mental (causal) plan.

19. 1450-1700 -"neoarchaics".

20. 1700-1790 -"neoclassics".

21. 1790-1830 -"romanticism".

22. 1830-1870 – «liberalism».

Modern time (lower intuitive plan)

23. 1870-1910 – «imperialism».

24. 1910-1950 – «militarism».

25. 1950-1990 – «social-imperialism».

26. 1990-2030 – «neoliberalism».

27. 2030-2070 – «neoromanticism».

New history.

We understand the new history generally in the same way as the representatives of Marxist history. It is a history of establishment of new social-economic formation – capitalism, which, in difference to the previous formations, uses the economic impelling and the big machine production. The most important classes are bourgeoisie and hired workers, in the last time the number of the employees in the sphere of service increases. The peasants decrease in number, the movement of peasants into towns takes place; the remaining peasants become the independent farmers, who are involved into the ware and money economy. In the political sphere it is an epoch of establishment of the republican system, which is profitable first of all for the bourgeoisie, with the time the political rights and liberties are extended for all the population. In the spiritual plan it is an epoch of the upper mental, or causal (later lower intuitive) plan, the humans discover the laws of development of the world and man, the traditional explanations of religion already do not suffice. The time of the swift development of technique (Satan was loosed out of his prison, according to Revelation 20.7), which causes finally the global ecological problems. The new history corresponds to the antiquity, being its repetition on the higher level. In correspondence to the human life, it is a period from 45 to 51 years. The new history is divided into nine periods, now we are in the middle of the 8th period.

19 period (1450-1700) “neolithics”.

1. America in 1450-1700.

A. North America in 1450-1700.

Giovanni Caboto, an Italian seaman, who sailed under the English flag, crossed the Atlantic from Bristol 1497. He was in search of a new sea way to China, but landed in Newfoundland. About 500 years after the Vikings he was a first European, who came to the North America. He had discovered the big fishing grounds, which were visited by English fishers. But only 1610 a settlement was founded there.

Giovanni da Verrazano traveled before the American coast 1499. A Frenchman Jacques Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence Stream 1535/36. He wanted to cross the northern continent; the others wanted to sail around it. The first French settlers in the North America were hunters for fur animals. They made trade with Indians, changing tools, weapon and alcohol against fur. The demand for American fur was big in Europe; the beaver fur had a high current by the hat-makers. The French discoverers traveled along the St. Lawrence Stream till the Great Seas. They invaded inside the land and came through the Mississippi till the Mexican Gulf.

1577-80 the second sailing around the world is made by English sea hero and pirate Francis Drake (ca. 1545-1596). 1584-1590 Sir Walter Raleigh founds a settlement at the island of Roanoke for short time. A painter John White took part at many expeditions to the North America. 1587 he was a governor of the colony at Roanoke (modern state Virginia). His paintings are the oldest pictures of Indian life. After the first attempts to settle were unsuccessful, the first British colony is founded in Jamestown (Virginia) by John Smith 1607.

Samuel de Champlain (1567-1635) as the first governor of Canada takes Newfoundland, New Scotland and New France into possession. 1608 Champlain, the “founder of Canada”, founds a settlement in Quebec and studies the Champlain sea. The first European settlers were peasants, who cut and burned the forests along the Atlantic coast to get the land for tillage. Soon the agrarian society after the European example appeared. Appalachians were the natural barrier. The settlements in Virginia were financially supported by the English nobility through the investment into the new plantations. There was a lot of working power: poor settlers, African slaves and criminals, who prefer the emigration to America to the imprisonment. Many settlers became victims of the subtropical climate of Virginia. The planting of tobacco, the indigenous plant in America, and its export to Europe make soon Virginia as rich as the haven towns of New England. The Indian princess Pocahontas from the tribe of Powhatan became Christian, was married to Englishman John Rolfe, came to England and died 1616, 21 years old. 1625 the missionary activity of French Jesuits began. 1643 Montreal is founded. The French West Indian company (1664) made trade with fur and alcohol with Indians.

In the 17th century through the immigration of the religiously persecuted the states of New England are built both as crown colonies (with the king's governor and own people's representation) and as proprietary colonies (because of the free private treaties with the crown). 1620, December 26 the “Pilgrim Fathers”, a Puritan sect, persecuted in England, land in Plymouth (Massachusetts) from the “Mayflower” ship. They worked hard and tried to build the God-like society in the New World. Colonists had conflicts with Indians. They welcomed the first settlers, but hindered their invading inside the country. Already 1622 in Jamestown

Indians murder 350 colonists, who occupied their land. Soon the settlers outnumbered the Indians. They expelled them from their tribal lands. Many natives became victims of the illnesses, brought from Europeans, which decimated the population of the already small tribes. 1632 the Catholics found Maryland. The state supports the colonies (1640 about 25,000 settlers) through “charts” (protection letters) and the trade favorings (navigation acts), which are directed mostly against the Dutch sea and trade rivals.

Swedish and Dutch colonists came later. New Netherland was founded 1616. 1626 the Dutch found New Amsterdam. Already 1636 the Harvard university is founded. 1650 there were already many colonies at the East coast, among them Swedish and Dutch. 1654, August the first Jewish settlers arrive in New Amsterdam; one month later they are joined by 23 Ashkenazi and Sephardi Jews refugees from Brazil, who had participated in the war against the Portuguese. By the end of the 17th century, the second Jewish community on the North American continent had already been established in Charleston, South Carolina.

Different nations fought each other, like in Europe, and Indians. New Sweden (Delaware) is conquered by the Dutch 1655, but they gave it to England 1664. In the same year the Englishmen conquer New Amsterdam and rename it to New York. According to the peace of Breda (1667), New Netherland became English (states: New York, New Jersey, Delaware). From 1670 South Carolina and the Rupert land (Hudson Bay Company) were occupied. The Indian attacks at the European settlements grow. 1675-1676 the king Philipp war between Indians and colonists takes place. 1683 William Penn founds Philadelphia and the quackers’ colony Pennsylvania.

The extension of English settlements along the St.-Laurence Stream till the Great Seas causes the conflicts with the French. From 1674 the state mercantile protection of the first French colonial empire by Colbert begins. 1681-1682 La Salle studies the Mississippi and incorporates Louisiana. After 1686 the plunderings of British trade points at the Hudson Bay and the attacks till New England take place.

In the whole, in the first period Europeans became to settle in the North America. Initially Frenchmen dominated, then the Englishmen created the first real colonies on the east coast, taking some of them from the Swedes and the Dutch. The colonies were still formally subordinated to England.

B. Central and South America.

Using the map of Florentinian Toscanelli (1397-1482), a Genuasan Christoph Columbus (1451-1506) in the service of Isabella of Castilia searches the western sea way to India. After 61 day’s way he discovered the islands of Guanahani (San Salvador), Kuba and Haiti on October 12, 1492. In his team there were at least four descendants of Spanish Jews. One of them, interpreter Luis de Torres, was among the first to set foot on the shores of the island of Guanahani. His voyage was made possible by the political and financial support of courtiers of Converso origin, and it was to them that he sent his first reports. Soon after the first discoveries (1494) the treaty of Tordesillas is concluded: the world was divided into Spanish and Portugal colonial empires. Pope Alexander VI establishes the demarcation line ca. 370 miles to the west of Azores as frontier between Portugal (to the east) and Spain (to the west). 1496 Columbus founded the first European settlement Santo Domingo upon Hispaniola. As viceking Columbus makes four traveling to West-India (how it became to be called) and discovers the continent (the estuary of Orinoco; later Panama) 1498.

1499-1502 a Florentinian Amerigo Vespucci (1451-1512) travels near the coast of South America. Because of his traveling reports the new continent becomes famous and called America according to the proposal of German scholar Martin Waldseemüller 1507. 1500 Brasil is discovered at the India journey of a Portuguese Pedro Alvarez Cabral (1460-1526), where another Converted Jew worked as an interpreter. From 1507 all those who could not prove their “purity of blood” were not permitted to travel to the Americas. Already 1510/11 the first black slaves were imported to the West India.

A Spaniard Vasco Núñez de Balboa reaches as the first European the Pacific Ocean after the crossing of Panama strait 1513. Middle and South America are discovered and subjugated by conquistadores, Spanish nobility (hidalgos) and adventurers, moved by thirst of gold, missionary needs, seeking of fame and honor, often fought each other. Hernán Cortes (1485-1547) founds Vera Cruz and invades into Mexico; the Aztec empire is conquered 1519-21. In the same time a Portuguese in Spanish service Fernao de Magalhaes (ca. 1480-1521) makes the first voyage around the world. He reaches Moluccas and is murdered there. One of his five ships under Elcano comes to the start haven Sanlúcar de Barrameda 1522. Spaniards Domingo, de Soto, Alvarado and Francisco Vázquez de Coronado explore the Northern Mexico till 1542.

Spain builds a colonial empire. 1524 Sevilla becomes a monopol haven for trade and a place of the India council, the central office for administration, law and church. 1527 Venezuela is leased to the Welshes. Explored by Federmann 1530-39, this first German colony is given back 1546. 1528 the first auto-da-fè in Mexico: two Judaizers – one of them a companion of Cortes – are executed.

The Inca state is subjugated by Francisco Pizarro 1531-34, who founds Lima 1535, orders to murder his concurrent Almagro, the conqueror of Bolivia 1538 and is murdered by his followers 1541. 1535-38 Quesada conquers Columbia. 1544 Orellana crosses the continent (through the river way Marañon-Amazonas). 1545 at Potosí in the Andes the richest silver mine of the world is discovered. 1540-54 Valdivia discovers Chile. Anton Fugger (1525-1560) has trade concessions in Chile and Peru. Ca. 1600 about 49% percent of the Earth (32% percent of dry land) are known.

The vice-kingdoms of New Spain (1535) and Peru (1542) are organized and divided into the general captaincies with own judgment (audiencias). Towns receive restricted self-government (cabildo). The universities appear in Lima (1551), Mexico (1553), Bogota (1593), Caracas (1642). 1569, January 25 Philip II of Spain orders branches of the Inquisition to be established in America. 1570 the Inquisition is introduced in Peru. 1596 in Mexico Luis de Carvajal the Younger is burned at the stake. 1636 “La Complicidad Grande”: some Jews are discovered among the Portuguese merchants in Lima; 161 are arrested and interrogated by the Inquisition. 1639, January 23 epilogue of the “Great Complicity”: seven are burned at the stake, among them Manuel Batista Perea, known as El Capitán grande, the richest merchant in the province, and a famous physician, Francisco Maldonado da Silva (El Nazareno). 1649 a collective auto-da-fè in Mexico. The crown gives tribute lands (encomiendas) to the conquistadores, who take taxes and the natural tribute from Indians, but have to convert them and educate in the Christian teaching, as well as put soldiers for the defence of colonies. The new laws were accepted 1542-1545, according to which Indians became the crown vassals. Many Indians died from illnesses, brought by Europeans (and in their turn infected them by syphilis). The Caribs and Arawacs were almost exterminated by colonisers ca. 1550. The

“Indian apostle” Las Casas (1474-1566) fights against exploitation and forced labor. The number of Aztecs, Incas and other South American people reduced to a half till 1600 and continued to decrease. 1697 Tayasal, the last independent Maya state, is conquered by Spain.

Spain gives the “frontier of wild forest” at Parana, Marañon, Upper Orinoco to the missionary orders. Dominicans and Franciscans founded schools and brought the European methods of agriculture and crafts to the Indians. The economic success of Jesuits was great, especially in the Jesuit state of Paraguay, the “vision in wild forest”. From 1607 the Indian reductions (collective settlements without private property) are built. They increase despite the permanent attacks (entradas) of Brazilian slave hunters. The European culture plants (grains) and domesticated animals (ox, horse, sheep) propagate swiftly, but the economic interest is concentrated at the exploitation of the noble metals, despite the expensive transportation through the silver fleets (from 1561 under the guard for defense from English, Dutch and French attack). 1546 the silver town Potosi was founded at the height of 4000 m, ca. 1600 it is the greatest city of the world after London. Indians had to work in the silver mines in Mexico and Peru. The quota for Spanish immigration was lowered for 2000 persons a year in the 17th century. Therefore deficit of new settlers appeared. The Spanish landowners of South America do not live at haciendas, but in the towns or in Europe. Indians had to leave their land and were used as hired workers in haciendas.

The colonial interest of Portugal was concentrated mostly in West India; for the defence from sea plunderers Olinda (1537) and for the East India trade Bahia (1549) are founded at the coast of Brazil, discovered in 1530-s. New Christians were important for the development of sugar industry in Brazil, just as in the early decades of the 16th century they had been important to cultivating the brazil wood. The younger Portuguese Inquisition (founded 1536) was never formally introduced into Brazil, but inquisitors who came from the metropolis sent suspects to stand trial in Lisbon. Persecutions in Brazil intensified during the years 1591-6 and 1618; 1591-96 Judaizing Marranos are expelled from Brazil. The crown divided the fertile coast stripes of Brazil into twelve hereditary capitanias (half-feudal, politically almost independent territories). Behind São Paulo the descendants of adventurers (paulistas, also mamelucos) build the armed gangs. At sheep stealing and slave hunting the “bandeirantes” invade inside the mainland. They attack the missionary stations of Spanish Jesuits. 1680 the colony Sacramento is founded at the Spanish territory of domination. The gold founding in Minas Geiras (1693) cause the exploration of the inside of mainland. The colonial frontier moves into the west.

The political rivalities in Europe continue also overseas. Dutch, Frenchmen, Englishmen as tradesmen and pirates take part in the ocean traveling (1555 the guild of merchant adventurers).

Dutch attack the united kingdom of Spain-Portugal (1580-1640) through the West Indian company (1609), seizing Spanish silver fleets (1628 by the Dutch admiral Piet Heyn). Jewish merchants comprised some of the principal founders of the West India Company (1621). 1624 Bahia is conquered, six capitanias are occupied, using their products (sugar cane, coffee) and the slave trade. 1630 the Dutch occupy the east of Brasilia. Recife, where the first openly Jewish community in America was founded, takes defence of the north-eastern coast but is reconquered 1654. Curaçao (1634) and Guayana (1636) remain Dutch. Part of the Jewish community escapes to other Dutch colonies, including twenty-three who migrate to New

Amsterdam. 1667 Surinam, an English colony, is ceded to the Dutch; for the first time in the history of the diaspora, Jews are granted full legal equality.

In the fight against Spain from the flibustier (sea pirates) under the “Company of American islands” (1639) the French Antilles possessions develop: among them San Christoph (1625); San Domingo, Guadelupe, Martinique (1635); Haiti (1655), which gives over 25% of colonial import.

Factories of English West Indian company are organized at Barbados (1605) and the Bahama Islands (1646/70); Bermuda Islands (1612). 1655 Jamaica becomes English. 1661 the first Jews are authorized to settle in Barbados.

Even Denmark and Kurland take part at the colonial foundations in West India.

In the whole, the colonies of Spain and Portugal, later of France, England and Netherlands were organized in the Caribic Sea and in the South America. They did not yet occupied the whole territory of the continent, being situated mostly at the coast. It corresponds to the first period of 2nd cyclus (800-550 BCE), when Phoenicians and Greeks founded their colonies in the West Mediterranean. The ancient slavery had also its revival in this time: Indians and Africans, brought to America, became slaves of white masters, who spoke languages, originated from Latin, but were Christians. The civilizations of the 1st cyclus (early class society) were destroyed, the population brought into the 3rd cyclus by force. Metaphorically it can be compared with the raping of 16 years old Indian girl (civilization of New World) by 46 years old gangster - civilization of the Old World (according to the retardation law).

In the economics the center of weight is moved from the European closed seas (Northern, Baltic, Mediterranean) to the Ocen (Atlantic trade); Lissabon, Sevilla, Rotterdam succeed the earlier leading havens Lubeck, Venice, Genua. Through the import of new colonial products (potatoes, maize, tobacco) and plantation economy the world trade and great industry increases (colonies as the consumer markets). The increased need in money (factories' capital, the building of monopolies) favors big capitalist works, who receive also political significance.

In the politics the western rank states of Europe increase in significance; political significance of Central Europe decreases. Portugal and Spain become great colonialist powers, later France, Netherland and England.

In the culture the Europeisation of the earth begins; the people's movements and races mixtures (slaves' transportations, colonialisation) take place. The spiritual horizon (knowledge of new cultures) is broadened. Sciences, especially geography, astronomy, ethnography, later philology (studying of new languages) are developing.

Questions:

1. Describe discovery and settlement of Europeans in the North America.
2. What were the main discoveries in the Central and South America?
3. Compare the organization of administration in Spanish and Portugal colonies.
4. What were the results of Great geographic discoveries for Europe?

2. Western Europe in 1450-1700.
6th period (ca. 1450-1650).
1.1450-1575.

Renaissance.

Ca. 1445 the book printing with moving metal letters, printing press and double-page printing upon paper is invented in by Johann Gutenberg (Gensfleisch, ca. 1400-1467) Germany. 1455 the “42 lines Bible” is published. Book printing propagates swiftly through the Whole Europe and opens new possibilities for education.

A short before the fall of Constantinople the second (Greek) stage of Renaissance begins. The French name (ital. rinascita, rinascimento = revival) is introduced by the painter Vasari ca. 1550. The concentration upon the world and humanism change the feeling of life from “viator mundi” (pilgrim to the heaven’s motherland”) to “faber mundi” (creator and lord of the world). Ca. 1440 the Platonic academy in Florence is founded. Free spiritual development of a man is favored, who can perfectionate from his own power through study of classical ancient literature. Doctor Marsiglio Ficino (1433-99) translates Plato and Corpus Hermeticum, representing an esthetic religion (God as the beautiful). Pico della Mirandola (1463-94) makes a new world picture from Christian, antique and Jewish elements. Theory of new, purely secular powerful state is developed by Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527); his main works are “Il principe” (a prince; 1513) and “History of Florence”.

In Rome the first Pope-humanist Nicolaus V (1447-55) founds the Vatican library. His secretary Lorenzo Valla (1405-57) begins the philological humanism with text and Bible criticism: Vulgata is compared with Greek proto-text. The “Constantin donation” is proved to be a fake. A writer Castiglione (1478-1529) makes a picture of “uomo universale”, the universally educated, great personality, who is in the beautiful harmony with nature and “can everything, when he only wants”. The ideal influences French “Gentilhomme”, English gentlemen, Spanish “caballero”, German “Kavalier”.

In the new style of Petrarca Luigi Pulci, Ariosto, Torquato Tasso (1544-95) make poems. In the middle of the XVth century Humanism is propagated in Europe by students, book publishers (Badius in Paris; Froben in Basel etc.), Italian clergymen and diplomats at the councils.

Partly through the study of Greek authors, especially of Aristarchus of Samos, the spherical nature of earth was rediscovered. The astronomer from Nurnberg and book publisher Regiomontanus (Johannes Müller) calculated the daily position of sun in his “Ephemerides” (annual diaries) from 1475. Martin Behaim makes the first globus 1492. Influenced by Cusanus and Pythagorean teaching, doctor and clergyman Nicolaus Copernicus (1473-1543) from Thorn develops the unproved mathematically heliocentric world system from 1507 (published only 1543 in “De revolutionibus orbium caelestium” with the preface of Osiander). The predecessors of natural sciences – alchemy and “natural magic” flourish. They develop the teaching of Aristotle about forces and energy and made experiments to find a “stone of philosophers”. 1510 Agrippa of Nettesheim publishes his book “De occulta philosophia”,

where he divides magic into natural, heavenly and religious one. Another famous magician was Georg Faust. Georg Agricola (1494-1555) becomes founder of mineralogy and metallurgy. Theophrastus Bombastus von Hohenheim, called Paracelsus (1493-1541) is doctor, botanician and alchemist, who studies physical and chemical foundations of life. Spanish doctor Miguel Servet (1511-53; burned as free thinker in Geneva) discovers blood circuit.

Prepared through mystics and “devotio moderna”, German humanism becomes especially religious. Philologists study antique and early Christian works to deepen understanding of life and conflict with the scholastic teaching. Rudolf Agricola tries to reform the Latin schools (Schlettstadt, Deventer). Till 1500 the new education is made almost all universities. New universities are opened (Freiburg 1455, Greiswald 1456, Basel 1459, Preßburg 1467, Ingolstadt 1472, Trier 1473, Mainz 1476, Tübingen 1476, Wittenberg 1502, Frankfurt am Oder 1506). Emperor Maximilian I calls Conrad Celtis, crowned as “poeta laureatus”, to Vienne as the first teacher of rhetorics and poetry. Johannes Reuchlin (1455-1522) studies Greek and Hebrew. Attacked by Dominicans of Cologne, he is supported by Erfurt circle around Mutianus Rufus in so called Reuchlin struggle (1515-17) with satirical “Letters of dark men” (Grotus Rubeanus, Hutten) against the scholastic education. Philipp Melanchthon (1497-1560) as “praeceptor Germaniae” becomes a creator of humanistic study and tries to combine humanism and reformation.

German humanism can be divided into national and cosmopolitical directions. The representatives of first one discover and collect German literary monuments and awaken the national conscience, which brings historical proves against the accusation of “German Barbarians”. Celtis makes the first edition of Tacitus (“Germania”); Jacob Wimpling (1450-1528) composes the first German history 1505; Ulrich von Hutten (1488-1523) fights against Roman church and curia for new German state. As representative of cosmopolitical direction Desiderius Erasmus of Rotterdam (1467-1536) tries to find equilibrium between humanistic way of thinking and Christian piety. The top of his scholarly work is Greek edition of New Testament 1516. New Latin poets and translators are Willibald Pirckheimer, Eobanus Hessus; historians Beatus Rheanus, Johannes Turmair, called Aventinus and Peutinger.

In England the “new learning” is propagated from Oxford. The pupil of Ficino, John Colet (till 1519), founds the St.-Paul’s –school in London and is a friend of Erasmus. Another friend of Erasmus is chancellor of Henry VIII, St. Thomas Morus (1478-1535). In his “Utopia” (1516) he pictures an ideal state, which prototype can be seen by Plato’s “State”, and criticizes the English feudals for expelling of peasants from land. Morus was executed for the refuse to support the church reform. Wyatt and Howard translate the poetical forms of Petrarca into English. The first flourishing of poetry (Lyly), Sidney and Edmund Spenser, Ben Johnson, John Webster.

In France new universities are opened (Valence 1454, Nantes 1460, Bourges 1464, Besançon 1485). At the end of the XVth century “studia humanitatis” became the firm tradition. Robert Gaguin propagates Plato. The new historiography glorifies the Gallic-Roman heritage. Jacques Lefèvre (Faber Stipulensis) translates the Greek New Testament 1523; the Greek scholar Guillaume Budé founds the Collège de France and the Bibliothèque Nationale. The satirist François Rabelais (1495-1553) writes already in the new style (“Gargantua and Pantagruel”), as well as writers of Pleiade (Ronsard, Pelletiers, Bellay), who develop a theory of linguistics, stressing the Roman traditions. Doctor and astrologist Michel Nostradamus (1503-1566) writes a futurological prognosis in verses (“Centuria”) and prose (“Small and big

apocalypses”) till 1397. The main problem of future Europe he sees in the fight with Islam and between different confessions. Peter Ramus (1515-1572) criticizes Aristotle. Malherbe pleads for the clearing of national language; a moralist Michel de Montaigne (1533-92) founds a genre of essays.

Reformation in Europe.

After the marriage of “Catholic kings” Isabella of Castilia (1474-1509) and Ferdinand II (1479-1516) of Aragon the new epoch in Spanish history begins. 1474-79 war for Castilian heritage against France and Portugal takes place. With Portugal the peace of Toro (1476) is concluded; according to the peace of Alcacovas (1479) Castilia and Aragon are united, but initially preserve their institutions. In Castilia king becomes grandmaster over the orders; a modern state is built through law reform, service obligation of nobility and town militia; grandes, who has service at court, lose their power. King’s council (lawyers) and town commissars rule the state. Privileges of church are recognized, but the absolute supremacy of king is secured. Cardinal Ximenez de Cisneros (1436-1517), archbishop of Toledo, reforms the clergy. 1481 inquisition is instituted. Under the great inquisitor Torquemada (1483-98) Spain becomes a land of fanatic religiosity, where agriculture and crafts are seen as unworthy of a Christian. After the conquest of Granada (1492) Jews and Moriscos are expelled. 1494 “The hammer of witches” is published, according to which many women are accused in sorcery and burned. Spain attacks North Africa: Melilla is conquered 1497, Oran 1509. The Habsburg archduke Philipp the Beautiful marries Johanna the Crazy, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella.

His son Karl V is born in Gent 1500, educated by later Pope Hadrian VI, from 1515 a duke of Burgundy, and inherits as Karl I the Spanish world empire, “where sun does not set”. 1519, when his grandfather Maximilian I (1493-1516) died, Karl was elected to the king of “Holy Roman Empire of German nation”. Besides Spain, he ruled over the inherited from Maximilian I Habsburg state – Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Burgund, Netherlands and big parts of Italy. He was financed by Fuggers and Welsers, later the colonial empire in Mexico and Peru gave him gold and silver.

His main opponent French king Francis I (1515-1557). In France Louis XI (1461-1483) united the country, having defeated Karl the Bold of Burgundy 1477. His successor Karl VIII (1483-98) opens the Italian wars because of pretensions of Anjou house to Italy 1494 and conquers Naples. Louis XII of France (1498-1515) as the heir of Visconti renews attacks. Francis I was concurrent of Karl I at the elections of emperor. His attempts to extend the French influence region till North Italy was opposed by Karl V. When they met 1520, the French king had a court state, richer than of the English king. His palaces were built by Italian artisans and architects, including Leonardo da Vinci. After the battle at Pavia (1525) Francis I was for a one year a personal prisoner of war of Karl V.

The most serious danger for Karl V came from its own country. He himself was a devoted Catholic, but by many of his subjects, especially in Germany, the church lost its credit of belief. One accused clergymen in corruption. The Renaissance popes felt themselves as secular rulers, artisans or scholars and therefore accelerate the decay of church from within. Nicolaus V (1447-55) founds the Vatican library. A diplomate, humanist and literator Pius II (Enea Silvio Piccolomini) tries unsuccessfully to organize a crusade against the Turks at the congress of Mantua 1459. With a great builder Sixtus IV (1471-1484) the Pope’s court

degenerates into nepotism and simony. Culmination of ethic decay is reached under Innocence VIII (1484-92) and Alexander VI Borgia (1492-1503), whose son Cesare (1475-1507) liquidates the political speciality of state. Julius II (1503-13) is famous as general and politician. Educated, but atheistic Pope Julius II (1513-21) favors art, especially the building of St. Peter's cathedral (began 1506) but the system of indulgence letters, which causes the Reformation.

1517 Augustin monk and theologian Martin Luther (1483-1546), who worked at the university of Wittenberg, publishes a protest writing against the indulgence letters. He hanged 95 theses at the portal of a castle church of Wittenberg. The theses were propagated with a book printing. 1521 at the Worms council Karl V condemned the theses, but Martin Luther did not withdraw them, supported by German princes. Luther saw himself in the tradition of Jan Hus and demanded return to the early church and to Holy Writ, having translated it into the modern High German language. More radical actions of peasants – Great peasant's war of 1525 was not supported by him. 1527 the emperor's army plunders Rom (sacco di Roma). Pope Clemens VII is imprisoned. The epoch of Renaissance popes is finished. 1529 the Turks, who besieged Vienne, were defeated.

The ideas of Reformation were continued in Switzerland by Ulrich (Huldreich) Zwingli (1484-1531) in Zurich and Jean Calvin (1509-1564) in Basel, where he wrote "Institutio religionis christianae" (1536), and in Geneva. Already 1530 many German princes converted to Protestantism. Their grounds were not only of religious, but also of political nature. Turning from the emperor, they demonstrated their independence; secularization of church possession brought them money. War with France over Metz, Toul and Verdun (1552-1556) was unsuccessful. In the religious peace of Augsburg (1555) Karl V had to give the free confession of religion to the princes (*cuius regio, eius religio*), whom the subjects had to follow. 1556 he went to the monastery and died 1558. His brother Ferdinand I (1556-64) became emperor and ruled over Austria, Hungary and Bohemia; his son Philipp II (1556-1598) has got the Spanish heritage (Spain, Netherlands, Naples, Sicily and Sardinia). The peace of Cateau-Cambrèsis finished the French-Spanish war.

Reformation took place also in other European States. New Testament is translated into Swedish 1526. Gustav I Eriksson (1523-1560) was of Sweden expropriated the church property 1527. Henry VIII (1509-1547) of England proclaimed himself to the head of Anglican church 1534, after the Pope refused to recognize his divorce from his first wife. In England after the Hundred year war (1337-1453) the "war of roses" between the houses of York and Lancaster (1455-85) takes place. In this time Henry VI (1422-61), Edward IV of York (1461-83) and Richard III (1483-85). After it the Tudor dynasty rules till 1603. Richard is defeated in the battle at Bosworth (Wales) by Henry VII (1485-1509).

Pope Paul III (1534-49) tries to reform Catholic church. 1542 inquisition is introduced again. The Trient council (Tridentinum) takes place 1545-1563, also under the next popes Paul IV Carafa (1555-1559) and Pius V (1566-72), who fights rigorously against the simony. The contra-reformation begins. Catholic teaching is reformed, Vulgata is proclaimed the only allowed Bible version, protestant writings are prohibited. The order of Jesuits is introduced 1545, his founder was Ignatius Loyola (Inigo Lopez de Loyola, 1491-1556) of Basque origin. They are very active in the conversion of the separated from the church and have most success in Bavaria, Austria and Poland. New versions of Roman catechism, breviarium (1568) and messa (1570) were published. In England for Edward VI (1547-1553), nine years

old, Seymour, Duke of Somerset, then his rival his rival Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who is executed, rule. Cruel laws against paupers are taken. After him Mary I Tudor the Catholic, married to her nephew Philipp II of Spain, rules 1553-58. She executes about 300 persons, therefore she is called "bloody". She is united with Karl IV and fights together with him against France, therefore 1558 Calais is lost. She is criticized by Scotch Calvinist and preacher John Knox (1514-72) and died 1558.

But the Protestantism expands further. In the 1560-s the Calvinism, which was more radical than the Lutheranism, develops in the Netherlands (from 1563), the Switzerland, Scotland and many parts of France (man called there the Protestants hugenottes). Teachings of the Puritans in England were also influenced by Calvinism.

Philipp II was a resolute fighter against Protestantism. Revolt in the Netherlands (17 provinces with 200 towns, which brought to the crown seven times more taxes than the South America) takes place. 1565 inquisition is sharpened and bishoprics are made smaller. Petitions are refused, the aristocratic leaders are called "geuses" (paupers). 1566 revolts begin. King orders the "pacifying" to the "iron Duke" Alba, who made a military dictatorship with special courts (the "blood council" of Brussels) to judge the rebels. 1568 leaders of people Egmont and Hoorn are executed. Wilhelm von Nassau-Oranian (1533-84) collects soldiers in Nassau, but cannot match with Alba in the open field battles. The water geuses attack Spanish sea transports and fortresses. 1572 Briel and Vlissingen are taken. 1573 Alba is revoked. 1576 Spanish troops kill 7,000 people at the siege of Antwerpen. Against plundering and terror of Spanish soldatesca all provinces are united in the Geneva pacification 1576.

Netherlands are supported by Elisabeth I (1558-1603), who restores Protestantism in her country ("39 articles" of 1563) with the help of Lord Burghley (William Cecil, 1520-98). He expels John Knox. 1559/60 invasion into Scotland to the favor of Calvinist opposition of nobility takes place. Maria Stuart (1542-67), educated at the French court, returns to Scotland, but abdicates, flees to England 1568 and makes pretensions for the English throne, supported by Catholic party under Norfolk. Maria is imprisoned. English sea heroes John Hawkins, Francis Drake, Frobisher, Cavendish etc, fought with Spanish ships.

In France Henry II rules 1547-59, persecutes the French hugenottes and dies at the tournament. His successor becomes Francis II, 15 years old, married with Maria Stuart (1559-1560), who is dependent from her relatives, especially from the Catholic Guise. Charles IX (1560-74), ten years old, has his mother Katharina Medici as regent, who uses Bourbons (Antoin of Navarra) against the Guise. Albeit recognized in the edict of St. Germain, the hugenottes are attacked by the Guise in the "blood bath of Vassy" 1562. The hugenottes' wars take place 1562-1598. Spain supports the Guise, England the hugenottes, they got military help also from Kurpfalz and Hessen. Leaders of both parties of nobility Francis Guise and Louis Condé are murdered., the theory of monarchomachia about the allowed death of tyrants is represented by Jesuits Beza and Mariana. Henry Guise and admiral Coligny continue the struggle. Jean Bodin (1530-96) represents the third "party of politicians", composing "De la république" (1576). With his teaching about the sovereignty of state he prepares absolutism. 1570 according to the peace of St. Germain the hugenottes receive four secure places. Coligny is supported by the king in his national anti-Spanish position, therefore Katharina tries to remove Coligny and the hugenottes at the marriage of her daughter with Henry of Navarra. 1572 at the Bartholomew night (Paris bloody marriage) ca. 20,000 hugenottes are murdered (3000 in Paris). But the hugenottes are organized in La Rochelle and build their

own military organization in the south. Henry III (1574-89) gives the edict of Beaulieu under their pressure.

In the art the High Renaissance develops in 16th century (cinquecento), which ends in the Manierismus of Late Renaissance.

In the architecture the antique forms (cupola, rounded bow, the central building with cupola) are rediscovered; new space feeling through the stressing of vertical with clear, calm proportions; building of Italian palace with three floors with the divided show side, inside yard and bow gangs. At the new building of St. Peter's cathedral in Rome, which was began under Julius II 1506, Bramante (1444-1514), Raffael, Peruzzi and Michelangelo (cupola). In the plastics because of the antiquity "rediscovering of human body": free-standing figures (busts, rider figures, tomb monuments). Michelangelo (1475-1564): David, Moses.

In the painting striving for ideal natural beauty and the elaboration of perspective of anatomical proportions, technics of oil colors and of fresco. Master works are painted by Sandro Botticelli (1444-1510); Raffael Santi (1483-1520) paints madonnas; Michelangelo a Doom's day; Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519): Last supper, Mona Lisa and works about art theory. He makes projects of pump, hydraulic press, flying machins etc. Tizian (1477?-1576).

In the music with the transmission of polyphonical vocal music (messa, motette) into the instruments (lute, cembalo) the new instrumental music develops. Masters of new imitation style are Orlando di Lasso (1532-94) and a renovator of liturgic church music Palestrina (1525-94).

Besides Italy, Renaissance develops only in the 16th century because of the priestly orders (Franciscus I of France) to Italian artisans (Leonardo da Vinci) or studies of European scholars in Italy (Dürer) and cannot expel the late Gothic style. Princely castle and residence succeed the fortress; painter is liberated from the craft connection to the schools of painting, church architecture and stone masonry.

In Germany the middle class character of time is seen in the houses of town patricians and of town council, for example in Fachwerk style with watch towers and ladders (Nurnberg, Rothenburg). Houses of town council and castles are built according to the Italian example especially in the south (castle of Heidelberg) and in so called "Weser Renaissance" ca. 1600. Old German graphics (wood-cut) and painting becomes realistic in the altar pictures of Stephan Lochner (Cologne school), Konrad Witz, Martin Schongauer (till 1491), Hans Holbein the Elder. Period ends in the "last Gotician" Matthias Grünewald (till 1528) from Wurzburg (altar from Isenheim). Albrecht Dürer (1471-1528) combines Late Gothic tradition and German perception with Italian art of seeing. Through perspective and teaching about proportions, self-portraits, religious table pictures, landscape aquarelles, wood-cuts (revelation, life of Maria, passion), engravings (Madonnas) he becomes a teacher of new painters' generation. Italian influence can also be seen in the portraits of Hans Holbein the Younger (1497-1553), in the pictures of Albrecht Altdorfer and the graphics of Lukas Cranach the Elder. Plastics flourishes: the Franconian cut altars of Tilman Riemenschneider (till 1531) and Veit Stoss, Adam Kraft and Peter Vischer from Nurnberg.

In the Netherlands the grotesque pictures of Hieronymus Bosch (till 1516) influence Peter Breughel the Elder (till 1569).

In France the Late Gothic “Stil-Flamboyant”. Short high flourishing of the Renaissance building in the Loire castles of Francis I and in Paris of Lescot (a side building of Louvre 1556-1564) and Delorme (façade of Tuilerie from 1564). In the painting transition from the miniature to the table picture of Jean Fouquet (till 1481) and the “Loire school”. Elaboration of Renaissance in the “school of Fontainebleau” (Rosso, Primaticcio), as well as by Jean and François Clouet ca. 1540.

In England the insular variant of Gothics in the “Perpendicular style” ca. 1350-1530. Connected with the Renaissance influence, it makes “Tudor style” (till 1600): Hampton Court castle.

In the whole, in the first period Renaissance and Reformation took place in Europe, early capitalism develops as the sequence of the discovery of America. Europe is split into the Catholic and Protestant countries, in some countries the civil wars begin.

2.1575-1700.

In this period the laws of nature began to be discovered, genii reach the causal plan of reality in their teachings. Scholarly works are written both in Latin and in modern languages. Dane Tycho de Brahe (1546-1601) opens the first observatorium in Kassel; he represents the combined geoheliocentric system in his teaching and is a teacher of Kepler. Giordano Bruno (1548-1600; burned as heretician) develops pantheistic ideas about the endless universe without center. His pupil Johannes Kepler (1571-1630) works at the court of Emperor Rudolf II (1576-1612) in Prague, who supported astrologists and alchemists. Initially mystic who believed that five Plato bodies correspond to the orbits of five planets, later he discovered three laws of planet movement. Galileo Galilei (1564-1642) tries “to read the book of nature with help of mathematics” and discovers the acceleration of free fall. For the popularization of heliocentric theory he is judged by inquisition and has to deny it officially. Isaac Newton (1643-1727), developing ideas of Kepler, discovers three laws of mechanics and the gravitation law, later calculus and the laws of optics. Being Antitrinitarian, he writes about history, theology and alchemy, having prophecied return of Jew to Israel 1947 and the end of world 2060. Jesuit Athanasius Kircher (1602-1682) develops new ideas in geology, writes the first grammar of Coptic language in Latin and tries to decipher Egyptian hieroglyphs. In Netherlands famous scholars are philologist Lipsius and natural scholar Leeuwenhoek, who discovered the living cells 1677.

In philosophy rationalist ideas win. In the search of a rational method of cognition for the “true” explanation of world, Francis Bacon (1561-1626) founds English empirism: experiences, which lead to the general laws (inductive method), transmit knowledge that becomes power. In his utopia “Nova Atlantis” Bacon describes an example of perfectly organized state. Sensualist John Locke (1632-1704) denies “innate ideas” of Plato. Only interior and exterior senses bring knowledge. René Descartes (Cartesius, 1596-1650) represents rationalism: only through knowledge and general logical conclusions truth can be found (deductive method). Nature and spirit are absolutely different things (dualism).

Pantheistic ideas about the unity of God and nature (concordantia oppositorum) are developed by Jacob Böhme, who was a predecessor of dialectic teaching of Hegel and Schelling. After Casaubon explained the late origin of Corpus Hermeticum 1614, Rosicrucians (from the

mythical Christian Rosenkreutz, who should have visited Orient and died 1477) develop their mystical ideas and fight for peace in the begin of 17th century (Andreae and others). Baruch Spinoza (1632-1677) proves the unity of God and nature from the rational identity of thinking and being and makes strictly logical concept of ethics. He is a pantheist. His pantheism influences the system of Gotfried Wilhelm Leibnitz (1646-1716), according to whom the world consists from endlessly many monads (dynamic centers of force), which are coordinated by God in the “pre-stabilized harmony” and has a qualitative ladder from materia to the central monad God. The free man, who strives for perfection, must recognize the rational order of this “best from all possible worlds”. For England deismus is typical: God allows to His creature develop according to the laws and does not intrudes through wonders or revelation. The divine service is in morally good things. This “natural religion” (renovated by Christ) is a core of all religions. This direction is represented by Cherbury, Collins, Shaftesbury (1671-1713), who tries to combine the beautiful with the good to the true morality. Pierre Bayle (1647-1706) defends freedom of science and belief.

In the politology Tommaso Campanella (1568-1639) pictures his ideal “the Sun state” (1602) as a communist one, where the natural sciences are developed. The theory of international law is developed by Jesuit Suarez (1548-1617). Going out from the rationally understood natural law, Hugo Grotius (1583-1645) understands the state as free treaty of people to their own security. In his “De iure belli ac pacis” (1625) he demands the international law for the regulation of general peace. Only the defensive war has its moral grounds; sea must be free for all nations. With the theory of treaty Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679) and Samuel Pufendorf (1632-1694) prove the right of prince state for absolute sovereignty. Jacques Bossuet (1627-1704) brings the formula of absolutism “un roi, une foi, une loi” (one king, one belief, one law). He stresses the God’s mercy to the prince, who as the representative of God gives no account whether to church nor to people. According to them, the treaty with a ruler cannot be canceled, but according to John Locke (1689) it can be annulated by people, when the ruler breaks the natural law. He also proves theoretically the division of power in the state into the legislative and executive for the securing of personal freedom and the property of citizens.

In the literature in England the leading dramatists are Christopher Marlow (1564-1593), who writes also about Faust, Ben Johnson, John Webster. William Shakespeare (1564-1616) from Stratford-upon-Avon writes character tragedies about English kings, comedies, histories, sonettes. John Milton (1608-74) supports English Puritan messianism (“Gods own people”) in his epics “Paradise lost” (1667). In Spain the satirical rider novel “Don Quichote” of Miguel Cervantez (1547-1616) and the dramas of Lope de Vega (1562-1635) and Calderón (1600-81). In France Boileau (1636-1711) publishes the formal manual of poetry with his “L’art poétique”, according to which the heroic tragedies (often with material from antiquity) of Cornweille (1606-84) and Racine (1639-99), but also the types’ comedies of Molière (1622-73) and fables of La Fontaine (1621-95) are written. In Germany the language societies try to purify the language from French contamination: Martin Opitz (1597-1639) gives the poetic rules to the court social poetry. Works of Grimmelshausen (died 1676) and Andreas Gryphius are influenced by the events of the Thirty years’ war.

Religious wars.

In Netherlands new, politically skilled governor Alexander Farnese (1578-92) confirms liberties to Catholic southern provinces and wins them for Spain in the union of Arras (1579). Contrary union of Utrecht (1579) of the northern provinces divides Netherlands. Philipp II,

who becomes also a king of Portugal 1580, demands to remove Wilhelm von Nassau-Orange. Union answers with the declaration of independence (1581) from Spanish “tyran and law breaker”. 1582 Pope Gregory XII makes reform of calendar, which is not accepted in the protestant countries. 1584 Wilhelm of Orange is killed in Delft. According to the constitution of “General states”, deputies of seven republics meet in Haag under the presidency of Holland, which nominates the council pensioner (or land attorneys). The first political leader is Oldenbarneveltdt (1547-1619). After the new attack of Farnese Flandria and Brabant are reconquered. After the fall of Antwerpen (1585) England (Leicester) openly supports the General states. From attacks upon Spanish-Portuguese factories the Dutch colonial empire in South Africa, India, South-East Asia (Moluccas, Dutch India) is created. Even Spain has to trade with enemy: therefore it finances war against itself. At the land the Netherlands cannot be defeated. Spanish armies are occupied by England and France; Moritz of Orange (1585-1625) is a good organisator and tactician. 1591-98 contre-attacks against Spain in east and south follow. Trade and crafts move to Amsterdam. East Indian company is founded 1602. 1609 a cease-of-fire for twelve years is concluded. Party fightings between Oranian and council pensioner end with execution of Oldenbarneveltdt. 1621 West Indian company is founded; companies have their own army and political privileges. In the same year the end fight with Spain begins, which recognizes the new republic only 1648 in the Haag peace. But now England becomes an enemy of the new state. It is the first bourgeois revolution in Europe under the motto of struggle for independence and religious war. Till 1667 Netherlands are ruled by the staathouders from dynasty Nassau-Orange, then the top positions are vacant, real power being in the hands of Amsterdam oligarchs.

In France under Henry III (1574-89) a hugenott Henry of Navarra becomes a legitime throne heir. The Catholic league (Henry Guise) unites with Spain 1584. “War of three Henry’s” for Paris follows (1585-89). The king orders to kill Henry Guise and is himself murdered. Henry IV Bourbon (1589-1610) fights against the league and the Spanish army, returns to Catholicism 1593 (“Paris costs the mess”) and finishes the wars. 1598, according to the edict of Nantes, the hugenottes religious freedom, restricted cult exercizing, political equality and security places. As result, France remains Catholic, but integrates the Protestant minority politically and culturally. Crown defeats nobility; Henry IV creates the national united state. Minister Sully brings agriculture and finances in the order; trade and crafts grow; the first French colony in Canada appears.

In England 1587 Maria I Stuart is executed. It causes the open conflict with Spain till 1604. 1588 Philipp II sends the “invincible armada” of ca. 130 ships (galeras) with 27,000 seamen under the admiral Medina Sidonia into the sea. It was destructed partly with the artillery of Francis Drake, who used canons of the moving English sail ships (galions) partly with the storms in the Channel. New Spanish attacks of 1596/7 and 1599 were also unsuccessful. When Philipp II died 1598, Spain was bankrupt. About 40% of the European population was Protestant. England has broken the Spanish hegemony, becomes a leading Protestant great power, has a cultural flourishing and makes foundations of the colonial ascent.

Thirty years war (1618-1648).

The brother and successor of Rudolf II Matthias (1612-1619) tries to restore the authority of empire under the supremacy of Habsburg. Conflicts between Protestants and Catholics became acute. Destruction of the Protestant churches and violation of privilegues causes the Prague revolt of 1618 under count Thurn. A parliamentary government was built with

military support of count von Mansfeld, a leader of soldiers of Duke of Savoy. Thurn attacks Vienne; Austrian, Silesian, Moravian and Hungarian parliamentary forces as well as Transilvania under Bethlen Gabor supports the war. 1619 Ferdinand II elected to the emperor, but he is not recognized by Bohemia, where Frederic V von der Pfalz (23 years old) is elected to the king.

1. The Bohemian-Pfalz war (1618-23) begins. Subsidies of Pope, the help of Spain, of the league (Maximilian I of Bavaria) and of Luthern Kursaxony make possible the emperor's contre-attack. Saxony conquers Lausitz and Spanish troops (Spinola) invade into Pfalz, the army of the league (Tilly) defeats Bohemia in the battle at White Mountain (1620). The "winter king" Frederick von der Pfalz flees to Holland; the union is dissolved; with Bethlen Gabor the separate peace of Nikolburg is concluded 1622. Tilly attacks Heidelberg (the library (Palatina) is moved to Rome) and has victory at Wimpfen (over Georg Frederick of Baden), at Höchst and in the battle at Stadtlohn (over Christian von Braunschweig) 1623: Westfalia and Lower Saxony are occupied. In the same year Bavaria the dignity of Kurpfalz and the Upper Pfalz; Lausitz is leased to Saxony. Bohemia is terribly punished with executions: a half of land possessions of nobility were confiscated; cruel re-Catholisation (150,000 emigrants) and re-Germanisation follow. With "Renovated land order" of 1627 Bohemia, a heritage of Habsburgs, gets an absolutist government.

2. Danish- Lower Saxony war (1625-29).

Secured by English, Dutch and French subsidies, Christian IV of Denmark, Duke of Holstein and "Ruler of Lower Saxony imperial region", enters into the war. Albrecht von Wallenstein (1583-1634) prepares an army for the emperor. He comes from Bohemian nobility, becomes Catholic, enters into the emperor's service, gets possessions through marriage and buying of confiscated Bohemian lands; from 1624 he is a Duke of Friedland. Wallenstein defeats Mansfeld in the battle at Dessau bridge (1626) and persecutes him till Hungary (Neuhäusel). 1626 Tilly defeats Christian IV at Lutter am Barenberge. Together with Wallenstein he expels king till Jutland. Wallenstein subjugates North Germany till Stralsund, becomes "Generalissimus of Baltic and Ocean Sea" and receives Mecklenburg (near Sagan) as duche (1628). 1629, according to the peace of Lubeck, Christian IV denies any intrusion and preserves his possessions. According to the restitution edict (1629), all possessions of clergy, which came to the Protestants after 1552, are returned. 1630 the meeting of cour princes in Regensburg takes place. Preoccupied about their "liberty", the princes cause the dismissal of Wallenstein.

3. Swedish war (1630-35).

After the peace with Poland of Altmark, according to which Livland and important havens were given to Sweden (1629), Gustav II Adolf of Sweden (1611-1632) lands at Usedom for the protection of the Protestant cause, but also for the securing of Swedish power positions and for the rounding of the Baltic Sea possessions (dominium maris Baltici). 1631 the treaty of subsidies of Bärwalde with France, the main power in the fight against Habsburg. The Swedish king is welcomed by the Protestant population, but the parlements of Brandenburg and Saxony support "the lion of midnight" only after destruction and plundering of Magdeburg by Tilly and Pappenheim 1631. Laughed at as the "snow king" in Vienne, Gustav Adolf the North German Protestantism through destruction of king's army under Tilly in the battle at Breitenfeld (1631), crosses Thuringia and Franconia, liberates the Pfalz and spends

winter in Mainz. 1632 victory at Rain am Lech, Tilly is killed: Munich and Nurnberg open their doors. Called anew to the commander-in-chief "in absolutissima forma", Wallenstein expels the Saxons from Bohemia, causes Gustav Adolf to give out the attack to Vienne and his stronghold at Nurnberg. 1632 in the battle at Lützen Swedes have victory, but Gustav Adolf dies. His military successors are Bernhard of Weimar and the Swedish generals Horn, Banér, later Torstenson and Wrangel. Political leadership is taken by Swedish state chancellor Axel Oxenstierna (1583-1654). 1633 Heilbronn union "for the German liberty and to the satisfaction of Sweden" is founded. Bernhard of Weimar receives the duchy of Franconia, conquers the Upper Pfalz and Bavaria till the Danube. Albeit Wallenstein has taken Silesia, but he leaves Maximilian I of Bavaria without help. In Pilsener revers (1633) he secures the loyalty of his officers and leads own peace negotiations with Sweden and Saxony. After his dismissal and excommunication he is murdered in Eger by the Irish Butcher colonel Butler (1634). In the battle at Nördlingen (1634) Sweden loses South Germany. Having denied the restitution, Ferdinand II concluded peace of Prague 1635, which is supported almost by all Protestant parliaments. An imperial army has to expel the enemies.

4. The French-Swedish war (1635-48).

In the union with Bernhard of Weimar France enters actively in the war, which has now two theatres. Under emperor Ferdinand III (1637-57) general will for peace grows. But the new union of France and Sweden (1638) prolongates the war and damages the population. In Saxony and Bohemia new attack of Swedes after the victory of Banér at Wittstock. An attack upon Vienne is given out (Torstenson). 1643 Denmark declares the war. 1644 long peace negotiations in Munster and Osnabrück begin; cease of fire between Sweden and Brandenburg, supported by Saxony. In Upper Germany Bernhard of Weimar conquers Duchy of Elsass 1638. After his death the French attack at Tuttlingen is stopped by the Bavarian general Mercy 1645. French-Swedish victories at Alençon (Turenne) and Jankau (Torstenson) 1645. A double attack upon Bavaria ends the war.

1648 Westphalian peace in Munster with France, in Osnabrück with Sweden, both states-protectors of peace is concluded. The first European war is finished. The Habsburg hegemony in Europe is prevented; Switzerland and Netherlands leave the empire. New great powers (France, Sweden, Netherlands) ascent. The epoch of secularized state with religious tolerance begins. Augsburg religious peace (1555) is approved, accept the Calvinists. Germany is weakened by plundering and hunger, its population is now only seven million people (a third of the former population). The population of Bohemia is sunken from 3 millions to 800,000.

England in 17th century.

James I Stuart (James VI of Scotland, 1603-25), son of Maria I Stuart, 37 years old, calls himself "king of Great Britain" as a Scotch king and a heir of Tudors; he is supported by the Anglican state church. The Bible is translated into English (King James Version). The bishops' conference of Hampton Court condemns the Puritanism and Catholicism (1604); therefore 1605 powder conspiracy of Catholics takes place. Against the absolutist strivings of "British Solomon" (selling of titles and offices) parliamentary opposition of land nobility (gentry) and town-dwellers (city) for the preservation of old rights is built.

His son Charles I (1625-49) begins to rule, being 25 years old. Contradiction between the king's right of judgment (star chamber) and tax demands (1635 ship money for fleet building) sharpens. Despite numerous dissolution the parliaments demands securities against the

imprisonments and taxations in the Petition of rights (1628). Government without parliament lasts eleven years (1629-40) with persecution of all political and religious enemies (dissenters, non-conformists), for all the Puritans, a Calvinist movement on the foundation of free Bible Christianity with principle of communities and ascetic way of life. Among them radical independents demand unconditioned freedom of communities. 1638 Scotch revolt takes place; they oppose in a "Covenant" (union with God of Presbyterians) against the introduction of Anglican church by William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. To receive the costs for "bishops' wars" against the Scotch insurgents a 'Short', then a "Long" parliament is summoned 1640. Dominated by Puritans (John Pym), he establishes a control of government (1641 catalogue of complains of 'Grand Remonstrance'); process and execution of king's advisers Stratford (1641) and Laud (1645). 1642-48 the civil war between the crown (Cavaliers) and parliament (Roundheads), caused by the revolt of Irish Catholics (the Ulster incident of 1641) and the imprisonment of John Pym, takes place. The intrusion of Scotland (1643) and the new parliament army of the independent Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) are decisive. Cromwell, convinced in his mission, makes his Ironsides to the fanatical elite troop of Puritans. 1648 Cromwell defeats Scots at Preston, who are supported by Charles I. After "purification" with the army "the Rump" parliament accuses the king. The process ends with the execution of Charles I (January 30, 1649) and liquidation of monarchy. It is a first such case in a modern European history, which became an example for other revolutions.

1649-1660 England is a Commonwealth; it is ruled with "the Rump" parliament without the House of Lords and the state council. New religious sects like Levellers with communist demands appear. Like already the Athenian revolution, the English one causes dictatorship (military dictatorship of Puritans) and becomes expansionist. Under the leadership of Cromwell the Puritan purification of Catholic Ireland (1649) with total requisition of lands and of Scotland (1650/51) takes place. The successes in foreign politics against Holland and Spain follow. 1651 Navigation act is edited, directed against the Dutch intermediary trade: all wares to and from England have to be transported only with English ships. After the dismissal of the parliament Cromwell becomes a Lord Protector 1653. His secretary is John Milton. The revolution is on its top. The first English-Dutch war takes place 1652-54 under the leadership of Admiral Robert Blake. Then war against Spain follows (1654-59): Jamaica (1655) and Dunkirk (1658) are conquered. The strict Puritan domination in England with checking of life (theatre is prohibited, Sunday celebration is obligatory). 1658 Cromwell dies. His eldest son Richard Cromwell rules for one year and retires. After one year of anarchy General Monk restores monarchy. The descent of revolution begins.

Charles II, son of Charles I, rules 1660-85, being 30 years old. He was educated at the court of Louis XIV. His imitation of French absolutism, persecution of Puritans and the restoration of the Anglican state church (Act of Uniformity 1662) cause new tensions between crown and parliament. 1665/6 London is destroyed with plague and fire. The second English-Dutch war (with victories of Dutch admiral de Ruyter) takes place 1665-67. According to the peace of Breda 1667, New Amsterdam (New York) is exchanged for Surinam. With the help of the Cabal (abbreviation of names of five ministers) ministry (1667-73) the king concludes a secret treaty of Dover with Louis XIV (1670) and wins an unpopular third Dutch war (1672-74). The king's Declaration of Indulgence (1672) to the favor of Catholics and dissenters is answered with the Test Act of parliament (1673) – exclusion of all non-Anglicans from state offices – and the Habeas Corpus Act (1679): protection from sudden imprisonment and securing of personal freedom ("My home, my castle!"). In the parliament parties of Whigs

(nickname of Scotch peasants – opponents of Catholic Stuarts) and Tories (Irish gangsters – conservative, Anglican and royalist).

Another son of Charles I James II (52 years old) rules 1685-88; he tries to make a Catholic restoration, which causes a sharp revolt of the Anglican church and of the Whigs (W. Russell; Shaftesbury). Because of the unexpected birth of a throne successor James III the danger of a lasting Catholic dynasty appears. Therefore Whigs and Tories call William III of Orange, the grandson of Charles I (“For the Protestant religion and a free parliament”). 1688 the “Glorious Revolution” with unbloody course takes place; James II flees to France; campaign of William III against the Catholic “Jacobites” in Ireland follows; 1690 the battle at the Boyne River and the capitulation of Limerick (1690).

With the Declaration (Bill) of Rights (1689) the English bourgeois revolution, began in 1640, is over. Now the parliamentary (the gentry and city) approval of taxes, the freedom of speech, absence of a permanent army is obligatory. The division of powers is accomplished. The Toleration Act permits everyone except Catholics, Jews and Unitarians to worship as they please. England becomes the first trade and capital power of the world. 1694 the Bank of England is founded. Absolutism is succeeded with a constitutional monarchy. The French politics of hegemony is overcome with the principle of balance of power, therefore the war with France takes place (1689-1697). The sea rivalry is decided to the favor of England (which remains in the personal union with Holland till 1702). The French-English colonial dualism appears.

France in 17th century.

1610 Henry IV was killed by a Huguenote. Under his successor Louis XIII (1610-43) the absolute state, theoretically elaborated by Jean Bodin and Thomas Hobbes. 1614 États généraux were summoned for the last time. Politically absolutism is represented by Cardinal Richelieu (1624-42), 39 years old. He fights with the opposition of high aristocracy and with the political (not religious) special rights of the Huguenots, whose last stronghold (La Rochelle) was taken 1628. A permanent army and the province administration: governors from aristocracy were succeeded by intendants (king’s officials) and the king’s magistrates in towns; the seigneurs have the administration and police rights in the provinces. But the selling of offices and parlements (higher courts) cannot be removed. 1635 foundation of Académie Française for the protection of art and science. In the foreign politics state fights with neighboring Habsburgs and tries to restore the “natural frontiers of Gallia” – Pyreneans and Rhine; therefore he supports also the Protestant princes in Germany, becomes intermediary in Polish-Swedish Baltic Sea conflict (1629 ceasefire of Altmärk), 1635 intrudes into the 30 years war.

His successor Cardinal Mazarini (1643-61), 41 years old, continues the politics of Richelieu.

1648-1653 the last big revolt of aristocracy (Fronde), supported by the Paris parliament (supreme French court with control right over king’s decrees). France is more backward than England, therefore the revolt is unsuccessful, nobility loses political significance. 1648 France gets territories (vicariate over Metz, Toul, Verdun) in Westphalian peace, securing the Rhine frontier. War against Spain is continued till 1659 (Pyreneans peace). As results of it Spain descends, France ascends to European great power. Begin of the ‘French epoch’.

Louis XIV (22 years, 1643-1715), the “Sun king”, takes the government. His goal is hegemony in Europe and rounding of state in the west and in the north (the Rhine frontier). Louvois (1641-91), war minister after 1668, increases the permanent army till 170,000 people (the French population is 18 million people). He introduces uniforms, better equipment (bajonettes), divides troops into infantry, cavalry, artillery and degrees of service. King himself nominates and pays to the (noble) officers. Led by the generals Turenne, Condé, Luxembourg, the French army is the greatest and the best in the Europe. Vauban (1633-1707) revolutionizes the building of fortresses with star-form bastions; therefore the technics of siege and the whole way of war change.

In the foreign policy France is supported by Rhine alliance, directed against Habsburg, and makes unions with “neighbors of neighbors” – Sweden, Poland, Hungary, even Turkey, the “chain dog of Europe”. The preferred means of diplomacy is subsidies (money for political help). 1667/8 (Devolutions) war against Spain on the ground of the dubious pretensions upon Brabant. England and Holland conclude a peace of Breda, make a triple alliance with Sweden and cause Louis XIV to make a peace of Aachen (1668). The “revenge to Holland” (economic concurrence) is prepared with unions with Charles II of England (1670), Sweden (1672) and some imperial bishops (Cologne, Munster). 1670 France occupies Lotharingia. 1672-78 war against Holland: Jan de Witt, leader of “regent party” is overthrown. William III of Orange (22 years) is nominated general statthouder for the life time. The land is defended with the opening of dams. 1672/73 anti-French alliance under leadership of Austria (Lisola) is made; Louis XIV favors the French elected candidate in Poland (Jan Sobieski) and the Hungarian revolt; Brandenburg is bound with the Swedish attack. 1678 peace of Nimwegen: Holland does not lose territories; Spain gives the free duchy Burgundy. Despite its military success, Brandenburg has to refuse from Swedish Prepomera with Stettin in the peace of St. Germain 1679; Great Cour prince, dissatisfied with the politic of emperor, makes a subsidy union with Louis XIV and tolerates his reunion policy for the “Peaceful conquest of Rhine frontier”, which is decided by the French reunion chamber. 1681 Strasburg is annexed with the solemn entrance of Louis XIV. Catholic state church is secured with the ‘Gallican articles’ (Bossuet), approved with the national council of Paris (1682). According to them king has the right to nominate the church officials; the Pope’s decisions are censured. 1684 Luxemburg is annexed. Frontiers are secured with system of fortresses. Bound with attack of Turks, emperor accepts the reunions in the cease-fire of Regensburg (1684). Protestants are persecuted with dragonades (military quarterings). 1685 the Nantes edict is abolished; half a million of hugenottes flee en mass; the mercantile economy, developed by Colbert (1619-83) – the first state-ruled national economy of the modern times with statistic budget planning and regulated book-keeping with active trade balance, state monopoly and subvention of crafts manufactures with the division of labor – is gravely damaged; critics of absolutism begins (Fénelon). The refugees are received for all in Holland and in Brandenburg. 1686 the anti-French revolt in the Augsburg league; despite it, Louis XIV makes hereditary pretensions for Pfalz for his sister-in-law Elisabeth Charlotte – “Liselotte”. Therefore the Pfalz war begins (1689-97). After the French attack in South Germany the Great alliance under William III of Orange is built 1689 for the preservation of European equilibrium. Pfalz is devastated with the destruction of Worms, emperor’s tombs in Speyer and the Heidelberg castle. 1692 the sea battle at La Hogue with the decisive defeat of new French fleet takes place. Alliance is destroyed after the peace of Rijswijk (1697): first loses of Louis XIV, but Strasburg and reunions in Elsass are preserved.

The absolutist France preserves the privileges of nobility and clergy under the absolute power of the king (“L’état c’est moi”); the bourgeoisie takes part at the economic ascent and can become the office nobility (noblesse de robe), buying the offices. Small bourgeoisie and peasants finance the state with high tax burdens. The conservation of absolutist state makes France more and more backward in comparison with neighboring England and Holland, which brings defeats in the foreign policy. Despite it, absolutism is introduced in other European states (Sweden, Austria, Brandenburg).

The Barocco.

The Barocco (Port. barocco - unregular pearl) as court style epoch represents the life feeling of contre-reformation and absolutism, organically succeeds the Renaissance, also comes from Italy, initially propagates in the Catholic south, as well as in the Netherlands and develops to the first world style. The art finds its typical expression in the church and prince buildings.

The architecture tries the “great style” (after H. Wölfflin) in the connection with plastics and painting through picturesque forms, luxurious massivity and decorative ornamentation. In the church building (Il Gesu in Rome 1585) the central and cupola buildings with oval plane unite with hanging main room in light colors (white, gold): ceiling paintings, sculptures, decorative ornaments, turned forms of columns. Alike elements are shown with castle (for example Versailles, projected by Mansart, died 1708, built 1624-1708; the inside decoration of Lebrun, 1648-1708), encircled with geometric parks (Lenôtre, 1613-1700); decorated central building with ladder house, side building and galleries, elevated corner pavillons. The residence town is directed to the castle (for example, Karlsruhe). In Italy the leading architects are Borromini (1599-1667) and Bernini (1598-1680); in Franconia the family Dientzenhofer and Balthasar Neumann (1687-1753), architects of prince castles of Schönborn. In Bavaria brothers Asam, in Westfaly Schlaun, in Saxony Bähr, in Austria Johannes Fischer von Erlach (1656-1723: palaces of nobles, Karl’s church, palace library, plans of the castle Schönbrunn); Lukas von Hildebrand (1668-1745; castle Belvedere); Jakob Prandtauer (1660-1726; monastery of Melk). In Berlin palace residence with buildings of Eosander (1670-1729) and Andreas Schlüter (1664-1714): castle and old bridge. Under the protection of queen Sophie Charlotte the academy of art (1696) and the academy of sciences (1701) are founded. Jones (1573-1652) and Wren (1632-1723) represent the strictest Palladianism.

In Italy the musical style changes through the uniting of the old and the invention of new forms (fuga, suite, cantata, concerto grosso, sonata). Monody wins over the polyphone composition (contrapoint), the church tones are reduced till dur and moll with stressing of melody and harmony (general bass). Frescobaldi (died 1643) and Corelli (1653-1713) build the “ars nuova” (organ, vocal and instrumental music), introduced by Purcell in England. The religious oratorium is developed as the lyric-epical tone creation: Monteverdi (1567-1643), Cavalli and Scarlatti developed the oper from dramatic recitative and lyrical aria (ca. 1600, Jacobo Peri). With Italian chapel masters it comes to the European prince courts. Lully (1632-87) founds the heroic opera. Schütz (1585-1672) and Buxtehude (1636-1707) develop the German music.

In the painting Spain and Netherlands are leading. Religious topics are pictured by El Greco (1541-1613) and Murillo (1617-82), Velázquez (1599-1660) pictures the court life. Flemish school is developed by Peter Paul Rubens (1577-1640) and Van Dyck (1599-1641): barocco allegories, portraits. The Dutch school creates realistic pictures of customs, sea pictures,

landscapes (Frans Hals, 1580-1666, Jan Steen, Ruysdael, Vermeer etc.); Rembrandt van Rijn (1606-69) makes portraits and group pictures.

In the whole, in the second sub-period religious wars continue; absolutism wins in some European states. In Netherlands and Britain early bourgeois revolutions win under the Protestant leadership, but monarchies are not liquidated. Epoch of Barocco in the art. In the ideology rationalism and mysticism fight, the political ideas of the new time begin to be developed.

Questions:

1. Describe the political situation in the first sub-period.
2. What were the main causes of the Reformation?
3. What was the historical significance of the Renaissance?
4. Describe political events of the second sub-period.
5. Who profited from the early bourgeois revolutions?
6. Why France and other European countries preferred absolutism to the revolutionary changes?

3. Eastern Europe in 1450-1700.

11(4) period – 1480-1533 (1480-1530).

The period of rule of Ivan III (1462-1505) and Vasily III (1505-1533).

Period begins from the victory of Ivan III over the Golden Horde and the overthrowing of “Mongol-Tartar yoke”. The victory over Tartars was achieved with the help of Tartars themselves – the Crimea khan supported Rus. The unification of Russian lands around Moscow continues, Tver (1485), Vyatka (1489), Chernigov and Smolensk (1503), Pskov (1510) and Ryazan (1521) came to Moscow. 1502 the attack to Livland is unsuccessful. The former princes now sit in the Boyar duma, which as the layer representative institution corresponds to the Western parliaments, which appeared some ages earlier (English – 1265; French – 1302). Moscow Rus had contacts to the West, for the building of Kremlin and its cathedrals the western architects are invited, among them Aristotele Fioravanti. The period of the utmost flourishing of Moscow state, which still remains in the late Middle Ages in 16th century, when the Europe is already in the new time, which is testified by Renaissance and Reformation. In Rus mysticism strengthens too (which is connected with the expectation of the “end of the world” in 1492=7000, such expectations were also in Europe at the end of 15th century), the movements of Jusaizers and non-owners (“nestyazhateli”) of Nil Sorsky (1433-1509) appear. But according to their amount and signification they cannot be compared with Reformation, they look more like Millenarians (Ioachim Fiori) and other heretics of 13-14th centuries in Europe. 1499 the Bible is fully translated into Old Slavonic (in Novgorod, which is very close to the West, some books are even translated from Latin, not from Greek). But in the period of flourishing mysticism never has the mass support, in difference to the begin (Sergy of Radonezh) or at the end of macroperiod (old believers). The state needs the adequate laws; therefore the law code (Sudebnik) of 1497 is published. In difference to Europe, where the serfdom was abolished long ago, in Russia the secondary enserfment of peasants begins (connected with the increasing needs and demands of feudals).

Alike processes soon will begin in the Polish-Lithuanian state, which loses a part of lands into the favor of Russia. The Lithuanian state in the 6th period of its existence (1470-1510) decays more and more, later the ideas of Reformation began to propagate there. After the death of Kasimir III (1492) John I Albrecht and Alexander rule there, 1506 the power was taken by Sigismund I (1506-1548). The state becomes the szlachta (nobility) republic more and more, the concessus (liberum veto) for all the laws is needed from 1505. The Cossacks (turk. “free men”) begin to be formed at Dnieper.

12 (5) period – 1533-1584 (1530-1580).

This is a period of rule of Ivan IV Terrible, the begin of decay of Moscow state. The years of childhood of Ivan IV were darkened with the fight of Boyars for power. 1547 Ivan IV became the first czar of Russia as the successor not only of Byzance, but also of Mongol-Tartar khans of Golden Horde. This circumstance determined the eastern expansion of Rus, as well as the necessity of defence against the Tartar attacks. 1552 the Kazan, 1556 Astrakhan khanate were conquered, and 1581 – 1584 the campaign of Ermak against the Siberian khanate takes place, which was a Russian vassal from 1569. Russia remained the Asiatic state, it explains its active policy in this direction. Only Krim khanate remained independent, which became a vassal of Turkey and caused a lot of damage both to Moscow Rus and to Polish-Lithuanian state. The settlement of Southern Russia by Russians continues, the first contacts with Caucasus are established.

In the same time the contacts with Europe continued, the trade with England was made through the White Sea, 1554 English Moscow company is founded, 1584 Arkhangelsk was founded. The German ambassadors also came to Russia, for example Herbertstein (1549), who gave to it the critical description in his “Rerum Moscovitarum commentarii”. The western vector of the Moscow Rus politics is testified also by Livonic war (1558-1582), which was unsuccessful for Russia in the end. The Livonian order was destroyed, but its territories came to Sweden and Poland, the main enemies of Russia in the coming century.

The inner politics of the czar had its successes (Sudebnik of 1550, Stoglav of 1551, creation of prikazy (a kind of ministries) and the army of streltsy), as well as many mistakes (the unneeded executions with the condemnation of treasure, oprichnina (creation of king's domain with special rule) of 1564-1572, the sinless devastation of Novgorod in 1570 etc.). The insertment of peasants strengthens, 1581 the "Yury day" for transition of peasants from lord to lord is abolished.

In 16th century the secular literature appears (in Western Europe it happened some centuries ago), among it "Domostroy" – a code of behavior of town dwellers and the correspondence of Ivan the Terrible himself with fled to Lithuania "dissident" prince Kurbsky, where the influence of the colloquial language is big. In the religious life the Vitas of Saints by Macarius was the great event. 1564 (120 years later, than in the West) in Russia the book printing appears (Ivan Fedorov). The achievements of architecture of this time are great (the cathedral of Vasily Blazhenny in Moscow).

The Lithuanian state is in the last period of its existence (1510-1569), according to the Lublin union of 1569 it unites finally with Poland, and the whole Ukraine comes under the Polish rule, therefore the separation between Ukraine and Belorussia takes place. In the Ukraine the Cossacks strengthen, nominally they serve to the Polish king in his fight with Tartars and Turks, as well as with the Moscow state, de facto it becomes the separate force more and more. From 1572 the elected kings rule the state, among them the famous general Stefan Bathory (1575-1586), who strengthens the army with Cossacs and makes three victorious campaigns against Ivan IV. The typical for the last epoch flourishing of culture in Poland and Lithuania takes place, 1579 the Vilnius university is founded. To the country humanism, reformation and contrreformation invade. In Belorussia the first printer Georgy Skaryna (who worked in Prague some tens of years earlier, than Ivan Fedorov) and Simon Budny, the reformator of anti-Trinitarian belief and the Bible translator become famous. The literary language changes significantly, the Polish and colloquial elements dominate there, but the foundation remains Old Russian. The language itself is understood by the carriers as "Russian" or "simple language".

13 (6) period (1584-1645, ca. 1580-1640).

The complicated epoch for the Moscow Rus, which stays at the eve of perishing in the begin of 17th century. The last representative of Rurik dynasty was Fedor Ioannovich (1584-1598). Under him the metropolitan of all Russia gets the title of patriarch of Moscow (1589). Although formally he was the fifth in the list of patriarchs, but really was the first (according to the amount of believers and because the other patriarchs were on the territory of the Osman empire). 1598 the Siberian khanate is finally conquered, but it included only a part of Western Siberia, and the movement of Russians to Siberia continues.

The successor of Fedor Ivanovich was his brother-in-law Boris Godunov (1598-1605), who had ruled earlier de facto. The strengthening of serfdom takes place, already 1597 according to the law about "urochnye gody" (the term years) the landlord got the right to look for fled peasants for five years. 1601-1603 the severe hunger takes place, described in "Skazanie (Story)" of Avraamy Palitsin. The revolts of peasants and of town poor increase. This situation is used by the foreign enemies – Polish, whose king Sigismund III Wasa (1587-1632) wanted to occupy whole Russia, having broken (as later Napoleon and Hitler) the ceasefire with Russians, concluded 1601 for twenty-two years. Initially he uses the service of Pseudo-Demetrius I, who could come to power with the help of Polish troops 1605. But his pro-Catholic (i.e. pro-Western) course causes the indignation of people, and already 1606 Wasily Shuisky come to power. In his time the revolt of Bolotnikov takes place, who besieged Moscow in October-November 1606. Pseudo-Demetrius II with residence in Tushino also threatens Moscow, he can sustain one and a half years with the Polish help, and Sapega and Lisowsky besiege Troitse-Sergieva lavra (monastery). In the fight with Poland Russia has to ask Sweden for help, concluding with them the Byborg treaty of 1609, having rejected the pretensions to Livonia. But already 1610 the Polish army under the leadership of Zholkiewski defeats Russians at Klushino, as result of it Shuisky was dethroned, and the son of Sigismund – Wladislaw (later the king of Poland Wladislaw III 1632-1648) was proclaimed to the king

of Russia. Moscow was occupied by Poles and Novgorod – by Swedes. Russian Orthodox Church (especially the patriarch Hermogen) and the provincial persons (Lyapunov, Minin, Pozharsky) were the organizers of resistance. Already 1612 Moscow was liberated.

1613 Mikhail Romanov, a son of Patriarch Filaret, the maternal cousin of Fedor Ioannovich, was proclaimed to the king by Zemsky sobor (land council). The struggle with Sweden and Poland continued some more years, according to Stolbov peace treaty of 1617 Russia lost Ingermanland and a part of Carelia, and Poles occupied Smolensk again. Further rule of Mikhail Fedorovich was more peaceful, excluding the unsuccessful Smolensk war with Poland 1632-34 (in the same time the Thirty years war of 1618-1648 took place in Europe), the movement to Siberia continued, till 1645 Russians came till Amur river and the shores of Okhotsk Sea. Typologically this colonization corresponds to the conquest of Latin America by Spain, which took place 120 years later. Russia became the biggest according to the territory Asiatic state and had now the common frontier with China, where 1644 the Manchu dynasty of Qing came to power, which also had an active foreign policy; it could bring the conflict. On the other side, the fact itself of the short rule of Pseudo-Demetrius and Polish in Moscow testifies about the further nearing of Russia and Europe.

The important events take place also in the Ukraine, which from 1569 entered into Poland. The politics of catholicization, especially the Brest union of 1596, and the strengthening of feudal exploitation cause protests and revolts. The polemic literature in “Russian” (with a lot of Polish and people’s elements) develops, Ivan Vishensky was famous polemist. 1619 the “Slavonic grammar” of Melety Smotritsky is published, which was used almost 200 years for the education, also in Russia (it was studied by Mikhail Lomonosov). The “brotherhood” schools are founded, 1620 the Kiev academy is founded (founded by Metropolitan Peter Mohyla), which corresponded to the western universities (Latin and rhetorics were studied there). Notice that Ukraine and Belorussia, which were a part of the Polish-Lithuanian state, had still retardation from the West Europe, but are a bit more progressive in that time than Russia. Despite the conversion of some bishops into the unia, Ukraine and Belorussia in the whole remain Orthodox, which strengthens their connection to Russia. A lot of Cossack revolts takes place, among them 1591-193 of Kosinsky, 1594-1597 of Nalivaiko, 1630 of Tryasylo, 1635 of Sulyma, 1637 of Pavlyuk etc. The famous leader of Cossacks was Peter Sahaidachny, who fought with Turks and was killed 1622. The Ukrainian people’s songs – dumy (“thoughts”) appear, which are dedicated to the fight of Cossacks. The Ukraine is on the eve of civil war with Polish landlords.

14 (7) period (1645-1700, ca. 1640-1700).

This is a last period of Moscow Rus, the epoch of rule of Alexey Mikhailovich (1645-1676), Fedor Alexeevich (1676-1682), queen Sofia (1682-1689), the common rule of Peter I and Ioann V (1689-1696) and the begin of the autocratic rule of Peter I till the Northern war (1696-1700).

The colonization of Siberia continues. Russians come till Kamchatka and Bering strait, discovered by Semen Dezhnev 1648. Movement into Siberia and Amur region causes the conflict with China, 1683-1687 Russian defend Albazin upon Amur, as result of it emperor Kangxi concludes the Nerchinsk treaty of 1689, which regulated the frontier question.

On the European direction Russia uses the war of Ukrainian Cossacks for independence under leadership of Bogdan Chmielnitcki with Poland (1648-1654) for the uniting with Ukraine (Small Russia). Bogdan, united with Crimea Tatars, fights against Jeremi Wisniowiecki, a Polonized Russian Prince, owner of enormous domains in the Ukraine and a private army of 3000 men 1648-51, and other magnats. But the union of Ukraine with Russia, declared by Pereyaslav rada (council) of 1654, brought only the new war with Poland, which ended by Andrusov ceasefire of 1667 and the eternal peace of 1686, according to which only the Left shore Ukraine with Kiev was united with Russia, and Smolensk was returned. In the same time the Right shore Ukraine remained under the Polish government. Ukraine had autonomy and was ruled by hetmans, first of whom was Bogdan Chmielnicki himself (1593-1657). Russia and Poland had common enemies – Turkey and Sweden, which

favoured the union of recent enemies. In the Ukraine itself the “great ruin” takes place – the civil war, as result of which the refugees settle so called Sloboda Ukraine (Kharkov, Sumy etc.). The war with Turkey was unsuccessful in the whole, 1695-96 Azov was taken, but 1700 the peace treaty was concluded.

In the economic plan a lot of changes, the common Russian market is formed, the first Russian rubles (talers were their example) are minted (the kopecks existed from 16th century). 1649 the “Sobornoe ulozhenie” (Council code) is published – the Russian law code, which definitely inserted the peasants. The czar’s power strengthens. Russia enters into the epoch of absolutism, typical for the 1st period of modern time. In the country many revolts of town dwellers and peasant wars take place (1648 and 1662 in Moscow, 1666 Vasily Us, 1667-1671 of Stepan Razin etc.). The peasant war of Stepan Razin corresponds typologically to the peasant war in Germany in 1525 and to the revolt of Robert Kett in England 1549. Notice that the powerful peasant revolts took place in England and France already in 14th century and finished with the abolishment of serfdom, but in Russia of 17th century it was strengthened (like in Germany after 1525). One of the features of transition of Russia into the new epoch of modern time (with the retardation about 150 years from the progressive countries of Europe) was a reform of Nikon. In difference to western Reformation, in the Russian Orthodoxy the ritual reforms stood at the first place. But they caused the mighty resistance and “contrreformation” – raskol (schism) old believers. Nikon himself was fired (because of his striving for the absolute power, equal or even more than king’s one), but reform continued. Causing many revolts (the most powerful of them is – Solovetstky revolt 1668-1676).

As generally in the last epoch, the flourishing of culture takes place. Into Russia the western influences (mostly from the territory of Poland) come more and more, Simeon Polotsky writes poems in the Western style. 1672-1676 the court theatre exists. Simon Ushakov was the most famous painter (1626-86), in the architecture – the shatrovy (camp) style. 1687 the Slavonic-Greek-Latin academy in Moscow is opened (de facto the first university), earlier (1666) the university in Polish Lvov is opened. As the original genre of secular literature the satirical story is developed. The “Vita of protopope Avvakum”, a leader of old believers, is the first autobiography in Russia. The book printing and the primary education expands. The creation of people’s songs and dumas continues.

In 19th period Moscow Rus is liberated from “Mongol-Tartar yoke”, unites the Great Russian territories and expands. Russia great prince becomes czar – a successor of Byzance. He rules despotically over his subjects, like the eastern emperor. The religion remains oriental, despite some ritual reforms. Russia defends from the foreign invasion in the begin of 17th century and extends, acquiring Small Russia and Siberia. With retardation of 150 years it enters into the modern time. The main direction of Russia’s development on the stage of Moscow Rus – from Asia to Europe, but for the full integration of Russia to Europe the great reformer was needed, this part was played by Peter the Great.

Questions:

1. What were the main features of Russian development at the end of 15th – begin of 16th century?
2. Describe the epoch of Ivan the Terrible.
3. What were the main features of crisis in Russia at the begin of 17th century?
4. Describe the epoch of Alexey Mikhailovich.
5. What changes were needed for Russia, if any?

4. Jews in 1450-1700.

A. Jews in Europe.

1. Spain and Portugal.

1460: Juan Arias Davila, son of converse Diego Arias, who was Henry IV's treasurer, becomes bishop of Segovia. In a work entitled "Fortress of the Faith", Alfonso de Spina becomes a spokesman for "radical anti-Semitism": he proposes the establishment of a new inquisition, denounces the "atrocious crimes" of the Jews, and cites the example of expulsions from other lands as precedents for the legitimacy and expediency of expelling the Jews and extirpating the "Jewish heresy".

1460-67: A Papal inquisition in Valencia conducts numerous trials against Conversos suspected of Judaizing.

1465: A solemn and secret ceremony of admitting a Converso back to Judaism (accompanied by circumcision), conducted by Abraham Biago, one of the most original thinkers in Aragon.

1467: Renewed riots in Toledo; renewal of the statute of 1449.

1473, March: Attacks on Conversos in Cordoba and other towns in Andalusia; an edict in Cordoba prohibits New Christians from serving in public offices.

1483, January 1: Expulsion of Jews of Andalusia.

1486, May: The general chapter of the Hieronymite Order investigates Judaizing practices in its monasteries, and decides to prohibit the admission of New Christians. 1495 Pope Alexander VI ratifies a statute which prohibits the admission of all New Christians down to the fourth generation.

1488: the book "Alboraique" is written by an author close to Torquemada. The term (from Borak, the Mohammad's beast, which was neither horse nor mule) signifies New Christian, portrayed neither as Christians nor Jews. The Conversos have no place within a Christian society; being heretics, disloyal, and lazy, they can neither pray, fight, nor work.

1490, December 17: In Avila a trial takes place concerning the "child of La Guardia": Jews and Conversos are accused of crucifying a child and performing acts of sorcery designed to bring about the destruction of Christianity.

1492: March, 20 a plan for expulsion of the Jews is presented to the king by Torquemada. March, 31 the Catholic kings sign the edict of expulsion. April, 29 the edict is published. In August the last departures of Jews.

1493, January 12: Last date set for the departure of the Jews from Sicily.

1496, December 5: Edict of expulsion of the Jews from Portugal.

1497, April-October: Expulsion from Portugal "commuted" to forced conversion.

1506, April: Attacks on New Christians in Lisbon.

1525-28: David Reuveni's stay in Portugal, after he was received by Pope Clement VII 1524; presenting himself as an ambassador from the kingdom of the Lost Tribes, Reuveni was regarded by new Christians in Portugal as a harbinger of a Messiah.

1536, May: Pope Paul III institutes the Portuguese inquisition.

1547, July: The Church of Toledo adopts a "purity of blood" statute.

1627: After the bankruptcy which ruined many Genoese bankers, Count-Duke Olivares, Philip IV's all-powerful minister, recalls "New Christians" Portuguese financiers. His fall in 1643 also leads to their downfall.

1646-1647 Antonio Vieira, a Portuguese Jesuit statesman, meets with Manasseh ben Israel in Holland; in 1646 Vieira advocates abolishing the disabilities of New Christians in Portugal. In the whole, the situation of Jews in Spain and Portugal (Marranos) was difficult. They were expelled and fled to other countries, the Conversos were often judged by the Inquisition.

2. Western Europe.

In the first sub-period (1450-1575) the persecutions of Jews continue.

1462: "Martyrdom" of André of Rinn (Tyro).

1463 the first "monte di pieta" (charitable loan bank) is established in Perugia.

1475 the Jews of Tarent are accused of the ritual murder of a Christian infant named Simon; the libelous affair leads to the expulsion of Jews from the town. 1475-1495 anti-Jewish outbreaks on many towns of Provence follow. After its annexation to the kingdom of France in 1481, Jews are expelled from Arles (1493) and Tarascon (1496). 1485: "Martyrdom" of Lorenzino de Sossio (northern Italy). 1493: Following the expulsion of Spain, Jews are forced to leave Sicily and Sardinia which under Aragonese rule. 1494: First evidence of Jews in Tudor England.

1500-1501 edicts of expulsion of the Jews from Provence. 1507 the apostate Pfefferkorn demands the confiscation of the Talmud; Reuchlin takes on the the defense of Hebrew writings. The polemic becomes the occasion for an open confrontation between the humanists and the "obscurantists". 1509-1516, when Venetian territories are invaded by the armies of League of Cambrai, Jews from the mainland are admitted into the town. 1510, November: Partial expulsion of the Jews from the Kingdom of Naples. In 1516 the government of Venice encloses the Jews in a walled quarter (getto or ghetto) situated near a foundry. 1519, February 21 Jews are expelled from Regensburg.

1530: A disputation between Joselmann of Rosheim and the apostate Anton Margarita is conducted during the Diet of Augsburg in the presence of Charles V; convicted of imposture, Margarita is imprisoned and then banished from Augsburg.

1536 the Jews are expelled from Saxony.

1538: Reformer Martin Bucer, in his proposal concerning the status of Jews in the principality of Hesse, insists that they should be confined to the lowest estate.

1541: Expulsion of the wealthy Jews of Spanish southern Italy who had been allowed to remain under previous edicts.

1544: The "Great Privilege" granted by Charles V to the Jews of the German Empire.

1550, August: Letters patent from Henri II allowing Portuguese New Christians to settle in France. After 1550 the only remaining important Jewish communities in German lands are Frankfort and Worms.

1553 Pope Julius III orders the burning of the Talmud in Rome and throughout Italy. 1554 all Hebrew books are submitted to censorship. 1555 Pope Paul IV orders the segregation of the Jews of Rome. The age of the ghetto begins. 1556 the burning of conversos in Ancona.

1565 several Jewish families are allowed to settle in Metz, one of the three bishoprics held by the King of France since 1552.

1569 Pius V expels the Jews from all papal states, except Rome and Ancona. 1571 expulsion of the Jews from Tuscany, except the ghettos in Florence and Sienna.

1572 the Duke of Savoy considers giving the Jews permission to settle in Nice, but renounces his plan under pressure from Spain and the Pope.

1574 Henri III renews the letters patent of 1550 which accorded to Portuguese New Christians the right to settle in France.

1575 the Jews are expelled from the Calvinist Palatinate.

In the second sub-period (1575-1700) the situation of the Jews becomes better.

1577 Rudolf II confirms the ordinance of 1567 permitting the residence of Jews in Prague and grants privileges to Jewish craftsmen, thus attempting to break the monopoly of the guilds.

1589 Venice accords full liberty of religious practice to former Marranos from Spain and Portugal; ten-year residence permission is granted to Levantine and Western Jews.

1593: Portuguese conversos establish a community in Livorno (Leghorn), to become the most important of Italian Jewish communities. They are protected from persecution by the Roman inquisition by a charter of the Great Duke of Tuscany.

1594, June 7: Execution of Dr. Rodrigo Lopez on charges of treason and plotting to poison Elisabeth I.

1595-1600 Beginning of a Jewish presence in Amsterdam.

1597: Philip II of Spain orders the expulsion of the Jews from the Duchy of Milan.

1609: On suspicion on being Jewish, Portuguese merchants are expelled from London.

1614: Agitation of the guild craftsmen in Frankfort is followed by anti-Jewish riots.

1615: The Estates of the provinces of Holland asks Hugo Grotius and another lawyer, Adriaan Pauw, to draw up regulations for the admission of Jews and the conditions of their settlement,

but decide to allow each city to make its own policy towards the Jews. Louis XII reiterates the interdict on Jewish residence in the kingdom of France.

1621: With the renewal of the war against the United Provinces, Spain prohibits all traffic with Dutch nationals; about a quarter of Amsterdam Jews (between 300 to 500 persons) whose livelihood depended on the import of goods from the Portuguese colonial empire, leave Amsterdam and settle in Hamburg.

1633: With the intervention of Richelieu, the King's Council acquits "Portuguese" merchants in Rouen who were accused of Judaizing.

1639: Founding of a unified Portuguese Jewish community in Amsterdam.

1655: October, 31: Manasseh ben Israel's "To the Lord Protector (Oliver Cromwell)...

Humble Address in Favour of the Jewish nation". November, 14: Cromwell selects the members of the Whitehall Conference for the readmission of the Jews to England. December, 4-18: The Whitehall Conference meets, but fails to come to a decision, and is angrily dismissed by Cromwell, who resolves to settle the issue informally.

1656, March 24: In the time of the Anglo-Spanish war English Jews petition Cromwell, declaring themselves Marranos rather than enemy Spaniards; Cromwell declines to issue a written reply, but tacitly permits them to remain in England and to live and worship freely.

1657: Letters patent confirming the privileges of the Jews of Metz.

1660: There are only 150 Jews in England.

1664, August 22: Jews petition Charles II who grants a formal written statement of toleration.

1670: The Great Elector invites Jews expelled from Vienna to settle in Brandenburg.

1673: Religious liberty is granted to the Jewish community in England.

1674, 1685: Further royal declarations confirming the promises of 1664.

1682: Innocent XI orders the closing of the Jewish banks in Rome and through the papal states.

1684: During the siege of Buda in Hungary, the Jews are accused of aiding the Turkish defenders of the city; pogroms in Italy; the Padua ghetto is attacked and pillaged.

1690: The number of Jews in England increases to 400.

1697: Limitation of the number of "Jew Brokers" in the City of London to 12.

1698: The Act for Suppressing Blasphemy grants implicit recognition to the legality of the practice of Judaism in England.

1700, June 23: Solomon de Medina is knighted by William III.

In the whole, the Jews are gravely persecuted in the first sub-period, but their situation becomes better in the second.

3. Eastern Europe.

1495 Jews are expelled from Lithuania; according to some scholars it was related to the "Judaizing heresy". Poland at the time has a population of between 10,000 to 30,000 Jews. But already 1505 Jews are allowed to return to Lithuania subject to the condition that they finance army units.

1569, after the Union of Lublin between the kingdom of Poland and the Great Duchy of Lithuania, Jews take an active part in the founding of new towns in the frontier region.

1580, November 22: the earliest detailed ordinance of the Council of the Four Lands, organized by Jews, which limited the extent of land-leasing that is permitted to any individual, is presented.

1603: First Haskamah ("agreement", "approbation") of the Council of the Four Lands for the printing of a book.

1606: The Council of Four Lands asks the rabbinical authorities to write a detailed code of ordinances regulating the economic activities of Polish Jews, particularly the permissibility of changing interest.

1623: The earliest remaining ordinances of the Council of the Four Lands in Lithuania: they concern various economic activities, distribution of the fiscal burden, and questions pertaining to the social organization of the Lithuanian communities.

1648-49 the long march of “Chmiel the Wicked”, as Hetman Bogdan Chmielnicky is called in Jewish annals, destroys numerous Jewish communities. On June 10, in the single community of Nemirow, about 6000 Jews are massacred. In September Hetman lifts the siege of Lvov in return for a ransom paid in part by the local Jewish community.

1649-1660: The Councils of Poland and Lithuania adopt measures to aid victims of Cossack pogroms: ransoming of prisoners sold to the Tatars or deported to Lithuania during the Russo-Polish war, and solving the problem of agunot – women whose husbands had disappeared and could not remarry until declared widows.

1652: The Lithuanian council rules that every community should maintain a Yeshivah.

1654-56 the Russo-Swedish war brings the Russian armies to the northeastern parts of Poland-Lithuania; the Russians chase the Jews of the region's towns; in Moghilev the Cossacs massacre the Jewish population; in other places forced conversions are followed by deportations to interior Russia. As the Swedes advance, Jews are accused of collaborating with the invaders and are victimized by the local population.

1664: Anti-Jewish riots in Lvov.

1670-72: The Council of the four Lands excommunicates twice all adherents of the false messiah Shabbetai Zevi.

1674: The Councils of Poland and Lithuania prevent the expulsion of the Jews from these lands following the coronation of John III Sobieski; the enormous cost of the operation leads to friction between the Council of the Four Lands and the Council of Lithuania.

1680: Anti-Jewish riots in Brest-Litovsk.

1687: Jews of Poznan attacked.

1698-1702: The blood-libel affair in Sandomierz. A dignitary of the community is accused of the murder of a Christian child and executed.

In the whole, the situation of Jews in Poland-Lithuania was relatively good in the 16th century, but worsened in the 17th century because of pogroms, accusations and the hostility of the church.

B. Jews in Palestine and in the Ottoman Empire.

1453 Constantinople is captured by Muhammad II, the Conqueror; deportation of Jewish communities of western and southern Anatolia, of the Black Sea, of Macedonia, Thracia, and Bulgaria to the new capital of the empire; establishment in Istanbul of congregations of the expelled (surgun); Rabbi Moses Capsali – rabbi of the Romaniots in Istanbul.

1456 Abraham ben Eliezer ha-Levi, a parnas of the Jerusalem community, is the first emissary sent from the Jews of Palestine to the diaspora to inspire Jews to “ascend” to the Holy Land.

1474 Muslim zealots destroy the synagogue in Jerusalem; it was to be rebuilt that year by order of the Mamluk sultan Qaitbay. At about the same time Moses Esrim ve-Arba (“twenty-four”), a Yiddish writer and emissary from Jerusalem, embarks on a journey to Jewish communities throughout the diaspora; signs of his visit have survived in Istanbul, Crete, Italy, and Germany.

1481 pilgrimage of Meshullam of Volterra, a Florentine merchant, author of a remarkable travelogue particularly rich in detail about everyday life in Palestine. 1483 the “Elders affair”: a severe conflict between local leaders and new immigrants, probably over financial matters, reduces the Jewish community in Jerusalem from 300 to 70 families. 1484-

1502 Nathan ha-Kohen Sholal is the nagid of Jewry in Mamluk lands. 1488 Aliyah of Obadiah of Bertinoro from Tuscany, famous commentator on the Mishnah; the three letters which he sent from Jerusalem to Italy constitute a valuable source about Palestine at the end of the 15th century. 1492 Jews are expelled from Spain, many of them migrate to Ottoman lands; establishment of congregations of immigrants who “came of their own free will” (kendi gelen) in Istanbul, as well as in all other important towns throughout the empire; beginning of the world industry in Salonika. 1497 the immigration from Portugal.

At the end of 15th century a pseudo-messiah appears in southeast Yemen; an armed conflict between his followers and the forces of the imam practically annihilates the Jewish communities in the region.

1503-17 Isaac ha-Kohen Sholal is the last nagid under Mamluk rule. 1504 first Hebrew printing press in Istanbul. 1506 Pogroms against “New Christians” and beginning of a “period of grace” when they are allowed to leave Portugal (till 1531); immigrants continue to flock to Ottoman lands. 1513 Hebrew printing begins in Istanbul. 1516-17 the Ottomans conquer Palestine; end of the Mamluk period in the Land of Israel; accelerated immigration to the two centers of the county – Safed and Jerusalem. In the time of Suleyman II, the Magnificent (1520-66) the present walls of Jerusalem are built. 1525 wool industry flourishes in Safed which becomes the most important Jewish center in Palestine and, after Istanbul and Salonika, the third in importance in the empire. 1538 Rabbi Jacob Berab renews the ordination of sages in the Land of Israel, interrupted since the suppression of the Sanhedrin. 1542 in Safed Rabbi Joseph Caro completes his work Bet Yossef (“The House of Joseph”). 1553-1554 Don Joseph Nasi and Dona Gracia settle in Istanbul; beginning of Don Joseph’s activities at the sultan’s court. 1554 Moses Hamon, the sultan’s physician, obtain a firman (decree) against those who accuse Jews in ritual murder. 1555 Joseph Caro completes the writing of Shulhan Arukh, an abridgement of Bet Yossef. 1556-57 burning of Conversos in Ancona (Italy) and an abortive attempt by the Nasi family to organize a boycott by all the Jews in the empire. 1560 on the initiative of Dona Gracia Nasi, Jews begin to resettle in Tiberias. 1566 Don Joseph Nasi becomes Duke of Naxos. 1568 a delegation of Jews from Salonika obtains a convenient tax arrangement from the sultan. 1569 a great fire in Istanbul causes grave damage in the Jewish quarter; death of Dona Gracia Nasi; capitulations to France. The import of French cloth competes with the products of the Jewish-owned industry. 1570-72 Ha-Ari (Rabbi Isaac Luria Ashkenaz) is leader of the kabbalists of Safed. 1579 death of Don Joseph Nasi. 1580 capitulations to England; the Ottoman markets are flooded with English cloth which seriously harms the industry of Salonika. 1585 Don Solomon ibn Yaish arrives in Istanbul and begins his political activities. 1586 the Imam of Yemen al-Mutahhar accuses the Jews of aiding the Turks and persecutes the Jews of San’a. In the same year the oldest synagogue in Jerusalem is closed.

1603 death of Don Solomon ibn Yaish. 1626-1676 lifespan of Shabbetai Zevi, the false messiah whose undertaking had a profound effect on the Ottoman Empire’s Jewish communities. 1666-67 the ecstatic movement appears in Yemen; it is led by Sliman Alnakash, who is later exiled to the island in the Red Sea, and then by Sliman Aljamal, who is eventually executed. 1667 Jews are prohibited from wearing an ornamental head-dress; this may be when Jews were ordered to grow long sidelocks as a distinguishing mark. 1679-80 the ‘expulsion of Mawza’ (the expulsion of the Jews from San’a and central Yemen to Mawza in Tihama, the inhospitable southern shore of the Red Sea) takes place. 1683 following the example of Shabbetai Zevi, 250 families of his followers in Salonika convert to Islam, creating the doemeh sect in the Balkans and Turkey.

In the second half of 17th century Shalom Shabbazi, the greatest poet of Yemenite Jewry, lives. He writes religious poems in Hebrew, Aramaic and Arabic, leads a wander life because of the persecution in Yemen. His tomb in Taiz is visited by Jews and Muslims.

1686 the Habsburgs chase the Ottomans out of Hungary; Jews serving the Turks leave with their masters.

1697 the remaining in Yemen Jews are persecuted anew.

In the whole, the situation of Jews in the Ottoman Empire was much better than in Europe, there were no persecutions and pogroms there, but it worsened in the XVIIth century.

C. Jewish culture and mysticism.

1437-1508: Isaac Abrabanel, statesman and biblical commentator.

Ca. 1450- before 1515: Obadiah ben Abraham Bertinoro, author of a commentary on the Mishna, published in Venice in 1548-49; it will become a standard commentary on Mishnah as in Rashi’s on the Talmud.

1452-ca.1515: Abraham ben Samuel Zacuto of Salamanca, mathematician and astronomer: his “Great Treatise”, written in Hebrew between 1473 and 1478 at the request of his patron Gonzalo de Vivero, bishop of Salamanca, and soon translated into Spanish and Latin; he develops important navigation instruments, particularly the astrolabe of copper, which are

major contributions to the voyages of discovery. After the expulsion of 1492 he emigrates to Portugal and becomes court astronomer to John I and later to Manuel I; his advice is sought before Vasco da Gama's voyage to India (1496); but in the following year the forced conversion of the Jews of Portugal drives him to leave for Tunis; toward the end of his life he travels to the Holy Land.

1468-1549: Eliyahu Levita, called Bahur, philologist and lexicographer, compiler of dictionaries of Hebrew words in the Talmud, of Aramaic, and the first Hebrew-Yiddish dictionary.

1474: Moses Mintz, a spiritual leader of the Ashkenazi diaspora and rabbi of several major communities in Germany, comes to Poznan and describes the customs of Polish Jewry.

1475: The first printed Hebrew book: Rashi's commentary on the Pentateuch, published in Reggio di Calabria.

15th – 16th centuries: Transcription of "ta'amei ha-mikra" (a system of accents and vocalization indicators) by Solomon Miz (1483) and by the Christian humanists J.

Boeschenstein, J. Reuchlin and S. Munster.

1486: Giovanni Pico de Mirandola's "Oratio de dignitate hominis"; associated with the humanistic circle of this Florentine Hebraist and Christian Kabbalist, are the Jewish philosophers Elijah Delmedigo and Johanan Alemanno.

Ca. 1494: Jacob Pollack, native of Bavaria and the leading scholar in Poland in the 15th century, founds a yeshivah in Cracow which he heads till 1522. It was Pollack who transferred to Poland the method of Talmudic argumentation known as hilukim. 1503 Jacob Polack is appointed by king Alexander I as chief rabbi for the whole of Poland.

In 16th century, due to the Safed Kabbalah, singing penetrates every aspect of Jewish life; in Italy, first attempts to introduce "classical" music to liturgy; a similar process takes place among Spanish and Portuguese exiles in the West, while the oriental Jews adopt Arab and Turkish music.

Ca. 1495-1558: Life of Shalom Shakhna, Pollack's disciple and the first among Poland's Talmudic scholars who was not an immigrant from Germany; as head of the yeshivah in Lublin, he educated the best Jewish scholars of 16th century Poland.

1510-73: Life of Solomon Luria, first great Talmudic scholar in Lithuania; his Talmud commentary was in the Ashkenazi tradition, hostile to the Sephardi method disseminated by the writings of Joseph Caro.

Ca. 1525-1609: Lifespan of Judah Loew ben Bezalel, known as the Maharal of Prague, philosopher, mathematician, important Ashkenazi rabbi and founder of the yeshivah in Prague (1573); in 1592 he was consulted by Emperor Rudolph II – this meeting gave rise to the legend that the Maharal was an alchemist and dealt in magic.

1535: Judah Abrabanel (Leone Ebreo) writes "Dialoghi d'amore", a classic of Italian philosophic literature.

1555-1614: Lifespan of Joshua Falk, head of the Lvov yeshivah and author of a famous commentary on the Shulhan Arukh. He was also actively involved in 1605 in the composition of the decrees of the Council of the Four Lands.

1561-1640: Lifespan of Joel Sirkes, rabbi of Cracow from 1619 and author of a treatise rejecting the Shulhan Arukh as a work of normative Halakhah.

1567 Sigismund II August Jagellon authorizes the founding of a second yeshivah in Lublin; to it privileges including exemption from taxation and immunities similar to those granted to universities are granted.

1583-1663: Simone Luzzato, rabbi of the Venetian community, philosopher and mathematician, is the first to advance economic arguments in favor of toleration towards to Jews.

1589-1628: Solomon de' Rossi composes his major musical work: "Ha-Shirim asher li Shelomo" ("Solomon's Songs") – the first musical composition destined for liturgy in the synagogue.

Early 17th century: Printing in Yiddish of Mayse Bukh: didactic stories, translated from Hebrew, some of which center on the major figures of the medieval movement of Hasidei Ashkenaz.

Ca. 1630: Leone (Judah Aryeh) Modena, rabbi of Venice, writes “Ari Nohem” (“Growling Lion”) – the first comprehensive polemic against the Kabbalah; although he does not dare publish it, his work provokes bitter polemics. 1637 he writes his “History of Hebrew Rites” (in Italian) at the request of the English ambassador to Venice for presentation to King James I.

1631 Yom-Tov Lipmann Heller, rabbi of Prague, settles in Poland where he becomes one of the prominent figures in the Council of the four Lands; after the 1640s he serves as rabbi of Cracow and head of its yeshiva. His most important book is a commentary on the Mishnah. 1638: Simone Luzzato’s “Discourse on the State of the Jews in Venice” argues for toleration towards them, especially on economic grounds.

1640, April: Suicide of Uriel da Costa, a Portuguese Marrano who had returned to Judaism, but to a heterodox faith which led to his excommunication by the rabbis of the Amsterdam community.

1648: Fleeing the Spanish inquisition, brothers Fernando and Miguel Cardozo, physicians of Marrano-Portuguese origin, arrive to Venice. Returning to Judaism, the first brother, now named Isaac, becomes an adherent of rationalist Judaism; the second, Abraham, becomes an apostle of Shebbatai Zvi.

Ca. 1650: First information about synagogue singing (Hazzanut) in Eastern Europe, and about Klezmerim, musicians who perform for Jews and gentiles on festive occasions.

1650: Manasseh ben Israel, “Hope of Israel”.

1653: Nathan Nata Hannover, “Yeven Mezulah” (“The Abyss of Despair”): written by a survivor, it is the most detailed chronicle of the horrors of the immense pogrom during the Cossack revolt of Bogdan Chmeilnicki.

1656, July 27: Excommunication of Baruch Spinoza.

1657, September: Menasseh ben Israel dies in Middleburg on his return journey to Holland.

1670: Spinoza’s “Tractatus Theologico-Politicus”.

1684: A theological “amicable discussion” between Orbio de Castro and Philippe van Limborch, one of the leading representatives of liberal Arminian Calvinism in Amsterdam.

1687: Posthumous publication of Uriel da Costa’s “Exemplar Humanae Vitae”.

The development of Kabbalah continues.

1500-1502: Asher Lemlein, an ecstatic kabbalist active in northern Italy, presents himself as the Messiah and stimulates a movement of repentance among the Jews.

1510-1532: Treaties and letters by the apocalyptic kabbalist Abraham ben Eliezer ha-Levi, predicting the coming of the Messiah in 1540, are circulated in Jerusalem and Italy. David Reubeni, presenting himself as an oriental Jewish prince on a mission in Europe to raise an army against the Turks, meets Solomon Molkho, a Portuguese Marrano who returns to Judaism, studies the Kabbalah and regards himself as a messiah.

1522-1570: Moses ben Jacob Cordovero, founder of the kabbalistic school in Safed, a disciple of the mystic poet Solomon Alkabez and of the the great codifier Joseph Caro, and teacher of Isaac Luria. His speculative kabbalistic system is presented in his books, the most important of which is “Pardes Rimmonim” (“Garden of Pomegranates”).

Middle of 16th century: Zohar is printed for the first time in Mantua and Cremona simultaneously (1558). Both editions are disseminated throughout Europe. The kabbalists of Safed begin interpreting the Zohar which becomes the canonical text of the discipline.

1570: “Sefer Reshit Hokhmah” (“Book of Initial Wisdom”) by Elijah de Vidas, disciple of Cordovero; published in Venice, the book was aimed at a popular audience and accepted as one of the most important kabbalist works.

1592: Arriving in Venice from Egypt, Israel Sarug propagates his version of the Lurianic Kabbalah and influences the great Italian kabbalist of the time, Menahem Azariah Fano.

In early 17th century a special brand of the Kabbalah begins to emerge in Poland; its principal representatives, Samson ben Pesah Ostropoler and Nathan Shapira of Cracow, were deeply concerned with demonology and messianism.

1620: After leaving Safed and serving as rabbi in Jerusalem, Hayyim Vital, author of “Sefer Ez ha-Hayyim” (“Book of the Tree of Life”), dies in Damascus; he bequeaths to his son,

Samuel Vital, the largest collection of Lurianic teachings, written as annotations to the master's lessons.

Ca. 1665: Shabbetai Zevi's messianic mission is connected to the Lurianic Kabbalah. He is born in Smyrna 1626. 1642-1662 he studies Kabbala, revelations, "strange acts" (contrary to religious law), and travels throughout the European regions of the Ottoman Empire. 1665 he meets Nathan Ashkenazi in Gaza. Shabbetai proclaims himself the messiah, Nathan begins spreading the tidings of imminent redemption and calling for repentance. Returning to Smyrna, Shabbetai arouses enthusiasm in many Jewish communities. Arrested by the grand vizier, he is imprisoned in Gallipoli. 1666, after a disputation with a Polish kabbalist Nehemiah ha-Kohen, he is accused of fomenting sedition among the Jews. Brought before Sultan Mehmed IV, he denies ever making messianic claims and accepts conversion to Islam in order to escape execution. Together with Shabbetai (now called Aziz Mehmed Effendi), his wife and dozens of his disciples convert as well. 1673-76: Deported to Dulcigno in Albania following a denunciation, the false messiah dies on the Day of Atonement.

The Lurianic Kabbalah is known to the Christian world in a Latin translation, "Kabbala denudata" (1677-1684) by Christian Knorr von Rosenroth.

1680-1700: Period of intense Shabbatean agitation in northern Italy; missionary activities of Abraham Miguel Cardozo, one of the principal leaders of the movement.

Ca. 1700: Emergence of the radical current within the Doenmeh movement led by Baruchian Russo (Osman Baba), who abolishes many biblical prohibitions, presenting them as contrary to the new spiritual message of the Messiah.

1700: Led by Judah Hasid and Hayyim ben Solomon Malakh ("Angel"), Shabbatean groups from Poland "ascend" to the Land of Israel.

In the whole, the Jewish culture develops intensively both in Europe and in the Ottoman Empire. It has the same two main dimensions like the West European culture of that time – the rationalist and mystic one.

Questions:

1. What was the situation of the Jews on the Iberian Peninsula?
2. Describe the situation of the Jews in the Western Europe.
3. What differences were in the Eastern Europe?
4. Describe the Jewish life in the Ottoman Empire.
5. What were the main events of the Jewish culture in this time?
6. Describe the development of Kabbalah and its significance for the Jewish culture.

5. Islamic countries in 1450-1700.

a) Ottoman Empire.

1. 1450-1575.

Mehmed II Fatih ("the conqueror", 1451-1481) expands the Ottoman empire from the size of modern France to the great power of 850,000 square km. Inside the country he strengthens the power of sultan. Already 1451 he orders to kill the brother and prescribes the brother death by law to prevent the struggle for throne. The great vizier Chandarli Khalil, the representative of landlord class, is overthrown and executed. The new great vizier has its origin from yeniceri. Other potentates also came from this totally dependent from sultan layer with recalled land possessions. The different parts of state are linked to center with the laws, which are valid for the total empire. Through relative tolerance against the non-Muslim religions Mehmed tries to connect Jews and Christians to the state. Only the intensively used land remains in the private possession, while sultan has an extended state land for fiefs (timar- system). Through the leasing of state tax incomes (iltizam) Mehmed finances the permanent army first of all. With Mehmed the power becomes impersonal: the old tradition, that every subject has access to sultan, is abolished. The great vizier leads the sessions of state council, but is controlled by sultan, who is hidden inside the bar.

In the time from 1451 till 1574 the steady expansion of Ottomans in all sides is typical; on the Balkan peninsula against Venice, Habsburg, Hungary, Poland; to the east against Sawafides in Persia; in North Africa till Algeria. 1453 the expansion is opened through the take over of Constantinople. On the 29th of Mai 1453 Mehmed II conquers the city and gives to his troops three days for plundering; but the buildings cannot be damaged, because he makes his capital there. On the 30th of Mai 1453 he would give to the city the name "islam-bol" (full of Muslims), which was changed to Istanbul. Under Mehmed II the Peloponnesos, Albania and Bosnia are annexed; the seizing of Genua possessions in the Aegean Sea and on the southern coast of Crimea prepares the Ottoman sea domination. Anatolia is fully integrated (the Black Sea coast, Trapezunt, Qaraman). 1463-1479 the war against Venice takes place; 1456 Belgrad still cannot be taken. 1473 Aq-Qoyunlu are defeated at Terjan (Bashkent) upon Euphrates. 1475 Crimea khanate becomes a vassal of Ottoman Empire. Rhodos is unsuccessfully besieged (1480), Otranto in Southern Italy is temporarily occupied (1480-81).

Numerous modernizations meet the opposition of different groups, especially derwishes.

Mehmed is possibly poisoned by them on the order of his elder son Bayezid.

Bayezid II (1481-1512) has to fight against his younger brother Cem. Reforms of his father are partly abolished. But when Bayezid introduces the special tax, which all his subjects have to pay, the Shiite Turkmen nomadic tribes in East Anatolia revolt, supported by Sawafides. Only with difficulties a revolt is suppressed at Antalya 1511. Numerous Shiites are settled into Peloponnesus. The attacks against Venice (1499-1503) and Hungary (1501-1503) are made, but the state is extended only in small frontier regions. 1491 the Ottomans are defeated by Mamlukes at Qaisariya, 1492 by Habsburg at Villach. In this time Egypt is ruled by sultan al-Ashraf Qaitbay (1468-1496). The devastating struggle with Ottomans begins, who conquer Cilicia 1474. 1482 Mamlukes intrude into the Ottoman throne fight, but must newly defend in Cilicia against the Ottomans 1485-91. 1489 Cyprus comes to Venice. In Indian Ocean the trade is given to Portugal; 1498 the Egyptian fleet is defeated before Gujarat in India. The fortresses in East Africa and Arabia are occupied by Portugal.

Selim I Yavuz ("the strict" or "the angry", 1512-1520) fights with his brothers and orders to kill them, his nephews and four sons, probably also the father. He represses the revolting Shiites very cruelly. After Selim secured his power inside the state, he begins to extend the empire. He continues the expansion to the east and to the north. 1514 the Safawides are defeated at Chaldiran, therefore Kurdistan and Mesopotamia are taken by Turks. 1515 the Dhu l-Qadr (Dhulkadir), vassals of Mamelukes in Armenia, are subjugated. Meanwhile the Ottoman army is equipped by fire weapons. 1516, after the victory over the Mamlukes at Marj Dabiq, Syria is annexed; 1517 Egypt follows after the battle at Rajdaniya before the entrance to Cairo. 1520 the corsair Khairreddin Barbarossa enters into the Ottoman service as the commander-in-chief of the fleet. The expansive campaigns demand more taxes, therefore

the Shiites revolt often in the North Middle Anatolia 1519-1520 (first so called Celali revolt with leader sheikh Celal, who pretended to be a Mahdi). The new mystical order was Isawiya, founded by Ibn Isa al-Fihri (died 1524; shrine in Meknes), fled from al-Andalus to North Africa, a pupil of Jazuliya; it has well-defined ecstatic rituals; propagated in North Africa, especially in Morocco. 1520 Selim dies from the plague.

Suleyman I Qanuni ("the law-giver", also "the luxurious", 1520-1566) has the true nicknames. He orders to compose the important law book for the land, financial and tax law, and makes lucky decisions at the nomination of the state top. Because of the further extension the empire is divided into districts anew, the administration is built, the infrastructure, for all water supply and roads are improved. Suleyman builds many religious and profane buildings, favors art and literature. Under Suleyman the state grows further; the begin at Balkans is the conquest of Belgrad 1521 and the victory at Mohacs over Hungary 1526. 1529 Vienne is besieged. Against Habsburg and Hungary (1532- 1533, 1541-47, 1551-62, 1565-68) the war over the hegemony over South East Europe is led. The peace conclusions in Edirne of 1547 and 1568 are only the intermediary stations. In the east the Safawides are kept at distance: 1534 Baghdad and Tebriz are occupied, the western part of Aserbaijan are integrated. 1548-55 Mesopotamia is defended, 1555 according to the treaty of Amasya Georgia is divided between Ottomans and Safawides. 1549-1554 in North Africa all the shore stripes except Morocco became dependent. The take over of Rhodos 1522, the attacks upon South Italy (1537, 1543), the victory at Preveza against Venice 1538, and the siege of Malta (1565) signify the fight over the Mediterranean. The trade treaty with France (1536) and the attack of the emperor Carl V upon Tunis and Algeria (1536-41) make clear, that the Ottoman Empire became the decisive factor in the European policy.

Freely the first problems in the state building are shown. The sultan has to fight with the revolts in Syria (1521), Egypt (1524-25) and at Bitlis (1532). The talented great vizier Ibrahim Pasha (1523-36) is executed, according to the wish of greedy for power sultan's wife Roxolana (of Ukrainian origin). Under her son-in-law the great vizier Rustem Pasha (from ca. 1544) the corruption and inflation increase. The title of pasha, which earlier belonged only to the great pasha, now is given to all beglerbegs. The increase of yeniceri army in four or five times strengthens their importance in the politics.

Selim II, the drunkard and son of Roxolana (1566-1574), gives the government office to the great vizier and to Joseph Nasi, the Jew, fled from Portugal. The growing need in many causes the deterioration of coins. Timar possessions are given now also to "non-having right". 1567-70 the Zaidites in Yemen revolt. Under Selim II to the first time Russia becomes an enemy of the Ottoman empire in the conflict around Astrakhan khanate (1567-1570). 1571 Ottomans are defeated at Lepanto (near Greece) by Don Juan of Austria, half-brother of Philipp II; but the enemies do not use this. 1573 Cyprus is conquered.

The time from 1540 till 1588 is the epoch of brilliant architect Sinan. Besides the great mosque complex – also besides Istanbul – he builds 49 medreses, 28 palace buildings, three hospices and three hospitals. Istanbul is divided into 13 districts (nahiye), subordinated to the pasha. The first nahiye arwe 1,2,6,7,9 and 12; under Bayezid II the others follow. They are divided into subdistricts (mahalle) with a mosque, Christian church or synagogue and market place in the center, every mahalle has a school and a well. At the begin of 16th century there are 182 mahalle.

So in the first period the Ottoman empire extends, the law system is formed. The Ottoman sultan becomes the Caliph after the conquest of Egypt. In the same time he is a successor of a Byzantine emperor. At the end of period empire comes into the conflict with European states and is defeated for the first time.

2.1575-1700.

Under Murad III (1574-1595) the palace and harem get the stronger influence ("the domination of wives"), the corruption and the buying of offices increase. The recruiting of yeniceri is extended upon Muslims, the special tax "avariz" is increased annually, therefore the overburdened peasants leave its land; the coins are deteriorated. 1579 the experienced

great vizier Soqollu Mehmet Pasha is murdered, in the following time the officials change more and more often. 1583-1635 almost continually the revolts of Druses appear, 1589-1591 the Yeniceri revolt in Istanbul. The time of great conquests is over. The Ottoman Empire is almost continually in the defensive wars with changing success: in the east against the Safawides in Persia, in the north against Hamburg, Poland and then Russia, on the seas against Venice. The regions to the south of Mediterranean are on the way to the relative independence. 1577 the peace with Austria is prolonged and the treaty with Poland is concluded. 1578-90 the war against Persia takes place: Tiflis (1578), Qars and Tebriz (1585) are taken. Georgia is now under the Ottoman "protection". 1580 the trade privileges are given to England, the trade ways in Mediterranean lose their significance. 1583 the Özbegs unite with Ottomans against Persia. 1585 Azerbaijan comes from Persia to the Ottoman Empire. 1587 the three Ottoman beyliks in Algeria, Tunis and Tripolis are built. 1590 the treaty of Istanbul between the Ottoman Empire and Persia is concluded, after Abbas I, the Great, shah of Persia (1588-1629), expelled the Ottomans from Azerbaijan, Diyarbakr and Iraq; Georgia, Karabag, Shirwan, Tebriz and Luristan came to the Ottoman Empire. 1593 East Yedisian becomes Turkish.

Under Mehmed III (1595-1603) the offices of Qadis and Muftis are sold. 1596-1610 there are Celali revolts in Anatolia, after 1600 especially in Central Anatolia. The depopulation of Anatolia ("the great flight") follows. 1593-1606 the "Long war" against Austria lasts. 1600 North Bosnia, 1602 Erlau become Turkish.

Under Ahmed I (1603-1617) the power of yeniceri and the "domination of wives" grows. The practice of brother murder is abolished. 1606-07 the beglerbeg of Alepo revolts. 1606-1612 the new war against Persia takes place, which wins Azerbaijan and the Caucasus (Eriwan, Shirwan, Qars) 1603-1605. After the Persian victory at Urmia Sea (1605) Diyarbakr and Iraq (Mosul, Baghdad) are added. 1606 the peace of Sitvatorok between the Ottoman Empire and Austria is concluded; Habsburg loses territory in Hungary, but the emperor is recognized as the equal partner. 1612 Azerbaijan and Georgia come to Persia in Persian-Ottoman treaty. In the same year the trade privileges are given to Holland.

Mustapha I (1617-1618) follows according to the seniorate principle in the sultanate; after the palace revolt he is dethroned because of the mental illness.

Under Osman II (1618-22) the further inflation of money comes; he is murdered by yeniceri. 1620-22 the unsuccessful war against Poland is led. England shoots Algeria because of piracy 1622.

Mustapha I (1622-33) becomes sultan newly, but is dethroned with a fatwa of sheikh al-Islam (the honorary name of mufti of Istanbul). 1623-39 a new war against Persia; the Persians conquer Baghdad and Mosul 1623. 1624-28 the Crimea khan revolts. 1629 the Ottomans reconquer Mosul. 1630 the Ottoman rule in Yemen ends.

Under Murad IV (1623-1640) the revolts of sarica (marauder gangs) in Anatolia take place. The sultan's mother leads the office of government; the power of yeniceri is temporarily restricted. 1623-1628 the revolt of beglerbeg Abaza Mehmed Pasha of Erzurum revolts; 1624 there is a new celali-revolt in North West Anatolia. Now to this movement the declassed elements (the fired or deserted soldiers, peasants, who lost their possessions, the dismissed landowners) and the South East Turkmen tribes. 1632-37 the Sultan's regime makes a policy of state terror: 25,000 people are executed; the army of spahi (the riders with timar in provincial service) is reset with sekban (the private troops of provincial governors). 1632 the beglerbeg of Balikesir Ilyas Pasha revolts. 1633-35 the emir of Druses Fakhraddin II revolts in Lebanon anew. He makes connections with Toscana, the Pope and Spain. 1638 Baghdad is reconquered by Ottomans; they make massacre under the Shiites. According to the peace of Qasr-i Shirin (1639) Caucasus (Eriwan) and Azerbaijan (Tebriz) remain Persian.

Under Ibrahim I (1640-1648) the culmination of harem domination is reached; the state is financially ruined. The age of yeniceri becomes a rank of vizier. 1647-55 there are new celali revolts in Anatolia in the region of Sivas.

Under Mehmed IV (1648-1687) the yeniceri rule 1648-51, then the anarchy exists till 1656. 1649 there is a new celali revolt in Central Anatolia, and the last one in 1658-59. 1656-1661 the great vizier Mehmed Köprülü begins the reforms; the influence of harem and yeniceri is

abolished, the state economy healed. Mehmed's son Ahmed follows as great vizier and as a ruler in fact (1661-1676), then his father-in-law Qara Mustapha Pasha (1676-1683). 1645-79 the war against Venice for Crete is made; 1651 the Venetian fleet wins at Paros; 1656 the Venetians win upon the sea at Dardanelles. 1659-71 the agas od army rule in Algeria. 1664 the Ottomans are defeated at At. Gotthard a. d. Raab in a campaign against Habsburg, ended by a ceasefire of Eisenburg (Vasvar) 1664. 1665 the Frenchmen bomb Algeria and Tunis for piracy. 1670 according to the treaty of Venice Crete becomes Ottoman, except three strongholds. 1671-1830 in Algeria the military commandants (deys) execute the real power, not the appointed from Istanbul governors (pashas). 1672-76 the West Ukraine and Podolia become Ottoman after a war with Poland (the Polish defeat at Zurawno 1676). 1677-81 a war with Russia is made, which gets Kiev in the peace of Radzin. 1683 the Ottoman campaign against Habsburg is made and Vienne is besieged; it ends with the defeat at Kahlenberg. The "Holy league" between the Pope, Austria, Poland and Venice is built 1684. 1686 Habsburg conquers Pest, wins 1687 at Mohacs and march into Serbia; the Crimea Khanate is attacked by Russia (1686-1700).

The catastrophe of Vienne 1683 destabilizes the Ottoman Empire inside, everywhere the local rulers revolt against the central power. The state is preserved because of some important great viziers, who try to reform the state and the army with foreign help and to open the empire to the modern, western culture. Suleyman II (1687-1691) is installed by yeniceri after the dethronement of his brother Mehmed IV, who was made responsible for the defeats before Vienne and at Mohacs. The great vizier Köprülü Fazil Mastapha Pasha (1689-1691) has the real power. He reforms the tax collection, reorganizes the army and restricts the power of yeniceri. 1688 Belgrad is lost, 1689 Ottomans are beaten at Nish. Although they manage to reconquer Belgrad and Nish 1690, but the great vizier is murdered in the battle of Slankamen (1691) against the "Turk Louis", the march count Louis of Baden.

Ahmed II (1691-95), a brother of Suleyman, follows after him and is equally insignificant. His successor is Mustapha II (1695-1703, a son of Mehmed IV). 1696 Peter the Great conquers Azov. 1699, according to the peace of Karlowitz, after the victory of prince Eugene at Zenta (1697), Hungary, Transilvania, Slavonia and Croatia are given to Austria, Kameniecz, Podolia and the Ukraine to Poland, the Peloponnesus and the parts of Dalmatia to Venice. 1702 the Ottomans lose Azov.

The unsuccessful foreign policy and the inner political struggle leads to the revolt of parts of troops, students, impoverished peasants and at the end of yeniceri, who dethrone the sultan and put his younger brother Ahmed III 1703.

In the second period the Ottoman Empire decays more and more, some provinces in Africa became in fact independent, in Europe big territories are lost. Despite it, the empire continues to exist and prepares the needed reforms.

b) Iran of Safawids.

1. 1450-1575.

Junaid (1447-60), a militant greatgrandson of the Kurd sheikh Safiyaddin, is expelled from Jihan Shah, prince of Qara-Qoyunlu ("black rams"), from Ardabil 1448. 1449-56 he leads a wander life at the supporters of his order under the Turkmen tribes in East Anatolia, Syria and Mesopotamia and converts into Shiism, influenced by some tribes, possibly as reaction to the strong Sunnism of Ottomans. 1456 Junaid find asylum in Diyarbakr at the court of Turkmen prince of Aq-Qoyunlu (white rams), Uzun Hasan, whose daughter he marries. His supporters fought in the holy war against Christian Georgians and Cherkesses.

Haidar (1460-88), a son of Junaid, also marries a princess of Aq-Qoyunlu. 1460 he returns to Ardabil and invents a red cap, composed from 12 trigone stripes (as the sigh of 12 imams) for his strict Shiite Safawid order (after his founder Safiyaddin), therefore the members of order are called "qizilbashi" (Turk. Qizilbash "red heads"). 1467-69 the Aq-Qoyunlu conquer the state of Qara-Qoyunlu; their region of domination encompasses Iraq, Western Iran, East Anatolia, Azerbaijan and the Caucasus region; they make five invasions to Georgia. 1470 they conclude a union with Venice. 1473 Aq-Qoyunlu are defeated by Ottomans at Terjan upon Euphrates. 1488 Haidar and his elder son Ali are killed in the struggle against Aq-Qoyunlu.

Ismail (1501-24), the twelve-year son of Haidar, becomes the charismatic leader of Qizilbash 1499; he is thought as the incarnated 12th imam, originated in the direct line from the 7th imam, Musa al-Qasim. His supporters are ready to give their life for him. 1500 he defeats the shah of Shirwan, 1501 the sultan of Aq-Qoyunlu Alvand. He moves into his residence Tebriz, founds the Safawid dynasty, takes the Old Iranian title of king of kings (shahan-shah) and proclaims Shia to the state religion; it means that he founds a divine state (theocracy), where political and religious institutions are identical. 1503 Ismail conquers the Sunnite fortresses Hamadan, Isfahan and Shiraz, then 1504 Yazd and Kerman and finally 1508 Iraq with Baghdad. 1510 he defeats Özbegs at Merw and conquers the East Iran. 1512 Ismail supports a Shiite revolt in East Anatolia; but 1514 he is defeated at Chaldiran by Ottoman sultan Selim I, a fighter for Sunna. Therefore East Anatolia, the motherland of the most Qizilbash, is lost. Because of the defeat the Mahdi status of Ismail is destroyed; now he is a representative of the hidden Mahdi, the supreme head of Shia with the pretension to the highest spiritual and secular power.

Shah Tahmasp I (1524-76), Ismail's son, moves the capital to Qazwin; he separates from the extremism of the Qizilbash. Therefore he is supported by the Imamite law scholars, especially by al-Karaki, a representative of the rationalist school in Hilla, who founds the Shiite clergy in Persia. Tahmasp defends from five invasions of Özbegs and five attacks of Ottomans. But 1534 the Ottoman sultan Suleyman occupies Azerbaijan and Iraq. 1548-55 Persians are at war with Ottomans. According to the peace of Amasya, Iraq remains Ottoman, Georgia is divided. 1568 the Qizilbash revolt in Qazwin and Tebriz because of their decreasing influence; they are supported by the discontented peasants and craftsmen.

In the first period the Safawid state in Iran is formed and extends. The state religious ideology is Shia. Its main enemy is the Sunnite Ottoman Empire. It looks like the continuation of the old struggle between Christian Byzantinian Empire, which successor was Ottoman state, and Zoroastrian Sassanid Iran after 1,000 years.

2.1575-1700.

1576-1588 is a period of a disturbance and throne struggle. Ismail II (1576-90), a younger son of Tahmasp I, makes attempt to return to Sunna. Shah Muhammad (1578-87), an elder son of Tahmasp I, follows him. 1577-90 the Ottomans conquer Tiflis, Qars, Tebriz and Georgia. 1586 the throne successor Hamza is murdered; one of the younger sons of Tahmasp Abbas takes power through the complot in Qazwin 1587, blinds and imprisons possible throne pretenders; two brothers fly into the Mohul state to India; Haidar, a son of Hamza, is sent to Istanbul as hostage.

Shah Abbas I, the Great (1588-1629), brings the empire into the brilliant period. He builds a mighty army with artillery (partly from Christian slaves and soldiers), favors the trade through the building of trade ways and caravanserais, is tolerant against the Christian tradesmen and gives a relative free position to the woman (unveiled according to the old Turkmen custom). Abbas fully separates from the influence of Qizilbash, but also restricts the law scholars. 1590 he concludes the peace with the Ottomans. 1596 Isfahan becomes the residence and the capital of the empire; it becomes one of the greatest and the most beautiful cities of the time; Persian architecture and painting reach their culmination. 1598-1601 Abbas renovates the shrine of Meshhed and builds Qom as the holy city; he creates many foundations for poor, law scholars and students and religious institutions. 1602-12 he has a new war with the Ottomans and gets Azerbaijan and parts of Caucasus (Eriwan, Shirwan, Qars). 1605 he defeats the Ottomans at Urmia Sea; Diyarbakr comes to Persia. 1624 Abbas conquers Iraq with the holy places Kazimain, Karbala and Najaf.

Shah Safi I (1629-42), a son of the eldest son Safi Mirza, killed by Abbas, takes centralized oriented measures without any scruple. 1638 Iraq with the holy places is definitely lost in the favor of the Ottomans; they make a Shiite massacre in Baghdad. But according to the peace treaty of Qasr-i Shirin, the Caucasus (Eriwan) and Azerbaijan (Tebriz) remain Safawid.

Under shah Abbas II (1642-66) the state is temporarily stabilized; the custom to keep princes in harem because of security is continued with the sequence that they become totally unprepared for the rule. The influence of Shiite ulama (scholars) increases permanently.

Shah Safi (1667-94), later called Shah Suleyman, a son of Abbas II, is cruel and inexperienced. His successor Sultan Husain I (1694-1722) is the last independent Safawid ruler.

In the second period, especially after the death of Shah Abbas I, the Safawid state decays; it loses Iraq and territories in Caucasus. Despite it, it remains independent and stops the movement of the Ottomans to the east.

c) Central Asia in 1450-1700.

Abu Said (1451-69), a great-grandson of Timur, rules in Transoxania, East Iran and Western Turkestan from Samarkand and Fergana.

Yunus-Khan (1456-86) makes East Turkestan to the most powerful Central Asian state.

1428 the Shaibanid Abu l-Khair unites the nomads between the Ural River, Syr-Darya and Tobol. 1456/7, after a devastating defeat from the Buddhist Oirates, the Shaibanids wander; the space is filled by Kazakhs under Khan Qasim (1509-18). After the death of Qasim the state is divided into three hordes under Mongolian rulers. Haqq Nazar (1538-80), a son of Qasim, restores the unity of Kazakhs. 1579-1718 they go to the south, but have to defend against the attacks of Oirates and Kalmyks.

At the end of 15th century the Özbeks (Uzbeks) become the heirs of Chagatai state:

Shaiban, a grandson of Jinghiz –Khan, has got the region to the east and south-east of Ural as the part of state, having founded the dynasty of Shaibanids. 1494-1500 expelled by Kirgizes and Kalmyks, the Uzbeks under Shaibanids attack Transoxania and East Iran from Chwarizm. Muhammad Shaibani (1500-1510) conquers Bukhara (1500) and Herat (1507), but is defeated by Safarids at Merw 1510. Babur, Timurid and an uncle of Yunus-Khan, who tries to beat back Uzbeks from Kabul, has to flee to North India 1511, where he founds the Great Moghul Empire.

The Shaibanid Ilbars (1512-25) founds the Khiva khanate; it is devastated by Kalmyks 1603, and conquered by Shah Nadir 1740. The Astrakhanids (Janids; 1599-1785) are successors of Shaibanids. Imam Quli Khan (1608-40), a ruler of Mawarannahr, leads Bukhara to the flourishing; he refuses from the throne 1640 for the pious life in the holy places of Arabia. In 16th and 17th centuries Kashgar is a residence of Shaibanids. 1678-80 the Kashgar Khanate becomes the protectorate of Oirat Galdan, Turfan and Hami are occupied. Galdan (1676-97) unites all Jungar tribes and begins the conquest of Central Asia; Khan Ismail is imprisoned, the Chagataiids in Turfan are subjugated 1679. But 1696 Galdan has a grave defeat from the attacking Chinese. Through the victory of Manzhou over Galdan Kashgar becomes again independent de facto.

1700 in Kokand the independent khanate under the pretended descendent of Jinghiz Khan is built, which controls the Fergana valley.

c) The culture of Islamic countries 1450-1700.

1. Theology and mystics.

As-Suyuti (1445-1505; Mecca, Cairo) is one of the most profile writers of Mamluke time, a universal scholar, philologist, historian, encyclopedist; he writes 560 works, among them a collection of all traditions to Koran exegesis.

Al-Laqani (died 1631; Cairo), professor at the Azhar, Malikite, composes a credo in verses, "the Jewel", which is often commented later.

Birgili (1522-73, Anatolia), a teacher at the college on Birgi (province Smyrna), favors the true study of sharia, writes manuals and treatises in Arabic about the religious ethics.

Muhammad Amin al-Astarabadhi (died 1624, Mecca and Medina) is a founder of Akhbarites: the foundation of teaching must be the literal meaning of Koran, in the law the akhbar of Hadith are valid.

Shiites (Isfahan, Shiraz and Qom):

Shaikh-i Bahai (1546-1622) composes the fundamental works for shia in Persian; besides it, he has the writings about the law science, astronomy, mathematics and literature.

Mir Muhammad Baqir Damad (died 1630) is one of the famous theoreticians of the twelve shia. For him there are three ways for the recognition of truth: revelation, intellect and mystical vision.

Molla Sadra (1571-1640) is a pupil of Bahai and his father-in-law Baqir. He writes theosophical works and develops a mystical teaching about four ways of God's recognition.

2. History and geography.

Kemal Pashazade (1468/69-1534/35, Edirne) becomes an order to describe the history of the Ottoman Empire from the sultan. Besides this imperial history, he writes 200 works about history, literature, grammar, theology and law in Turkish, Persian and Arabian language.

Istanbul:

Idris Bidlisi (died 1520), of Kurdish origin, fled from Shah Ismail from Persia into the Ottoman Empire; he writes a history of empire in Persian.

Ahmad Tashköprüzade (1495-1561) is initially a qadi in Bursa, then a professor in Istanbul. He composes an encyclopedia of arts and sciences in Arabic; his son translates the biographies of 522 scholars and derwishes into Turkish.

Haji Khalifa (1609-1657) composes 23 works in Arabic and Turkish about history (annals), law, theology, literature, finances, as well as the geographic encyclopedia manual in twenty volumes in Arabic about 14,500 writings of 9,500 authors.

Evliya Chelebi (1611- after 1683) makes travels in the Ottoman Empire forty years long, takes part in the campaigns and embassies, for example 1665 to Vienne, and tells about his experiences in ten volumes ("The book of travels") with historical, geographical, cultural historical and ethnographic descriptions.

Other centers are Cairo, Damascus, Aleppo, Bursa, Patras, Eghin (East Anatolia).

3. Literature.

Muhammad ibn Sulaiman Fuzuli (1480?-1556, Baghdad) becomes a Shiite after the patronage of the wali of Baghdad, then composes the encomia to Suleyman the Luxurious and the great vizier Ibrahim Pasha; he writes in Turkish, Arabic and Persian languages and is a master of qasides.

Pir Sultan Abdal (died 1560, Sivas) writes lyric for the Alawites and the Bektashi derwishes; is hanged up because his connections to Safawids.

Baqi (1526-1600, Istanbul), a leading Ottoman poet of his time, writes formally pretentious verses.

Nefi (died 1634, Erzurum), the elegant rhetorician, is executed because of his satires.

Aladdin Thabit (1650-1712/3, Istanbul), from Serbo-Croatian parents, becomes a free writer after the law education; composes humorous and sarcastic texts with bold pictures and comparisons.

Other centers of literature are Karbala, Bursa, Damascus, Cairo. The Persian literature dies almost fully under the Safawids; poets emigrate to the Moghul India.

Questions:

1. Describe the development of the Ottoman Empire in two periods.
2. Describe the Safawid Iran in two periods.
3. What was the situation in the Central Asia in this time?
4. Describe the development of culture in the Ottoman Empire and in Iran.

6. Africa in 1450-1700.

At the Chad Sea Idris Katakarmabi (1504-26) occupies Kanem again. Under the king Idris II Alaoma (1571-1603) the state has close connections to Tripolis and Mecca, exports weapons from the Ottoman empire, and then it loses significance, but exists till 1847.

Si Ali Ber (1468-92) organizes the state of Songhai, conquers Timbuktu (1468) and Jenne (1473) and becomes a heir of the Mali domination. He is an enemy of the power of Muslim clergy.

General Mamadu Ture, after the conversion to Islam Aski Muhammad (1493-1528), takes the power, when the successor of Ali Ber refuses to convert to Islam, and founds the dynasty of Askia. He divides the state into provinces, creates a permanent army, takes himself the pilgrimage to Mecca 1497 and finally takes the title of Caliph. His domination extends till Hausa in the east and the Morocco salt mountain works in the north. 1528 Askia Muhammad is dethroned; a defeat of Askia against the Morocco troops at Tondibi (1591) seals the fate of state. 1628 the sultan of Morocco refuses to nominate a pasha for Timbuktu. The state-successors Segou and Kaarta cannot achieve the earlier influence of Songhai.

From 14th till 17th century the region of Mali and Songhai is a region with rich Islamic culture, despite the numerous political disturbances. The religious centers are Jenne, Walata, Gao and for all Timbuktu, where many families of scholars are settled and have close connections with the other parts of Islamic world. One of the famous Timbuktu scholars is Ahmed Baba (16th century), who was a universal scholar in the Islamic sciences and wrote 700 works. Mahmud Kote (16th century) and as-Sadi (17th century) write their chronicles about the history of Islam in their region. The number of Koran schools in Timbuktu reaches 180 in this time. The medicine is also important: the surgeons make eye-ball operations.

Besides the big states, a row of smaller city-states appears in Sahel. 1591, after the defeat of Songhai, the descent of the Bambara state begins. It is an "agricultural anarchy" with animistic religion; the residences are Segou and Kaarta. Kaladian Kulubari (1652-82) unites the separate tribes to the one organized independent state.

1510 the animist prince Dokengue founds the kingdom of Bagirmi. He consists from the tribes of Massa and Sara and African-Arabic mixed population. The residence is Massenja. The king Malo (1548-68) builds a strict state structure. Abdallah (1568-1608), a Muslim, takes power with the help of animistic tribes. Burkomanda I, the Conquerer (1635-1665), fights successfully against Kanem and Wadai.

In the 16th century the dynasty of Tojur, the African-Arabic mixed population from Darfor, rules in Wadai. The residence is Wara. 1635-53 the land is converted to Islam by the missionary Abdalkarim. Temporarily Wadai is dependent from Darfor or Bornu, but sometimes attacks Kanem and Bagirmi.

In Kobe (Darfor) the most eastern of trans-Saharan caravan ways, the "street of 40 days", going out from Egypt, ends; it is damaged with sand storms and plunderers' attacks and exports slaves and copper. Under king Ahmed Bokor (1682-1722) Islam is introduced; the flourishing time of Darfor begins; the residences are Darfor and Kobe. The state defends against Wadai and Kordofan.

Kordofan with the name-sake residence is initially dependent from its neighbors, for all the rulers of Sennar. Sultan Amara Dunkas (1504-34), the “black sultan”, fled from Bornu, unites the Funj tribes and builds a state. He moves till Nil and destroys Aloa.

Under Bahadi Sid el Gom (1611-16) the state of Funj has a time of flourishing; the residence is Sennar.

The Portuguese continue to explore the African coast. 1482 the estuary of Kongo is discovered. 1487 Bartolomeo Diaz sails around the southern cape of Africa (the cape of God hope). 1490 the king of Kongo Nzinga Nkuwu converts to Christianity by the Portuguese. 1498 Vasco da Gama finds a sea way to India with three ships and 150 seamen. The Kongo state decays after king Nzinga Mpangu (Alfonso I till 1541), whose son Henrique as the first African bishop tries to build an own church in vain. Portuguese create the coast fortresses, which secure the sea way to India. They are staple and trade places, and for all the slave markets. Initially the Portuguese trade with gold and ivory, but already 1502 the African slaves began to be sold to America (Brasilia and the Caribics). In the begin of the 16th century, only 2000 slave in a year are sold from Africa, till 1680 their number increased till 10,000. The Portuguese attack the Arabic traders and support the Ethiopian state against the Muslims. Besides the Portuguese, Dutch, English and French also take part at the profitable human trade and found own trade settlements. With their arrival into Africa the Europeans destroy the traditional trade and culture relations. At the west coast of Africa they destroy the life foundation of the rich kingdom at upper Niger.

In 16th and 17th centuries in Equatorial West Africa numerous small states appear like Mossi, Oyo and Benin. Benin was famous in the bronze art.

To the south of equator the Portuguese use the rivalry between the kingdoms of Kongo and Ndongo and organize a colony in Luanda (Angola) 1575. In Kongo the power of ruler was limited by the council of nobility, which had the right to elect the successor of the ruler. The army consisted from the soldiers of men and slaves. The district governors were nominated and dismissed by the ruler, they were mostly his relatives. Population paid taxes and had duties, vassal chieftains brought tribute. In Kongo at the begin of the XVIth century king Affonsu I was converted to Catholicism; his son Enrike, educated in Lissabon, became the first African bishop from the black population. Other states were Loango and Macoco to the north of the Kongo estuary. Tribes of yaga invaded Kongo at the second half of the XVIth century and plundered the capital San-Salvador. Njinga, the queen of Ndongo (1624-1633), fought hard against the Portuguese slaver traders, but without success.

In the utmost south 1652 the Dutch Jan van Riebeck founds Capetown.

The Portuguese create a row of settlements at the East African coast, where from the control the trade in the Indian Ocean. 1531-32 they reach fortresses in Sena and Tete upon the Zambezi River. They destroy the existing equilibrium of powers. Monomotapa, the most powerful state in the South Africa in the 16th century, calls the Portuguese for help to suppress the revolt. They receive privileges in trade and mining. After the conquest of Monomotapa state (modern Zimbabwe) at the end of 16th century the Portuguese create a protectorate and exploit the gold mines. 1633 they suppress the revolt in the kingdom. Later it is superceded by neighboring Rozwi. 1698 the sultan of Oman founds the sultanate of Zanzibar and controls the trade at the East African coast.

Madagascar, inhabited by the incomers from Indonesia, has the first states in XIV-XVth centuries. In XVIth centuries the Arabic factories were destroyed by the Portuguese, from the XVIIth century it is often visited by Dutch, English, French. For the securing of sea way to India French fortress Dauphin on Madagascar (1643-72) and the island of Bourbon (Réunion, 1654).

The old Christian state of Ethiopia continues to exist. Emperor Zara-Ya'kob (1434-68) defeats the Falashas; monk Abba Sabra and Prince Sagga Amlak join the Falashas, establishing monasticism among them; a religious awakening takes place, marked by the adoption of Ge'ez as the sacred written language.

Adal, a union of Islamic states in Somalia, tries to conquer Ethiopia 1527 (or 1529). Its leader Ahmad ibn Ibrahim Gran ("the left-handed"), an imam, proclaims the holy war. He invaded and occupied Ethiopia, supported, among others, by Falashas. It is finished only 1542 (or 1543), when a Portuguese unity comes for help to the Ethiopians. The invasion is beaten, Gran was murdered. Emperor Galaudeus (1540-59) refutes Jesuite accusations that Ethiopian observance of the Sabbath and of the circumcision are un-Christian. Emperors Minas and Sarsa Dengel (1559-1597) defeat the Falashas. At the end of the XVIth century Ethiopia could liberate from the Portuguese, but politically it became disintegrated into the semi-athonome principdoms, who lived upon the rent from peasants, there were also many slaves, church was influential too. The feudal cliques fought each other and put the kings of Solomon dynasty, ruling the country from their name. Emperor Susenyos (1607-1632) converts to Catholicism and finally subjugates the Falashas. His son returns to the Ethiopian Coptic Church recruiting Falashas to his army. Beginning of the assimilation of the Falashas who adopt the Amharic language (although Agau will continue to be used till the 19th century). Ge'ez remains, as among the Christians, the language of prayer.

In the whole, the native states in Africa continue to exist (both Islamic and Christian), but the European colonizators settle more at the coasts of Africa, developing a human trade.

Questions:

1. What was the main line of development of the North Africa countries?
2. Describe the events in Africa to the south of equator.

7. India and neighbor countries in 1450-1700.

a) India.

1451 the Chisri are succeeded by the Afghanian Lodi, who move the capital from Delhi to Agra. Nizam Iskandar (1489-1517) attacks Punjab and the Ganges valley till the frontier of Bengalia. He as sultan makes pretensions to the state, made by his ancestors. His residence attracts scholars, poets and clergymen. Ibrahim II (1517-26) is defeated by Babur, when he tries to restrict the power of Afghans.

Zahiraddin Muhammad (1526-1530) with the nickname Babur (Tiger), the founder of Moghul dynasty, is the descendent of Timur on the father's line, and of Jinghiz Khan on the mother's line. 1494, after the death of his father, a Timurid ruler in Central Asia, he takes the power in his small principedom, being eleven years old, but has to leave Fergana, then Samarkand before Uzbeks and founds a new principedom in Kabul 1504. 1510, after the defeat of Uzbeks from the Sawafids, Babur tries to win back his old principedom unsuccessfully. Then he goes to the North India, which he had attacked already 1505 and other three times. 1526 at Panipat he defeats the much more numerous army of Lodi prince Ibrahim II, for all because of his artillery. 1527 he also beats the leader of Rajput confederation Rana Sangram at Chanua. His empire extends from Kabul over Punjab and the Ganges valley till Allahabad; he defends the eastern frontier of this empire against the Afganian princes of Bihar and Bengaly in the battle at Gogra (1529). Although he does not like India, what he writes in his autobiography, therefore his tomb is in Kabul, but he sees the chance to build a mighty empire in the North India. 1530 he dies 46 years old.

Nasiraddin Humayun (1530-1556), Baburs second son, follows as the ruler over North India with the title of an emperor. He has to defend his rule against his brother Kamran, the governor of Kabul and Kandahar, against Bahadur Shah, the king of Gujarat and Malwa, and against the Afganian prince of Bihar, Sher Khan – later called Sher Khan Sur, founder of Suri dynasty, who endangers him at the east. 1540 Humayun has to leave India after the further defeat at Kanauj and lives 14 years in exile in Persia. Sher Han Sur proclaims himself to the emperor and takes Punjab from the Humayun's brother. 1541 the Timurid prince Haidar Dughlat, who as strict Sunnite converts or exterminates Shiites, falls in Punjab. At the end general Bairam Khan, who had served already to Babur, dethrones the not united Suri princes. 1554 he returns Humayun to Delhi, where he dies 1556.

Akbar the Great (1556-1605), a son of Humayun, is the most important Moghul emperor. When his father dies, he is only 13 years old; Bairam Khan is a regent. 1556 he defeats the Hindu general Hemu at the second battle at Panipat; 1558-1560 Gwalior, Ajmer and Jaunpur are conquered. 1561 Bairam Khan is fired and murdered on the way of pilgrimage to Mecca. Two years long the harem is almighty, till Akbar takes government 1562. Bairam Khan's son, Abdarrahim, becomes his generalissimo and also favors the art. 1564 Malwa and Partly Gondwana are subjugated. 1565 the Hindu princes are defeated upon the Deccan at Talikota. Till 1567 Akbar fights with the Rajputs, but after the victory looks for their friendship. Many Rajputs get high civil and military offices, the mixed marriages are concluded. Till 1576 almost all Rajput principedoms become protectorate inside the Moghul state. 1573 Gujarat is annexed; already 1564 Bengaly accepted the supremacy of Moghuls, but is finally incorporated only 1574. 1581 Akbar makes campaign against his brother Muhammad Hakim, who rebelled in Kabul. 1585 the principedom of Kabul is incorporated as a protectorate. 1586-91 Akbar annexes Kashmir, Sind and the eastern Makran for the security of frontiers. Finally, 1600 after the bold defence by the princess Chand Bibi the fortress and town of Ahmadnagar fall. In the inner politics Akbar is tolerant. On the place of the feudalism with vassals the centralist state with an hierarchy of officials is created. The empire is divided into provinces, which governors unite civil and military functions. They and other officials get salaries. The governors have to organize the troops; besides it, there is a small permanent army, which is composed mostly from cavalry and makes the top of attack at war. To the strengthening of empire the marriages with Hindu princesses are allowed; the Hindus are taken into the state service. 1563 the special tax for Hindus is abolished; the central government (divan) is reorganized with measures against the deceiving or revolt of officials (inspectors); from 1579

the firm tax system (a third of a peasant's income, counted as the middle in ten years) and the ordered tax collection are prescribed. The ground tax is defined according to the size of plot, quality of ground and the frequency of harvests in a year. The proclamation of a new syncretistic religion (1582) "din-i llahi" has no success. Akbar contacts Jesuits and Parses and proclaims the tolerance edict for all religions 1583.

Nuraddin Jahangir (1605-27), a son of Akbar and a Rajput princess, strengthens the central power. He must fight with the revolt in Bengaly 1612. Already 1606 his son Khusrau had revolted against the father, supported by the Sikhs in Amritsra, whose ascent begins in this time. After 1611 the real power is in the hands of Nuraddin's wife, Nur Jahan, a widow of a Persian general. Besides her there is so called "Iranian group" at the court; the group of Hindus and converted Hindus, as well as Turanis, Turks of different origin loses power. 1612/13 the English colonial policy begins. The carrier of English colonial policy is the East Indian company (1600-1858). Khuram, another son of Jahangir, revolts unsuccessfully 1620. Under Shah Khurram Jahan (1628-58), a son of Jahangir, married with a niece of Nur Jahan, the empire extends further. 1633 Ahmadnagar is taken into possession; 1636 Bijapur and Golkonda accept the supremacy of an emperor; but the sultans of these principedoms as Shiites keep the close relations to the Safawid Persia. Under Jahan the religious policy of Akbar is revised. The Islamic character of empire is stressed stronger; to the other religions mission is prohibited. The laws against blasphemy are sharpened. The most favored activity of Jahan is a building; the most famous is Taj Mahal, which he orders to build for his wife, died 1631. Madras becomes the center of English colonialism (1639).

Aurangzeb, his son (1658-1707), makes Islam almost to the state religion. Every law has to correspond to Koran; the Islamic law is strictly used, the head tax (jizya) for Hindus is again introduced 1679. They are persecuted, some temples in North India destroyed. The Hindu vassals in Jaipur are attacked. Also the non-orthodox Sunnite, Sufis and the minority of Shiites are fought. Already as prince Aurangzeb is a rigorous enemy of Hindus and a supporter of an orthodox Islamic belief, in difference to his rival, the brother Dara Shikoh, who has tendency to Sufism. Meanwhile, Marathi, the fighters for Hinduism in Deccan, become united militarily by Shivaji (1646-80), who crowned himself in Puna 1674. Their permanent spoiling campaigns serve to the keeping of army. 1658 Aurangzeb imprisoned his father (died 1666) and defeated his brother Dara at Ujjain to execute him because of heresy 1659. He also murders other brothers and proclaims himself to the emperor. Inside the country he has to fight against Rajputs. Marathis plunder Surat 1664/70, the richest trade city of the Moghul state. Bombay becomes an English colonial center 1661, Calcutta 1696. Madras, Bombay and Calcutta are attacked by Marathi. In north-east the enemies of Aurangzeb are Sikhs, whose leader was executed by him 1675; the Pathans rebel at the Afghanian frontier. From 1681 the annual campaigns of Aurangzeb against Marathi begins, who under the peshwas become the Indian great power. 1686-87 he conquers Bijapur and Golkonda to make a defense wall against the increasing power of Marathi, with whom his son Akbar unites, who later has to flee into Persia. After the conquest of Kandahar, Kabul and the Deccan the empire is the most extended (1691). But the long absence of an emperor in Deccan (residence Burhanpur) from 1681, the devastating war against Marathi, the revolts in provinces, the inability of officials and officers, the destruction of finances and the decay of his personality cause the political and economic crisis at the end of his rule. The peasant revolts begin, especially of Jats between Delhi and Agra. 1702-1704 ca. 2 million people died from hunger in Deccan.

In the south of India the Portuguese settle. 1510 the Portuguese conquer Panjim and establish Goa as the seat of the viceroy; many Jews and Marranos are among the settlers. The vicekings Almeida and Albuquerque create the Portuguese trade empire in Goa, Ceylon, Malacca, Indonesia. 1523 the Portuguese conquer Cranganore; the Jews find refuse in Cochin. 1560 the Inquisition is established in Goa. 1568 the "Paradesi" synagogue is built in Cochin. 1663 the Dutch began to rule in Cochin; aperiod of prosperity for the Jews. 1664 Colbert founds the French East Indian company and favors the state colonial expeditions. 1674 the English East India Company, founded 1600, transfers its center from Surat to Bombay, which becomes the largest Jewish center on the Indian subcontinent. 1686 the first delegation from the Jewish

Portuguese community of Amsterdam arrives in India and establishes contacts with Indian Jewry.

In the begin of XVIth century the Portuguese settled in the south-west of Ceylon, in Cotta, where they built a fortress of Colombo. Then Portuguese subjugated the state of Kandi in the center of the island. But a series of revolts and wars caused the retreat of Portuguese at the end of XVIth century, and in the middle of XVIIth century they were definitely expelled from Ceylon, but were succeeded by Hollanders, who has got the monopoly for spices trade.

In the realm of culture the mixture of Indian and Arabic-Persian elements takes place. The Islamic aristocracy takes over the Indian customs; under the Islamic influence the strict seclusion also of Hindu wives, the growing of child marriages and the widow burnings. Urdu with Hindi grammar and Persian-Arabian words becomes the state language. The New Indian languages are built: Hindi, Bengali, Punjabi, Marathi etc. The sultans of India attract Persian poets, historians and scholars at their court. The educated Babur writes "Memoirs". Akbar reorganizes the education system, founds libraries and high schools. At the Moghul court the poet Urfu (1555-1591), Abul Fadl, the historian Badauni work. Khushal Khan Khattak (1613-1689), the "warrior poet", support the struggle of Pashtu tribes, the Pathans, against the Moghuls and pleads for unity of all Afghan tribes; he writes his poems (besides the battle songs, also the love lyrics) in Pashtu. A part of verses is written in the prison, where he was put because of the revolt against the Moghul emperor. All Moghul emperors are the big architects. After the Persian example the Indian miniature painting (portraits) appear. Many Persian and Indian epics, also Ramayana and Mahabharata, as well the live stories of Timur, Babur and Akbar are illustrated. In the landscapes the Indian style people, animals and plants are put into the Persian landscapes. Through the Persian translation of the Upanishads by Dara Shokoh Europe gets the first knowledge of Indian language. The Hindi imitation of Ramayana "Sea of the deeds of Rama" of Tulsi Das (1532-1624) becomes the "House bible" of Hindus. In the architecture the Central Asian, Persian and Indian building forms from different regions of subcontinent intertwine (the inner courts with column gangs are typical). At the tomb of Humayun in Delhi the Iranian and Central Asian elements prevale. The new residence of Akbar, Fathpur Sikri at Agra 1569, shows palaces and mosques of the pure Mogul art, as well as the mausoleum of Akbar in Sikandra (which shows even the Buddhist style in the running around galleries) and the Go-Mandal-temple in Udaipur, built in Rajput style (1600). The culmination of architecture is Taj Mahal, the mausoleum for the beloved wife of Shah Jahan (1632-52): the cupola building with four minarets in white marmor and jewelry incrustations is thought to be one of the best buildings of the world in his harmony with gardens and water basins. Under Shah Jahan the citadel and the pearls mosque in Agra and the golden peacock throne (now in Teheran) are built.

In Islam the Naqshbandiya order expands in India 1600-1700. Despite mystics, his adepts are open to the world and not rarely politically active. The first of them in India is Ahmad Faruqi Sirhindi (1564-1624) is thought to be a restaurateur of classical theology. Other Naqshbandi take part in the formation of Urdu literature. In Hinduism Vallabha (1479-1531) and his sect of Maharajas hail the sexual life between God and soul. Caitanya (1485-1534) preaches the ecstatic love to God through the singing, music, and dance. The syncretistic sects (mixture of Hindu and Islam ideas) appear. The pupil of Ramananda Kabir (1440-1518) unites the Islamic monotheism with the soul migration and karma teaching. Around Nanak (1469-1538) the religious community of Sikhs (pupil) with special clothes, hear dress, beard unites. Their holy book is Adi Granth. The idea of holy war against the non-believing Muslims is taken over; the military theocracy is built. From this time the Sikhs become the elite soldiers.

The literature in Dravid languages continues to develop. Pugalenti (ca. 1560) describes the stories of Nala and Damayanti in his "Nalavembâ" in Tamil. Jaina literature is written in Kannada (Abhinava-vâdi Vidyânanda ca. 1530; Munivamśâbhudaya of Cidânandandakavi 1680), as well as the Shivaite one (Toṅtada Siddheśvara, the second part of 15th century). The big representative of Telugu literature was Vemana (the second half of 15th century). At the court of king Krishnarâya (1509-1525) of Vijanagar (existed till 1565) the flourishing of Telugu literature took place (Allasâni Peddana, Nandi Timmana, Dhûrjani, Pingali Sûrana). In

the mixture of Malayalam and Sanskrit Cerusseri Nambûri (15th century) write “Krishna – Gâtha”. The chronics of Kerala (“Keralôtpatti”) belongs to the 17th century.

In the first period of the new time the last big empire at the Indian ground exists. It is organized by Muslim non-Indians and controls almost all the territory of subcontinent. The last flourishing of syncretistic culture takes place. The revolts of the subjugated people and the inner crisis brings it to the end at the begin of 18th century.

B) Indochina and Indonesia in 1450-1700.

In the middle of XVIth century the Shan principedom of Pegu united Burma for a short time; the big Tai state of Ayutiya became its vassal for 15 years. But the Portuguese came ca. 1600 and began to Christianize the local population, the state of Pegu was destroyed. Its successor was the principedom of Ava, which united the most part of Burma (the middle of XVIIth century). In Siam in the middle of XVIth century Khmer attacked the Ayutiya. 1584 the movement for independence began, in the time of Naresuan’s rule (1590-1605) Burmanians and Khmer were expelled from Ayutiya. All the Thai lands were united, Siam became one of the biggest states of Indochina. From the XVIth century the colonial expansion of Portuguese, Holland, English and especially French traders took place. But ca. 1700 the central power could expel the foreign merchants and close the country. In XV-XVIIth centuries Camboja exists with the capital in Pnompen, but is attacked by Siam and Daiviet. The Laos state Lansang makes wars with Daiviet and Burma. It was a time of the flourishing of of united Lao state, its literature and culture. The most powerful ruler was Suligna Vongsa (1637-94), but after his death the state was disintegrated into some principedoms.

In Malaya Muzaffar Shah (1445-58), a son and successor of Muhammad Shah, defeats the Siameses; he is the first ruler he titles himself sultan. Mansur Shah (1459-77), a son of Muzaffar, expands his state. In the union with the Muslim states of the west he can fight against the Hindu states of Yava and the Thai states at the peninsula. He unites the trade of Yava, India and China in his state, therefore the Turks, Persians, Tamils, Arabs and Gujaratis belong. When under Mahmud Shah (1488-1511) the Portuguese appear, there is no any serious rival for Malacca in South-East Asia. 1511 Malacca is taken by Portuguese; the entrance to the Malacca strait is occupied. Sultan Muhammad Shah (1511-29) flees to Johore, where he founds a new sultanate. The positions at the most important sea and trade way of South-East Asia, the Malacca strait, helps to the sultanate. In the fight against the Portuguese Johore is supported by the Netherlands from 1606; the sultan helps to the Netherlands to expel Portuguese from Malacca 1641, but himself becomes dependent from the Netherland East India company. 1699 sultan Mahmud (1685-99) is murdered; the direct line of Malacca dynasty ends; the side line (the Bendaghara dynasty) follows.

In South-East Sumatra (Palembang) Islam expands gradually from 1440. The principedom of Pasai is conquered by the state of Malacca. The sultanate Atjeh develops to the leading position in Sumatra. It is favored (like Malacca and Johore) by the position at the Malacca strait. The ascent of Atjeh is a sequence of the fall of Malacca in 1511. The traders from the Near East and from India, who earlier came to Malacca, now come to Atjeh to avoid the high taxes, which are demanded by the Portuguese at the Malaya Peninsula. 1520 Atjeh becomes independent from the sultanate of Pidie (Pedir), conquers Pidie and Samudra and expels Portuguese from Paisei. He attacks Malacca many times. 1613 sultan Iskandar I (Mûda; 1607-36) conquers Johore, 1618 Pahang, 1619 Kedah and 1620 Perlak. Iskandar II (Thani; 1636-41), his son-in-law, the prince of Pahang, develops Atjeh to the important sea power and dominates the piper trade. The fleets of Atjeh sail till India and into the Red Sea. The diplomatic relations reach till India and even till the Ottoman Empire. But after Iskandar II’s death the state is ruled by four women in turn, the civil wars begin; then it is disintegrated into many small states, which partly came under the domination of Netherlands; but the core region remains independent as the sultanate of Ajeih with sultan as the highest religious and political authority. 1663 the Netherlands arrive the piper monopoly (the Painan contract); the economic foundation of sultanate is liquidated, its decay begins.

Ca. 1500 a Muslim from Palembang under the supremacy of king of Mojopahit founds a town of Demak in Yava, which becomes a center of Islamic principedom. After the

disintegration of Hindu state Mojopahit the sultanate of Demak is built 1520. The Hindu princedoms of the island are subjugated till Balambangan. In the middle of 16th century the state of Demak is disintegrated; in the west the independent sultanate Bantam, in the east initially the sultanate Pajang and then the state of Mataram by a vassal of Pajang is built. The founder of Bantam dynasty is the most important wali of Yava Faletahan. Walis (Arab. Wali Allah –close to God) are missionary tradesmen, who found Islamic missionary schools; they integrate also the native practices. Because of their religious authority they can legitimate their king's power or become kings themselves. Faletahan comes from Pasei, 1521 makes a pilgrimage to Mecca and gets the title of sultan for the prince of Demak. He marries the sultan's daughter and is sent by him into the Hindu Western Yava, after the subjugation of which he introduces Islam. The time of his rule is 1526-1550. His tomb at the mount of Jati is one of the important holy places of Islam upon Yava.

Hasan Uddin (1550-70), his son, becomes independent from Demak and extends his region of domination in the north till Lampong upon Sumatra.

Abdalqadir (1596-1651) from the dynasty of Faletahan receives the sultan's title from Mecca 1638. Religiously the sultanate is strictly Islamic. The relations to Mecca are close; the sultans have Arabic names. 1596 the first Netherland fleet arrives to Bantam. 1619 Jakarta is taken by the Netherlands and on its place Batavia is founded.

Under Abdalfattah (Sultan Agong, 1651-82) the trade fleet is built, which brings piper and spices to India and to Philippines. As the most southern staple place of the Chinese trade Bantam has a special significance for the trade with East Asia. Besides Chinese, in the most important haven of Jayakarta (Jakarta) one can find Indians, Turks, Persians and Arabs as tradesmen.

Sultan Haji (1682-87), a son of Agong, who revolted against his brother 1680, becomes dependent from the Netherlands, who had supported him.

The sultanate of Payang, which originated from the disintegration of the sultanate of Demak 1568, becomes a part of the ascending princedom of Mataram under the ruler Senapati (1582-1601). He extends his region of domination, but lacks the official spiritual initiation. Only 1641 Mecca gives the title of sultan to his grandson Agong (1613-45); he gets the spiritual initiation for his kingdom from earlier fought and now imprisoned mountain saint Sunan Giri. Albeit he is not so strictly orthodox like the sultans of Bantam, he tries to use Islam as the foundation of power. 1633 he introduces the Islam calendar and orders to be buried as a wali on the mountain. Under Agong Mataram has the broadest extension. He dominates the middle and the east of Java, attacks Sukadana upon Borneo 1622, conquers the island of Madura 1622, and takes the contrary haven town of Surabaya 1625, which had resisted for many years. Through the marriage he unites with the spiritual capital of Bantam Cheribon, but cannot subjugate the sultanate of Bantam.

Amangkurat I (1645-77), his successor, is plagued from the mania of persecution and orders to kill his brother and other relatives. He also to kill in his palace 6,000 Muslim clergymen, whom he accuses in the state treason. He refuses from the title of sultan and takes the Java title of Sunan (=venerated). Therefore the development to the syncretism of Buddhist, Hindu, Old Java and Islamic elements begins. 1646 he has to conclude peace with Netherlands with many concessions. 1656-1680 Batavia and Mataram fight together against the Netherlands. 1672-80 the revolt against Sunan unites a prince of Madura, the pirates from Macassar and the nobles from Mataram. The Netherlands suppress the revolt; for this they secure the privileges from the Sunan's successor Amangkurat II (1677-1703). 1686 the war with Mataram begins, 1708 the Netherlands get a trade monopoly.

At the end of 15th century the different coast stripes of Borneo are ruled by Malayan sultans. Ca. 1500 in Brunei on the north coast the sultan Suleiman becomes a founder of a Muslim dynasty. Only the sultanate of Brunei remains independent, other coast stripes become the protectorates of the Netherlands.

Upon Celebes the prince of Macassar converts to Islam and takes the sultan's title 1603. 1660-67 three expeditions against Macassar are taken, 1669 the sultan has to capitulate before the Netherlands; a part of Macassarians becomes sea plunderers or soldiers of fortune.

The inside of the great islands as well as the small islands were not Islamized even at coasts ca. 1500. According to the legend, the ruler of Ternate traveled to Gresik in North Java to become Muslim there ca. 1495. In Ternate and Tidore the sultanates were built and created spacious island empires. 1521 the Portuguese set their feet on Ternate, which becomes a protectorate 1528. 1578 they make fortress on Tidore. On Timor, Flores and Jolo the settlements appear. Ca. 1600 the state of Solo comprises the whole Solo archipelago and extends till Borneo. From the begin of 17th century the Spanish try to conquer Solo and Magindanau. Magindanau, albeit belongs to Philippines, was concentrated more upon Borneo and Indonesia, like Solo. It was created as the confederation of small Muslim possessions in the opposition against Spaniards, who called the natives "Moro". The expedition of Fernao de Magalhaes discovered the island of Sebu (Philippines) 1521. He was murdered by natives under Lapu-Lapu. But already in the middle of XVIth century the Spaniards were sure at the archipelago, which was called by them to the honor of Prince Philipp (future Philipp II) 1542. The haven of Manila was created 1570. At the end of XVIth century the Spaniards were full masters in the north and in the center of archipelago, but not in the south. In XVIIth century the population of Philippines was about 500,000 inhabitants, among them only 1% of Spaniards. About 270 plots were made, which were given to encomienda (a tuition) to the Spanish colonists, both private, monks' orders and the king. The encomendero collected tribut (tribute) from the population with the help of community elders (cazics). At the begin of XVIIth century the system of emcomiendas was abolished; now the tributs were collected immediately to the king's treasury. In Manila there were more and more Chinese tradesmen (at the end of XVIth century their colony numbered 10,000 people, at the begin of XVII – already 25,000). In the XVIIth century the weakening of Spain caused the Netherland and English attacks and the strengthening of feudalism (every peasant has to work 40 days a year for the state).

1602 the Dutch East India company is founded and Amboina (Ambon) occupied. 1603-05 the forts upon Moluccas are created, Ternate is occupied 1607. 1635-46 the first revolt on Moluccas against the Netherlands takes place. 1634-36 the Netherlands try to cause Macassar do not take part at the spices trade. 1637 the Netherlands conquer Magindanau, 1638 the Solo state. 1647 Ternate gives West Ceram. 1650-56 the second revolt on Moluccas takes place. 1653 Tidore gives to the Netherlands the east of Ceram, it confirms privileges to the Netherlands 1660, Ternate 1666. 1675 Ternate and Tidore become the vassals of Netherlands. 1642-59 a Dutch Abel Tasman discovers Mauritius Island, Vandiemeland (Tasmania), New Seeland and North-West New Guinea.

In the whole, Malaya and Indonesia were more and Islamized, in difference to the Indochina, where Hinduism and Buddhism were preserved, and to Philippines, where the Catholicism was promoted by Spain. The Portuguese, then the Netherlands put Indonesia more and more under their control.

Questions:

1. Describe India in the time of Moghul rule.
2. What were main cultural events of the Moghul India?
3. What was the main difference between Indonesia and Philippines in this time?

8. China and neighbor countries in 1450-1700.
 - A. China and neighbor countries.

The Ming culture continues to develop. The Neo-Confucian philosopher Wang Yangming (1472-1528) criticizes the Sung scholastics and influences the Japanese philosophy; the literary collection "Yunglo ta-tien" encompasses 23,000 volumes. The cartography and realistic novels appear. The Taoist canon "Tao Jian", edited 1445, had the last addition 1607. 1489 and 1512 two steles from Kaifeng, describing the history of the Jews, were put; the first dates the arrival of Jews to Kaifeng during the Sung Dynasty period; the second, engraved on the back of the stele of 1489, ascribes it to the Han dynasty. Adam is equated there with Chinese first man Pan Ku.

Ca. 1500 hunger, plague and floods weaken the state. 1516 Portuguese came near Kanton, but were expelled from the coast 1517. The attempt of Portuguese traders to settle near Ninbo in the 40-s of the century was also unsuccessful. Only 1557 they managed to occupy Macao, where they made trade for tribute. In this time the poet Kia Tsing (1522-66) rules. The Tunguse make plundering campaigns till Beijing. 1556 because of the earthquake more than 850,000 Chinese die. 1563 the Japanese sea pirates are destroyed.

Wang Li (1573-1619) favors the mission of Jesuits (pater Ricci). Through their mathematical and technical knowledge they become influential at the court. They do not teach the new achievements of European science, but the old knowledge of Aristotle and Ptolemy and therefore deteriorate the development of Chinese science, especially astronomy. They were also spies and traded with weapon. 1605 Ai Ten of Kaifeng tells Matteo Ricci about his community. Russians tried to establish contacts with China under Ivan the Terrible and Vasily Shuisky, but the ambassadors did not reach China. The first Russian mission was the embassy of Tomsk Cossack Ivan Petlin, in the summer of 1618 the Beijing court send with him the letter to Moscow in order to establish the regularly trade relations. The state deteriorates more and more and needs reforms. In the second part of XVIth century Zhang Quizheng made some reforms, which were abolished after his death. At the end of XVIth century the oppositioners created a first political group around the Confucian academy Dongling in Jiannan province. It demanded the restriction of big landownership, the lowering of taxes, the abolishing of state mine monopoly, the protection of crafts and trade. 1620 emperor supported their demands, but soon he was poisoned. 1622 the Dutch made settlement on Taiwan; the revolt of "White Lotus" began in Shangdong. Englishmen shoot the fortifications at Kanton and get the permission to trade with China. 1624 the Dongling school was defeated. The power of eunuchs came to the end 1628.

In the same time in the North-East China the Manzhou state appears. The Manzhou king Nurhaqi (1559-1626) ceased to pay tribute to China 1609. He organized the good army ("eight banners"), weaponed with canons, and 1618 seized the Chinese territories on Liaodong peninsula and Southern Mongolia. His successor Abahai (1626-43) proclaimed himself to the emperor of Qin dynasty and organized the centralized administration according to the Chinese example. 1637 Korea became the vassal of Manzhuria. Nurhaqi and Abahai were buried in Shengyan in high kurgans according to the old nomadic custom.

The last Ming emperor was Zhung Zheng (1628-1644). In China the drierness and hunger of 1628 deteriorated the situation of peasants. Soon in the province Shanxi the peasants occupied a lot of territories. 1632 the army of 200,000 peasants went to Beijing, but could not take it.

Different armies were in Henan and Hubei. 1635 they could not unite their forces. 1639 the people's movement began again. Soon the great leader Li Jicheng (1606-1645) appears. He confiscated the possession of rich and lowered the taxes. 1642 the synagogue of Kaifeng is destroyed during an anti-imperial revolt. In April 1644 Beijing was taken. The general Wu Sangui united with Manzhus, who expelled the peasants from the capital. Son of Abahai Shunzhi became the emperor. Under the prince regent Dorgun (1628-1650), having bought weapons from East India company, Manzhus began to occupy the Chinese cities – Nanjin, Hanzhou, Suzhou, Nanchan etc. All the citizens of Nanchan were killed; in Guanzhou more than 100,000 people were murdered. Chinese people opposed to the invaders. General Wang Zhennan fled into the northern part of Zhejiang province, where he propagated the fight Udan Tao. The last revolt was headed by Wu Sanghui himself, the governor of south-west provinces, 1673-81. Taiwan was occupied only 1683. Now all the China came under the Manchu power. Mongolia became a protectorate 1696.

Beginning from Kangxi (1662-1723), whose teacher was Jesuit Ferdinand Verbiest, the Manchu emperors were Confucianists. Confucianism was dogmatized with 16 rules of Holy Edict of 1671. They preserved the Chinese administration and exams. The state lands were given to Manzhus without right of selling. The size of plots was diminished to few mu. The population of China was 100 million ca. 1650. The south was overpopulated. The Han Chinese were prohibited to settle to the north of the Great Chinese wall, therefore the most peasant wander into the west provinces. In Europe Chinese porcelain, cotton, silk and tea were very famous. The European trade was restricted with the haven town Guanzhou (Kanton) in the Southern China. 1663 the Kaifeng synagogue is reopened, the third inscription claims that the Jews arrived during the Chou dynasty and describes their beliefs in Confucian terms.

After the establishing of Qing power, the relation with Russia grew. Some missions were sent to China (Baikov 1654-1657, Spafariya 1675-1678). After Russian Cossacs came to the Pacific Ocean and Amur, the conflict with China began. In the 80-s Kangxi began the active attacks and expelled Cossacs from the fortress of Albazin. After the negotiations under the leadership of Golovin in Nerchinsk the Nerchinsk treaty was concluded 1689, according to which Cossacs had to leave Albazin and evacuate Amur region. It was a first equal treaty of China with a European country.

In the culture philology, local chronicles, literary collections develop. Generally, there is stagnation in culture, comparing with the former period.

In the whole, first 200 years of the period China is under the power of Ming dynasty, which ends in the people's revolt and the Manchu conquest. In the last 50 years China is conquered by Manzhus, who establish their rule also in the neighbor countries. Tibet (under the power of Dalai lamas) and Sinkiang remain independent.

In the XVIIth century in Korea two groups (the Confucianists and the relatives of Wang and aristocracy) fought for power. To the century different parties appeared (western, eastern etc.). The southern coast was invaded by pirates. Japanese shogun Hideyoshi demanded tribute from Korea and sent 200,000 people army to Pusan 1592. In some weeks he conquered Seoul and P'yongyang. The Korean admiral Li Sun Sin began the people's war against the invasion. He destroyed the Japanese fleet and has got help from the Ming China. Soon the negotiations began. Li was fired, and the Korean fleet defeated. But 1597 he came back and Japanese were

expelled. After the expelling of Japanese the inner struggle strengthened; the northern, then the western parties were influential. 1608 the unified rice tax “tedonmi” was introduced; the private land ownership grew, the state credits were introduced. Koreans supported Ming dynasty in his fight with Manzhus 1618. After the invasions of Manzhus 1627 and 1636 Korea became vassal of Manzhus 1637. Korea had foreign relations only through China, the Korean havens were closed for foreigners, the inhabitants cannot leave the territory of the country; some exceptions were made only for the strictly limited trade with Japan.

In Vietnam (Daiviet) the dynasty of the late Le rules 1428-1789. 1471 the southern lands of Tyampa were included into the united state. From the XVIth century the power of Le rulers weakened; the big officials from the families Nguen, Mak and Ching fought for influence in the country, which was in fact divided into three parts. Soon Maks were defeated; in the XVIIth century Nguens and Chings fought for power. Chings controlled the northern part of country, had good army, fleet and even battle elephants. The private land possessions grew, crafts and trade, as well as mining developed. The southern part, controlled by Nguens, developed too. The migrated from the north Viets settled at the lands, seized from Tyams and Khmars, and had tax privileges. The big colony of Chinese colonists existed in the Mekong delta after the fall of Ming dynasty; the cities grew. In XVIIth century many Catholic missionaries came to Vietnam. Besides the Chinese hieroglyphic writing, the Vietnam writing on the base of Latin appeared, created by the Portugal missionaries. Some hundred thousands people were converted to Catholicism. The state power became indignant; in some towns the European factories were closed, the activity of Catholic Church was restricted.

B. Japan in 1450-1700.

1. 1450-1575.

The “war of years Onin” last 1467-1477. It causes the general revolt in the provinces. Then the epoch of “fighting lands” or Sengoko period of “riders and heroes” begins (1478-1573). In the province Yamasiro the peasant revolt lasts from 1485 till 1493. The peasants created their own self-government, order trade and ways, low the rent. Ca. 1500 emperor and shoguns were powerless, the state was disintegrated into almost 400 small states. Organized pirats (wako) plunder the land. The old families descend and the new ones ascend. A new layer of feudal warlords, about 1500 daimyo (=great name) become hereditary princes. Their vassals become the war caste of samurais (the followers). From the Konfucian spirit in bushido (the way) the Japanese rider ideal is built; besides the fighting arts and bow shooting, the special vitues are persecuted: the highest ideals are the fidelity to Tenno (emperor) “shu” and to the family (“ko”). The ceremonial suicide (harakiri) is prescribed. The fortresses of daimyo, who fight each other, attract many artisans and tradesmen. The markets appear, the towns grow. The movements for the preserving of Japanese culture achievements (porcelane, kooking arts, fighting) and secret rites of Shintoism appear. The tea ceremony as means to the liberation of man from feelings through the esthetical meditation propagates. 1542 the European fire weapons is imported; soon they are imitated and succeed bow, spear and sword. 1549 the Jesuit mission under Franciscus Xavier is founded with successes in the south. Already 1580 in the country there were ca. 150,000 Christians, 200 churches and five seminaries; to the begin of XVIIth century there were already ca. 700,000 Christians.

So in the first part of the period the Ashikaga shogunate decreases, the country is disintegrated, the new social stratum of daimyo fight for power.

2.1575-1700.

The shogunless time lasts 1573-1603. In this time three great creators of new Japanese state work.

Oda Nobunaga (1534-82). The “Japanese Attila” fights the opponents of emperor, goes to Kyoto and defeats the last Ashikaga shogun 1573, having made a union with the feudal from houses Tokugawa and Takeda. Till 1582 he subjugates thirty provinces from 66. To the weakening of Buddhist monk soldiers (sotei) he supports the Christian mission. He also makes reforms, directed for the development of towns and trade, but under the control of supreme power; for example, 1568 the trade town Sakai lost its autonomy.

Hideyoshi Toyotomi (1535-1598) was of peasant origin. He is a chancellor from 1582 and destroys the domination of daimyo. He builds a new central power with five tairos (representatives of shogun) and bagyos (the state governors). He made a people’s counting and a land cadaster. The peasants became serfs and had to pay rice tax 2/3 of harvest. The measures of square and weight were unified. The weapon was confiscated from peasants, they had only to till the land. The control of towns and trade was strengthened. 1587 the edict about expelling of foreign missionaries of Portuguese and Spain origin and persecution of Japanese Christians, including the destruction of churches and the church literature typographies. But the revolted southern daimyo helped the fled Christians. The campaign against Korea (1592-98) was unsuccessful, 1598 he died.

Tokugawa shogunate (1603-1867).

Under the successor of Hideyoshi (three years old) the regent council was built. The victor was Iyeyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616), who defeated Hideyori Toyotomi in the battle at Sekigahara (1600). 1603 he was proclaimed to a shogun. He destroyed all the Toyotomi, made a new distribution of fiefs and created a police state. Under him and his son Heditada the political unification of country was finished. Jedo (Tokio) became a capital. Ca. 200 daimyo preserved rights of judgment and administrative power, as well as their samurais, but had to spend every second year in the special court in Kyoto like hostages. The inimical daimyo (tozama) were separated territorially from each other. Crafts and trades were subordinated to the center together with towns themselves. The four social strata were differentiated (samurais, peasants, craftsmen, traders). The feudal system is divided into the court nobility (kuge), landlords with residence obligation (daimyo), officials and vassals (samurai), people (heimin) and parias (eta, hinin). Peasants were 80% of population, they could not be bought or sold, but did not move from their land. Japan was isolated from the world, all havens, besides Nagasaki and Hirado, were closed for foreigners (1616), 1624 the Spanish ships ceased to be allowed to come, 1630 the European literature was prohibited. The trade went through the Dutch tradesmen. 1637-38 the revolt of Christians at Shimabara (Kyushu) ended with the extermination of Christians. 1639 all havens were closed (till 1854); the only trade place is the artificial island Deshima (1641).

In the country the dramas, especially the No plays, and the landscape painting continued to develop. Under the “dogs shogun” Tsunayoshi (1680-1709) the lyrics and theatre flourishes, later also the painting (especially wood -cut).

In the whole, in the second period Japan was united, feudalism was conserved; the country was isolated from the foreign world.

Questions:

1. Describe the development of China in the late Ming dynasty.
2. What were the results of Manzhu conquest of China?
3. What was the difference between China and his neighbors – Korea and Vietnam?
4. What were the main features of Japanese development of this time?

Results of 19th period.

In Europe this period is divided in two: 1. 1450-1575 Renaissance and Reformation (the first event of it are in fact the Hussite wars), as result of it the third confession in Christianity – Protestantism appears; 2. 1575-1700 Barocco. In 14-15th century the main event in Europe is a Hundred years war between England and France, then the European states are plagued with religious wars, the culmination of which was Thirty years war in Germany (1618-1648). The New World is discovered; the 16th century is an epoch of the utmost domination of Spain (the house of Habsburg), which finished the Reconquista till the end of the 15th century and of Portugal; they are soon succeeded by the liberated from Spanish rule early bourgeois Netherlands and England. Flourishing of culture in England and Spain. The New World is colonized, the first colonial possessions of Europeans in Asia and Africa appear. In the 16th-17th centuries the first French and English colonies in the New World appear, from which later the new states (Canada and United States) are developed. Absolutism has still a mutual understanding with the appearing bourgeoisie. The features of epoch are the first collection of capital, appearance of manufacture production, the bankruptcy of peasants, emigration in the New World, the colonial slave trade. Poland is on the top of its might, 1569 it is definitely united with Lithuania and occupies the Ukrainian lands, but the feudal anarchy dominates in the country. In the begin of the 17th century Sweden strengthens, occupying the big part of the Baltic coast.

Russian state is united around Moscow at the end of the 15th century, pretending to play the part of the “third Rome”, is finally liberated from the Tatar yoke; in the 16th century occupies Kazan and Astrakhan khanates, but in the result of the lost Livonian war, oprichnina, the time of revolts remains the closed Eastern state with insignificant connections with the West. In the first part of the 17th century Siberia is conquered, which corresponds to discovery of the New World by the Europeans, but occurs one century later. Russia becomes the biggest state of the world according to the territory and typologically corresponds to the Old Persian Empire of Achemenids, Nikon playing the part of Zarathustra – reformer of the religion of Magicians; Russian orthodoxy with its idea of “Moscow – the third Rome”, opposing to the Catholic West, corresponds to the Persian Zoroastrianism, which also has the dualistic division of the world into the good and evil forces. As earlier, Russia has a big stadial retardation from the West Europe (but not from the Central and Northern Europe), being still in the last period of the Middle Ages, the new time begins here only in the middle of the 17th century with the religious reform of Nikon (“Reformation”) and the following “schism” (“contre-Reformation”). In Western Europe the dogmatic problems were the most significant, but in Russia the liturgic problems of cult were on the first plan, which does not change the radicalism of reform, caused the reaction of many contemporaries (“Old believers”) and persecutions for faith, as in Europe in the 16th century. The important for Russia event was also the war of Ukraine for independence, finished with the uniting of the Eastern Ukraine with Russia.

Under the attacks of Ottomans the Byzance is destroyed (1453), the Ottoman Empire becomes its successor, as well as the successor of Arabic Caliphate; their frontiers almost restore the Justinian empire (besides Italy) after 1000 years. The Ottoman Empire and Islam generally is seen as the main threat by the European states; another rival of Turks is a Shiite Iran.

In India one more Islamic dynasty – Great Moguls (1526-1707), united almost all the country, is established. In China the Ming dynasty continues to rule (till 1644), in the 15th century the big sea voyages are made, then it is conquered by the Manchurs. In Japan there is a civil war 1467-77, 1573 the shogunate Ashikaga ceases to exist, but 1603 the power is taken by the Tokugawa shogunate, Edo (Tokio) becoming a capital. Japan isolates from the outer world, Christianity is persecuted.

In such a way, both European and traditional eastern cultures continue to develop. The time of Renaissance and Reformation gives a big impuls to the development of European culture. Despite it, the mentality of European of that time remains medieval, which is testified by the flourishing of mystics and magic, contre-reformation, Inquisition, "whitch hunting". The big scientific discoveries take place, the epoch of genii. The period corresponds to the first period of antiquity (800-550 BCE), already the personalities of the Renaissance understood it as the revival of antiquity. The period ends with the English bourgeois revolution, which demonstrated the common model of the development of revolutions – the movement of revolution on the ascending line, culmination (the execution of monarch 1649), coming to power of a dictator (Cromwell 1653), the descend of revolution (the Stuart restauration 1660), new "glorious revolution" (1689), which became an end of the cyclus. The political fight continues furtherm, mostly for the broadening of the circle of electors, the bourgeois political parties – Tories and Whigs are formed. The political mechanism of new system – parliamentary democracy with the king as purely symbolic figure – is now understandable. Revolution takes place under the religious slogans (Puritanism), but its froots are purely material – English becomes dominating state, beginning the colonial occupations. In the end of period the British colonial Empire is created. The rationalistic world view is formed (Bacon, Descartes); astrology is changed into astronomy (Kepler); magic - into physics, Newton discovers the laws of mechanics, therefore the mentality of the end of period begins to suffer with mechanicism. Alchemy changes into chemistry, but it mystical direction is represented by Rosicrucians.

Questions:

1. What are the main results of the 1st period of the 3rd cyclus?

20 (2) period (1700-1790).

9. America in 1700-1790.

A) North America in 1700-1790.

1713 Great Britain receives New Foundland and New Scotland, as result of which the British-French colonial dualism sharpens. 1732 Georgia is founded as the 13th British colony. The colonies were very much influenced by English culture. But the Americans became more and more independent, because here there were no differences of social strata and the religious freedom was preserved. After the immigration of the German, Irish and Scotch colonists, which began 1720, the English character of colonies diminished. The own American dialect and an independent American society was formed.

The Jews living in the British colonies during the eighteenth century numbered not more than 2,000 (out of the total population of approximately two million). They came from the Antilles, Amsterdam, and London, but also directly from Spain and Portugal. During the course of that century, Ashkenazi Jews made their way to America as well, mostly from Germany and Poland. By the 1730s Jews from Central and Eastern Europe already constituted a majority, although the community retained distinct marks of its Sephardi origins, particularly in its liturgy. Spanish, Yiddish, and German were the spoken languages, but English was soon to replace them.

In the first half of 18th century the first Jewish immigrants came to Philadelphia (Pennsylvania), as well as to Savannah (Georgia) – a town which suffers great difficulties until it refounded in 1760. In the middle of the century a Jewish center is established in Newport, Rhode Island. Until the end of the colonial period the Jews remain concentrated in these five communities, all situated along the eastern seaboard. From these centers they will begin to disperse inland. 1729 the first – and very modest – synagogue in North America is founded in New York, serving both as a prayer house and a community center; thirty years later a Newport community erects a splendid synagogue, preserved to this day as part of the American national heritage. 1740 British Parliament adopts a law according civil rights to Jews and Christian Dissenters after a seven-year period of residence, giving Jews a dispensation from the obligation to take an oath “according to the true Christian faith”. 1746, 1751, 1775 the Jewish cemeteries in New York, Philadelphia and Newport are desecrated. 1755 the first Jewish school in New York becomes an all-day institution. Ezra Stiles (1727-95), president of Yale College, theologian and scholar, led friendly relations with the Newport community.

The British-French colonial war (1754-1763).

The increasing immigration strengthens the pressure of 400,000 settlers at the rare settled, but well-fortified French colonial regions. The permanent frontier fightings sharpen to the military conflict in Ohio valley (1754). The initial successes of the French cause the fall of the Whig government. 1757-61 William Pitt the Elder, Earl of Chatham, takes over the political leadership. He strengthens the fleet and the troops in the overseas. The British fleet blocks the French haven in the North America. 1758 the attack till the Ohio valley takes place; Forts Louisbourg and Duquesne (Pittsburg) are conquered. 1759 the attack till the St.-Laurence Stream follows; in the Plains of Abraham the British defeat the French, Quebec, “the heart of the inimical power”, is taken (General Wolfe defeats Montcalm, both fall); with the taking of

Montreal (1760) the attack to the Great Seas is successful. William Pitt is called “the third constructor of the British world empire after Cromwell and William III. The fight with Indians continues, 1763 the British are initially defeated by the Indians in the Pontiac war. In the same year according to the peace of Paris Great Britain gets Canada and Louisiana from France and Florida from Spain. Now Great Britain rules the whole region to the east of Mississippi. More than 60,000 French settlers live now under the British rule. The North America becomes Anglo-Saxon. 1775 the population of 13 colonies of New England grew till 2,25 mln., what was more than a quarter of the population of Great Britain. In Virginia the number of slaves grew from 15,000 in 1700 till 190,000 in 1775, what made almost a half of the population of Virginia. They were brutally suppressed by the slaveowners.

The American revolution.

The policy of “King’s friends”, a parliamentary group, dependent from George III (1760-1820), restricted the rights of colonies. They had to export the cheap raw materials for the new industries and to buy the wares, produced in the UK. The travel relations with other countries were prohibited for them. This prohibition caused the illegal trade with Spanish, French and Dutch colonies in the Caribic. In the time of the British-French war the tradesmen from New England exported the wares to Europe with own ships for the first time. The British tried to stop this trade with high taxes, which brought indignation in the colonies. In the same time the plantators in the south were frightened of the growing opposition against the slavery in England. 1763 the British prohibited the extension of settlement region behind the Appalaches to prevent conflicts with Indians. Despite it, more and more settlers went there because of the overpopulation of the East coast. 1765 in Britain the Stamp Act with taxes for documents, newspapers and books was accepted. Pitt the Elder and Edmund Burke supported the colonists, 1766 the Stamp Act was abolished, but the new import (Townshend) taxes for tea, glass, plombe, colours and paper were introduced; therefore the British wares were boycotted, and the taxes, besides for tea, which secured the tea monopoly of the East Indian company, were abolished. The protest sharpened. 1770 the British soldiers killed five people at the riots in Boston. Therefore the anti-British mood became stronger. Radicals like Samuel Adams (1722-1803) and Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) founded the “correspondence committees” for the “Away from England” movement, which later became the strong support with the bucklet “Common sense” from Thomas Paine (1776). The demands for the mutual American-British determination in the parliament (“No taxation without representation”) were overheard.

The open conflict began with the “Boston Tea Party” (December 1773), when tea loading of three ships was sunk into the sea by a band of Massachusetts citizens. The government closes the haven and introduces the exception laws (North’s “Intolerable Laws” of 1774). Now colonies became oppositionary to the motherland. In September 1774 the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia took place; the 51 delegates of 12 New England states (Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, only Georgia was absent) decide to stop the trade with England till the restauration of the old law situation (till 1763).

The first conflict between the American militia and the British troops under general Gage in Lexington and Concord (near Boston) at the 18 April 1775 became the begin of the war for independence (1776-1783). The minute Jewish community actively participates in the

revolution. Settlers had problems with the educated troops, money, war material and a unified leadership. George Washington (1732-99), a landowner from Virginia (Mount Vernon), was proclaimed a commander-in-chief by the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia at the 10th of May 1775; the army had to be financed by the paper money. Next year 55 delegates accepted the Declaration of Independence of 13 United States (July 4, 1776), written by Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826), according to which the people have right for “life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness”, and therefore right for resistance against tyranny. The “Great promise” fascinates the Jews. Francis Salvador, the first Jew elected to an American legislative body – the revolutionary provincial Congress of South Carolina – joins the patriotic forces against the British Army besieging Charleston; killed in an ambush, he is scalped by Indians. In the same year the Virginia Bill of Rights was accepted. The enemies of separatists were: 1. The British colonial army of 55,000 people under the leadership of general Howe (among them 17,000 German soldiers from Hessen and Braunschweig); 2. The “Loyalists”, Americans, loyal to England and 3. Indians, united with England. In difference to the fight of the Dutch against the Spanish colonization in the XVIth century, it was a brother fight of one people with one religion (mostly protestant) and one (democratic) political system. Already at the Christmas of 1776 Washington crosses the Delaware and conquers Trenton and Princeton. The British had problems with the bringing of help into the 5,000 km far America, did not know the land and the guerilla tactic of settlers. In October, 17, 1777 the American victory at Saratoga was achieved. In the same year the Articles of Confederation were accepted. 1777-78 the Continental army of Washington was organized in Valley Forge. Insurgents ask for help in Europe. The first ambassador of USA in Paris was Benjamin Franklin (1706-90). In the paradox way the absolutist regimes of France and Spain, the historical enemies of England, enter into the war 1778 and help to create the American democracy. Aristocratic volunteers from different countries (among them French marquis de La Fayette, Polish Cosciuszko and the Prussian general and organizer of American army von Steuben) fight for the USA. 1779-80 Spain conquers West Florida back, but the British had victories in the West India under Admiral Rodney at St. Vincent 1781 and St. Domingo 1782. In the Mediterranean Spain besieges Gibraltar unsuccessfully 1779-82, but conquers Menorca. Other European countries (among them Russia, despite the ask for help from George III) proclaim the armed neutrality at the sea 1780. The inflation in the country grew, 1780 one silver dollar was equal already 15,000 paper dollars. Under Rochambeau the French troops land in the Rhode Island, the British fleet is defeated. 1781 the Americans conquer Yorktown and the British capitulate (with 7 200 prisoners of war). 1783 according to the peace of Versailles Great Britain recognizes the independence of the USA, Spain gets Menorca and Florida, Tobago/West India is returned to France. As result of the war (the first defeat of the Great Britain after the Hundred Year war) the British Atlantic Empire is disintegrated; the USA has got the independence with 70,000 dead; the loyalists wander to the Upper Canada; but the problem of the interior constitution becomes unresolved, because the confederation can be disintegrated. 1785 Virginia Statute of Religious Liberty was accepted, according to which the church was separated from the state. Inflation, economic problems and frontier struggle with Indians (the North-West and Mississippi territories were settled from 1787) favored the creation of union of states. 1787 first adopted in Virginia, Jefferson’s law on the separation of church and state serves as a model for Congress when it writes the Federal Constitution granting Jews equality on the federal level. 1787 the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia took place. In the struggle between the centralist “Federalists” (Alexander Hamilton, John Adams, George Washington) and federalist “Republicans” (later Democrats – Jefferson) Benjamin Franklin and James Madison were mediators. 55 delegates

of 13 states-founders make compromise of a presidential federalist republic. 17 September 1787 the constitution of the United States of America was accepted, which features were the division of powers (executive, legislative and judicative) and a system of checks and balances between the state and union and between the different powers in the union. The chief of the executive power is a president, who is elected for four years indirectly by the electors of states. Congress consists from two chambers: the house of representatives (elected for two years) and the senate (two representatives from a state, elected for six years; every two years a third of senators is re-elected). The Supreme Court has nine members, elected for life. The constitution was confirmed by the separate states and had power from the 4th of March, 1789. Later it was amended by 22 amendments (the Bill of Rights). 1789 the first president was elected. It was George Washington. The population of the country was 3,9 mln. people in 1790. 1791 the First Amendment of the constitution, incorporated as part of the Bill of Rights, stresses two principles: the separation of church and state and freedom of religion.

The American revolution was more radical, than the previous (Dutch and English) ones, liquidating the king's power and stressing the personal rights of the men. It influenced the French and other revolutions of the new times. Despite it, the slaveownership was not abolished, black people, Indians and women had no rights. Real victors of revolution were the tradesmen and the slaveowners, not the common people.

B) Central and South America in 1700-1790.

1716 Spain conquers Texas. In the time of the Seven years war in West India from the French Antilles Guadeloupe 1759 and Martinique 1762 are conquered by Great Britain, 1762 Havanna (Cuba).

In the Spanish South America vice-kingdoms New Granada (Bogota) was created 1718 and La Plata (Lima) – 1776. The Asiento treaty of 1713 liberates the state trade control. 1767 the Jesuits are expelled, which brings heavy social and economic crisis and the revolt of the “last Inca” Tupac Amaru (1780-83). The intendant bureaucracy, introduced 1782 after the French example, takes 80% of the tax incomes.

In the Portuguese part of South America the slave huntings of paulistas are suppressed 1708/9. In Matto Grosso the gold founding are made 1720, which cause the investigation of the continent. From 1760 the Brasil exists as an administrative unity, the colonial frontier moves to the west and accepted from Spain in the Ildefonso treaty 1777. 1773 the New Christians in Brasil are emancipated.

1732 the synagogue in Curaçao is founded. 1740 the English colonies in Barbados and Jamaica grant Jews equal rights long before the metropolis.

In the whole, in the XVIIIth century the colonial empires of Spain and Portugal remain and even are extended, in difference to the North America, where the British colonial empire is disintegrated.

Questions:

1. Describe the situation in the North America before the American revolution.
2. What were the main events of the American revolution and the Independence war?

3. What was the historical significance of the American revolution?
4. Describe the Central and South America in this time.

10. Western Europe in 1700-1790.

A) The enlightenment.

The greatest European intellectual movement from the humanism is based upon the humanism, philosophy and natural sciences, which results are extended to the general world view, used in all spheres of life and brought to the self-conscious, diligent and prospering bourgeoisie. According to Kant, the enlightenment is “Ausgang des Menschen aus seiner selbstverschuldeten Unmündigkeit” (the exit of a man from his self-indebted imperfection). Reason, will to criticize, intellectual freedom and religious tolerance must overcome tradition, religious dogmatics, church and state authorities (absolutism), moral and layer prejudice. Natural (=rational) education in the spirit of humanism is a warranty of progress, favor the brotherhood of people (cosmopolitanism), the “eternal peace” (Kant), but also the own happiness (eudaemonism) and the common prosperity. The centers of enlightenment are towns and universities.

England: Limits of the enlightenment thinking are shown by David Hume (1711-76), who doubts every secure knowledge (skepticism). The “association apparatus soul” is connected with senses according to the psychological laws. At the birth the man is a “tabula rasa” (erased table), pure leaf, where the experience writes its “signs” (the theory of a milieu). Adam Smith (1723-90) sees the cause of prosperity in the work. From the natural self-interest the wares are made for market, which receive the market price according to the “natural laws” of proposal and demand. Through free concurrence and free trade social harmony and justice are reached. State has only the outside (defence) and inside (law keeping and administration of public offices) tasks. The epoch-making work of A. Smith “Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations” (1776), called the “Bible of Capitalism”, for the first time develops the closed economic system and founds so called classical political economy, which becomes influential in the 19th century. Under the pietist influence in England Whitefield and John Wesley (1703-91) build the free Methodist church (ca. 1770) with the experience of conversion, healing, people mission and care for the poor. It has big success in the North America; Sharp and Wilberforce criticize the slavery, which is abolished in England 1807. Liberal is Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832; “Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation”, 1780).

France: Following the antique Roman and idealized English examples, Montesquieu (1689-1755) criticizes ironically the French absolutism in his “Lettres persanes” (1721) and expands the Lock’s theory about the division of powers in his main work “De l’esprit des lois” (About the spirit of laws, 1748). Personal freedom is warranted only with the “moderate state” like constitutional monarchy, where one power brakes the other. The executive power is in the hands of king, the legislative is executed by the representatives of people and is divided in two chambers (aristocratic upper and bourgeois lower house), which control the executive and have the right to establish taxes. The jurisdiction is independent. It influenced strongly the development of constitutions in the 19th century. Voltaire (F.M. Arouet, 1694-1778), famous as a joker and good stylist, attacks belief and church. He is and admirer of England (anglomanie) and friend of Frederic II and Catherine II. In the Encyclopedia, edited by d’Alembert and Diderot (1751-77), who represent the whole knowledge of the time in the spirit of enlightenment, the materialists and atheists Condillac, doctor Lamettrie (man as a

machine) and Holbach (religion as a product of fear and invention of priests). Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-78) also works there. He already overcomes the enlightenment with his culture criticism: a man is good from nature; he becomes bad, when he is not directed with feeling. Reflection creates the misdeeds of civilizations (Iy and etc.). One must return to nature and to the simple "culture of heart". The ideas of the natural education of children are explained in "Emile" (1762), the novel in letters "Nouvelle Eloise" (1761) represents the "right of great passion". In "Contrat social" (1762) he pictures the ideal democracy with the sovereignty of people, liberty and freedom. The utopy influences the French revolution and the democratic and nationalist movements of 19th century. The bringing of enlightenment ideas upon economics and society causes the economic liberalism. Under the motto "Laissez faire, laissez passer" (Let them work, let them go) the "natural order", uninfluenced with the state, is demanded, where the free property and crafts, free competition and trade bring the economic progress and prosperity. The doctor of Louis XV Francois Quesnay (1694-1774) as a representative of physiocratism (domination of nature) sees in the ground the only source of richness as reaction to mercantilism. Only the agriculture is really productive, trade and crafts are "steril".

Germany: The German enlightenment with mostly pedagogic goals is represented by Christian Wolff (1679-1754), who propagates the ideas of Leibnitz. Gotthold Efraim Lessing (1729-81) preaches tolerance ("Nathan the Wise", 1779), national identity and humanity ("Upheaval of the humankind", 1780). His friend Moses Mendelssohn (1720-86) pleads for the equality of Jews. The greatest thinker is Immanuel Kant from Königsberg (1724-1804). His criticism finishes and overcomes the Enlightenment. "Critics of the pure reason" (1781): Because empiric observation and rational thinking depend from apriori (predestinated) categories (main forms: time, space, logical laws), the world can only be recognized, "as it appears to us", but not, "as it is" (exact separation of belief and knowledge). "Critics of the practical reason" (1788): the moral law demands (postulates) the existence of God, freedom and immortality. Ethic commandments are only then moral, when they are free from the personal use (success, striving) and are established by the people themselves as categoric imperative (obliging laws) and fulfilled voluntarily. With Kant the philosophy of German idealism begins; his teaching influences the German classics (Shiller). He also proposed a materialistic theory of the appearance of Sun system (1775). Typologically he corresponds to Plato, who also was an objective idealist, discussed the ethic and cosmogonic problems.

From the middle of the 18th century German poets, scholars and educated men feel themselves more and more as members of a cultur nation; they are carrier of the initially non-political so called "German movement": Lessing fights the French "Überfremdung" (alienation) of literature; Justus Möser (1720-94) praises Old German art and moral, Klopstock (1724-1803) – love to Fatherland. "Sturm und Drang" – movement (ca. 1760-80, called after the drama of Klinger, influenced by Rousseau and Pietism) opposes the free feeling against reason, cites Shakespeare, the German history and the creative nature or original genius in the contrast to the Enlightenment. It is collected around young Goethe ("Götz von Berlichingen, 1773) in Strassburg. 1770 the decisive meeting with Johannes Gotfried Herder (1744-1803) takes place, who understands the people's language and songs as expression of the unconscious creative "People's spirit" and discovers the national specific of people for the "promotion of Humanism" in his "Ideas for philosophy of the history of humankind" (1784-91). His ideas influence classics, romantics and the national identity of the Slavonic people. The classics (Johann Wolfgang Goethe, 1749-1832); Frederic Shiller, 1759-1805) are cosmopolits. Shiller

unites the moral law of Kant, the obligation to the preservation of human dignity, with the inside striving. According to the supposed ideal of the Classical Greek humanity, in “noble simplicity and quiet greatness” (Winckelmann) the morally free personality must be educated (New Humanism). Art overcomes the tension between “ideal and life” in the esthetic harmony, therefore it has a moral value. The German idealism opposes Kant, trying to make speculative saying about the world, “as it is”.

In the Catholic church the enlightened Febronianismus (founded by Bishop J.N. von Hontheim) appears, which criticizes the hierarchy and the dependence of bishops from Rome. Curia abolishes the Jesuite order 1773 (tolerated in Prussia and Russia). In the Protestantism besides the Luther orthodoxy the Pietism – an irrational counter-movement to the enlightenment – appears. The “quiet in the land” realize a practical Bible Christianity. August Hermann Francke (1663-1727) founds the Halle orphan house and the Lutheran mission among the pagans. Count Zinzendorf (1700-60) settles different Bohemian-Moravian brothers (Herrnhuter brothers unions), composes the education writings, founds missions and schools. In his “Non-party Church and heretics’ history” G.Arnold (1699) represents the Christian idea of union. The persecutions of witches are stopped.

The German music has it first top with the Leipzig chor cantor Johann Sebastian Bach (1685-1750). Georg Frederic Händel (1685-1759) works in England from 1712. From 1750 Vienne becomes a center of the classical period (sonata, symphony, song, opera) with Gluck (1714-87), Joseph Haydn (1732-1809) and Mozart (1756-91). In Italy Vivaldi (1680-1743) continues the ‘ars nuova’, in France Rameau (1683-1764) founds the national opera.

Empirism and rationalism favor the natural sciences. In mathematics the probability reconing is discovered by Bernoulli (1700), the representative geometry by Monge (1788); in physics – the aberration of light (Bradley, 1728), kinetic theory of gas (Bernoulli, 1738), the touch electricity (Galvani, 1790); in chemistry and biology - salts of silver (Schulze, 1727), sugar content in sugar-beet (Markggraf, 1747), hydrogen (Cavendish, 1766), oxygen (Scheele, 1771), nitrogen (Rutherford, 1772), theory of burning (Lavoisier, 1783), stone coal (Minckelaers, 1783). New measure instruments were made (quicksilver thermometer of Fahrenheit, 1718; thermometer division of Celsius, 1742). Three-colors print was invented by Le Blond 1711, back-loading gun by Chaumette (1751), street steam wagon by Cugnot (1769), bell for sinking by Smeaton (1778), the ballon of hot air by Montgolfier (1783).

In the whole, culture progressed a lot in the 18th period, the secular culture overcame the mystic and religious one, the new discoveries and inventions were made. The ideas of progress and evolution appeared in this period.

B) Different European countries in 1700-1790.

1. Pyreneans and Italy.

From 1665 Europe is waiting for the death of last Spanish Habsburg Charles II, an infantile invalide (because of the Habsburg marriages between the relatives). Inheriting the Habsburg Empire, France or Austria can become a world power, to prevent it Wilhelm III tries to divide the state. According to the wishes of Louis XIV, the Spanish state council and the curia in the testament of Charles II Philipp of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV, is nominated as the heir of

all the country. This decision endangers the European equilibrium, therefore 1701 the Great Alliance between Great Britain, Holland, Austria, Prussia, Hannover, Portugal was concluded (Methuen treaty), which later was supported by the Empire (1702) and Savoy (1703). The ally of Louis XIV is the house of Wittelsbach (Bavaria, court principality of Cologne). 1701-1713/14 the War of the Spanish succession begins; it is a first "world war" of the new time with war theatres in Spain (Civil war), Italy (Prince Eugen), South Germany (Ludwig of Baden), in the Netherlands (Marlborough), at the oceans and in the North Sea (the British sea blockade). The new century begins with the war. 1703 Archduke Charles III becomes a king of Spain. 1704 the British conquer Gibraltar. The brilliant victories of the allies follow: Höchstädt (1704), Ramillies, Turin (1706), Oudenaarde (1708), Malplaquet (1709). After seven years of war France is emaciated with the overlasting of the mercantile system, tax press, revolts (especially revolt of Camisards of Huguenotes in the Cevennes); Austria can suppress the revolts in Hungary. Peace proposals of Louis XIV with refuse from Spain and evacuation of Elsass are not accepted because of the too big demands of victors. 1711 the political turn of war comes because of two incidents: 1. Overthrow of the Whig government and begin of the Bolingbroke era (Tory) in Great Britain with revocation of Marlborough; 2. The death of emperor Joseph I, whose successor becomes Charles VI. With the connection of Spain and Austria the danger of a new Habsburg world power appears, therefore France united with sea powers. 1713 according to the peace of Utrecht (the second peace congress of a new time) the Spanish empire is divided: mainland and colonies to Philipp V (1701-1746) of Anjou, whose second wife was the princess Elisabeth Farnese of Parma; the neighbor lands (Naples and Sardinia) to Austria; Sicily to Savoy. In Barrière treaty the Netherlands secure the Belgian fortresses. Great Britain receives Gibraltar, Menorca, New Foundland, New Scotland, the Hudson Bay lands and the monopoly for the slave trade with Spanish America (Assiento treaty). After the military epilogue the emperor and empire accept the new order in the peace of Rastatt and Baden (1714). As result, the British policy of equilibrium won. Great Britain becomes a "peace judge" of Europe and the strongest subsidy power through the "most businesslike of all our wars" (Seeley).

After the war in Europe there is big need for peace. Equivalence of French-British and French-Austrian interests and keeping of the European equilibrium is made through convenience (meeting of cabinettes), congresses, unions, partitions, changes of lands in the interest of state reason, without respecting the needs of the population. The conflicts appear, because the Spanish minister cardinal Alberoni wants to restore hegemony over Italy. Using the Nordic and the Turkish war, 1717 Sardinia and Sicily are occupied. 1718 the sea victory of the Quadruple alliance at Cape Passaro takes place; the military pressing upon Spain is made till the dismiss of Alberoni. Savoy changes Sicily against the Austrian Sardinia 1720. At the western theatre of the War of the Polish succession (Italy) France overcomes its enemies. 1735 a preliminary peace is concluded. 1738, according to the peace of Vienne, Toscana is given to Francis of Lotharingia, who marries Maria teresia 1736; Naples and Sicily came to the Spanish Bourbon, Parma and Piacenza to the Austrian secundogenitura.

The successors of Philipp V were his son Ferdinand VI (1746-59) and his half-brother Charles III (1759-88). Initially he has got Parma and promise of possession of Toscana, but after the war of Polish succession (1735) he has given these duchies to Austria as change for kingdom of Naples and Sicily. After he became a king of Spain, he has given "both Sicilies" to his younger son Ferdinand IV, who ruled 1759-1825 with a pause in 1806-1815. According to the peace of Aachen 1748, duke of Parma was returned to Bourbons and was

given to Philipp, brother of Charles III. The rule of Charles III brought a mighty progress for Spain. Under the leading of minister count Aranda finances, administration, army and the industry improve. Inquisition was abolished, 1767 Jesuits were imprisoned and brought in a ship to Rome, where they were not accepted and settled in Corsica. But his son and successor Charls IV (1788-1808) destroyed his deed.

In Portugal Joseph Emmanuel ruled 1750-77. The school, finance and army reforms are made under the minister Pombal. 1755 the earthquake in Lissabon appears; restauration is made partly through the new industries. 1759 the Jesuits are accused in the state treasure, expelled from the country with the confiscation of property and brought in two ships to Civitavecchia near Rome. After the death of king Pombal was dismissed. Daughter and successor of Joseph Emmanuel Mary I (1777-1816) abolished majority of Pombal's orders.

In the whole, the Mediterranean countries lose their significance in favor of the Atlantic ones, despite preserving colonies.

2. Great Britain.

1701 Act of Settlement for the regulation of throne succession (house of Hannover).

1702-1714 queen Anna, daughter of James II, rules. Great Britain takes part at the War of the Spanish Succession under the commander-in-chief John Churchill Duke of Marlborough (1650-1722). 1707 the union of Scotland and England under the name of Great Britain is concluded.

1714-1901 the house of Hannover rules: George I (1714-1727); George II (1727-1760); George III (1760-1820). The party domination is built: the parliament majority puts the ministers, the presidency is by the prime minister. Under George I the Whigs rule. 1717 France, Great Britain and the United Provinces (Netherlands) entered into a Triple Alliance. In the same in London the Great Loge of Free Macons is founded for the propagation of enlightenment ideas. 1721-42 the peace period of the Whig government under Robert Walpole, the "dominator of nation", lasts, which features were the patronage of offices, elections corruption and pressure censure. Regime is criticized by writer Jonathan Swift (1667-1745), his "Gulliver's travels" (1726) are especially famous. The prosperity is growing because of the mercantile colonial policy. After the fall of Walpole and the Carteret's "drunken administration" (1742-44) the Pelhams rule (1744-54). 1750 the population of Great Britain is 7,8 mln. people.

Under George III constitutional experiments are made. Small political cliques of the nobility oligarchy of landowners, who are secured with high election census, contend in the parliament. The Tories are supported by the Anglican national church, the Whigs represent the dissenters (other protestants). Being leading economically, they try to make a parliamentary reform, liquidating the "rotten boroughs" (depopulated old places with election right) in the favor of new industry towns without parliament places. After the fall of William Pitt the Elder (1757-61) different cabinets rule: Bute, Grenville and Wilkes (1760-65), Rockingham, Grafton and Junius (1765-1770). Then Lord North rules 1770-82. 1779 the Catholics arrive the abolition of prohibition to have the public divine service, but do not have an emancipation. The "boy minister" William Pitt the Younger (24 years old) rules from 1783 till 1806, with pause of 1801-1804. The state is plagued by the debts of unsuccessful American war. 1785 all taxes between England and Ireland are abolished.

Despite the inside troubles (the patronage of offices, old punishment justice, care about poor and education) England becomes the “factory of the world” at the foundation of capitalist economy and thinking. The economic and social structures are changed and create prerequisites for the Industrial revolution (the term is introduced by Blanqui 1837 and F. Engels 1845). A row of factors are important. After the Test acts (1673) Puritans and non-conformists are excluded from the politics and occupy with the enterprising, the Calvinist ethic develops a new idea of work: diligence, spare, rational striving for profit above own needs create the private capital for investments for the extension of production in big factories, which restrictions are in fact abolished in the 18th century. Capitalism is theoretically proved by Adam Smith and the classical national economy (David Ricardo, 1772-1823), who deduce liberalism from the main factors of work, personal striving for profit and freedom. The English enlightenment propagates the idea of Bacon, that the empiric knowledge extends richness with observation and experiment. The natural science is combined with the practical use. The craftsmen without the school building make big technic inventions: steam pump for the mining of Thomas Newcomen (1712), flying weaving boat – Kay (1733), iron mining with cox - Darby (1735), the spinning-jenny of James Hargrives (1767), the spinning-frame of Richard Arkwright (1769), the steam machine of James Watt (1769), mule spinning machine of Crompton (1779), mechanic weaving stool of Cartwright (1785). 1789 the work is made with a power machine: the begin of mechanization of work and of industrial revolution. About 3 000 miles of canals were built in Britain by Brindley and others between 1760 and 1800. Economically from 1707 (union of Scotland with England) Great Britain is the greatest European region of free trade with extended credit system (Bank of England 1694), vivid coast traffic, strong fleet and profitable trade. The capital richness causes the agrarian revolution: partition of open fields, the fencing of lands by the aristocratic families with the help of parliament. Their leasers work with new, rational methods and use the work power free. The improving harvests and medical success (hygiene, fighting of plagues) cause a big increase in population or over-population. In the need and impoverishment of masses the national economist Thomas Robert Malthus (1766-1834) sees the natural law, because the population increases in geometrical, but the harvest grows only in arithmetical progression. The emigration into the North America, Australia, later New Zealand), land escape and building of the city proletariat are causes of overpopulation. They also favor the development of industry: the new factory system has need in the self-convinced initiative, capital for machines and raw materials, working force and export markets for machine mass production. From all layers of population the new classes develop: capitalists (private capital owners) and uneducated proletariat. Both groups are without the land possession and the parliament representation and therefore are enemies of gentry and the great tradesmen, but they are inimical to each other. Overproposal of workers and the draconic means (overlong working time with hunger salaries, women and children works) cause the new, unknown working discipline in the factories. The “hunger wages” approve the Ricardo’s theory, according to which the work and product are subordinated to the same law of proposal and demand. Machines, factory cities and hired work substitute crafts, towns and land work. New methods of road building (Metcalf, MacAdam) make better the transport and traffic. The export of industry wares makes the British trade stronger. Social problems initially remain unsolved, the small peasant extinguish, the class differences sharpen.

In the whole, the Great Britain in this time becomes the most powerful industry nation of the world (35% of the world industrial output in 1800) with nine millions of population (1801)

and big colonial empire. It is a leading country with developed political system of a new time, which combines monarchy with parliamentary system.

3. France in 1700-1790.

7th period (ca. 1650-1870)

Till 1715 Louis XIV rules. France takes part in the war of Spanish succession. After seven years of war France is emaciated with the overlasting of the mercantile system, tax press, revolts (especially revolt of Camisards of Huguenottes in the Cevennes). From 1710 Jansenists are persecuted; it is a movement for the inside clerical renovation of Catholicism in the spirit of Augustin (called after C. Jansenius, Bishop of Ypern). Its center is a monastery of Port Royal at Versailles. It influences Italy, the Netherlands (Utrecht Church) and Austria (Josephinism).

1715-1774 Louis XV rules (five years old). Despite the debts of state because of the wars of Louis XIV (86% of budget), regent Philipp of Orléans (1715-23) has a luxurious court. A Scott John Law wants to make better the finances through the founding of the first state note bank (1715) and action societies for the exploitation of colonies 1718/19. The Law system ends with the speculation fever, paper money inflation (1720) and state bankruptcy. 1726-1743 the state has the last political successes under Cardinal Fleury. After him the influence of mistresses became stronger. Among them marquise de Pompadour (1745-64), who expelled Jesuites from France (1761). 1773 they were abolished by the Pope Clemens XIV. Foreign policy was made by Duke de Choiseul (1758-1770), who made alliances with the Bourbons of Spain, Naples and Parma and with a party in Sweden. France has got Lothringia (1766) and Corsica (1768). The next favorite was countess du Barry, who dismissed him. The privileged strata (clergy, nobility) hinder the finance reforms of minister Machault. The weakness of absolutist system is criticized more and more sharply after 1750.

In the culture the rococo time with the pastoral poetry and gracious sing plays. The inside decorations with ornamental works, goldened mirrors, porcelain, made by Sèvres factory, created by madame de Pompadour, tapisseries and chinoiseries, beautiful chairs, gold and silver things. Flourishing of French rococo painting: Watteau (1684-1721); Boucher (1703-1770), Fragonard (1732-1806).

Louis XIV (1774-92) was eloquent, but insignificant, and decided to make reforms. He calls a physiocrat Anne Robert Turgot (1727-81) as the finance minister. After the liberation of grain trade revolts of Paris workers against the ascent of bread prices. The program of reforms (abolishment of feudal and guilds privileges, creation of self-government, introduction of general land tax) is futilated with the court party of queen Marie Antoinette ("Madame Deficit") and with the parlements. Despite the warning of Turgot, sending of voluntaries under La Fayette to America, union with the USA against England (1778) and entrance into the war took place. Calvinist and banker from Geneva, Jacques Necker (1732-1804), tries in vain to restore the war costs with borrowings. He is dismissed, because he published the report about the state financial misery ("Compte rendu" 1781). 1783 the peace of Versailles brings the winning of Senegambia and Tobago, but new state debts instead of financial healing. The American independence strengthens the critics of regime. Salons, cafes, clubs free macon loges became centers of "patriotic party" of liberal nobility, clergymen and citizen

(La Fayette, Mirabeau, Philipp of Orleans, Talleyrand, Sieyès). The French voluntaries are celebrated as freedom fighters, the Ancien régime is criticized. 1783-87 finance minister Charles Alexandre de Calonne (1734-1802) tries to use the plans of Turgot, but the meeting of notables (king's fidel persons, for the first time from 1626) is not ready to accept the proposals for the liquidation of deficit. Calonne's successor Loménie de Brienne (1727-94) is obstructed with Paris parlement, which recommends the summoning of General layers (the late meeting of 1614). After 1786 (the trade treaty with England) the industry crisis (caused with the British concurrence), unrests, hungers (bad harvests) make worse the inside situation. 1788 the state bancruptcy (100% decifit) and dismissal of Necker, who demands a doubling of deputies of the third layer. After the radical election fight the États généraux are created. With "cahiers" (a catalogue of wishes and complains) they speak for the restricted monarchy. In the booklet "What is the third layer?" Abbot Emanuel Joseph Sieyès (1748-1836) demands the participation of nation in the government. May 5, 1789 the General layers are opened in Versailles. The third layer demands voting according to the persons instead according to the layers. With the proclamation to the National meeting (the 17th of June) and the swear in the Ball house (the 20th of June) "never be separated till the constitution is arranged" (Bailly, the president of National meeting) and to suborder "only to the power of baionettes" (Mirabeau), the revolution begins.

In the whole, the Ancien régime in France (XVIIIth century) meets with many problems because of the decay of the absolutist system, despite some achievements in culture. This backward regime causes the financial disaster and is destroyed with the representatives of people, using the experience of English and American revolutions.

4. German countries in 1700-1790.

7th period (1650-1870).

a) Prussia.

Frederic (III) I (1688-1713), a son and successor of "Great Courprince" Frederic Wihelm I (1640-88), loved an honor and luxury and imitated the court life of Louis XIV. 1701 in Königsberg he was crowned as a "king in Prussia", the new kingdom was recognized 1713, according to the peace of Utrecht. In Berlin the palace residence with buildings of Eosander (1670-1729) and Andreas Schlüter (1664-1714), among them castle and old bridge. Under the protection of queen Charlotte (to whose honor Charlottenburg was named) the academy of art (1696) and the academy of sciences (1701), initiated by Leibnitz, were founded. Halle becomes a center of the North German enlightenment and the Pietism through Chriustian Wolff and A.H.Francke.

Frederic Wilhelm I (1713-1740), the greatest "inside king" of Prussia, is decide "to rule his country well". Deeply religious, but raw and disliking the fine court culture, the "teacher of Prussian state nation" demands the unconditional obedience ("The soul is for God, all other must be mine!"). Diligent, exemplary administration: reform of king's domains and the general counting chamber (for financial control) is made. Own instructions for the General directorium (1722), the supreme central office; promotion of mercantile and land economy. The new settlement of the depopulated from plague parts of East Prussia ("retablissement of Lithuania"). 1732 15,000 emigrants from Salzburg are settled. The people's school are established (edict of 1717). The noble officer corpus is the first layer in the state. As the first European king, the "soldier king" always wears uniform. The professional army is increased

till 83,000 (at the whole population of 2,5 mln. people). The educator of infantry (drill, equal pace) is Prince Leopold von Anhalt-Dessau (1683-1747). 1733 the canon rule: service obligation of peasant population. Prussia took part at the war against Carl XII (1715) and has got the southern part of Pomerania, few Swedish possessions at the right bank of Oder and the island of Usedom and Wollin, according to the peace of Stockholm 1720.

Between the king and his son, crown prince Frederic (1712-86), strong tensions appear. But after the unlucky flight and the execution of his friend Katte he subordinates 1730 and is educated in the state office. From 1736 he has an own court at the palace of Rheinsberg and makes literary and philosophical studies. From his father he inherited a land with the big army and full treasury.

From 1740 Frederic rules as Frederic II the Great till 1786. He continues the reform works of father: firm budget plans; state monopoly for coffee, tobacco, salt. The inside colonization takes part: drying out of the Oder, Warthe, Netze breaks; building of streets and canals; arrangement of 900 villages with more than 300,000 colonists. The agriculture is promoted: change of fruits, growing of potatoe; melioration of sheep-farming, care about trees and forest. In the social order all the layers have to serve to the state: the king (who rules personally with councils and secretaries) through the working care, inspections, control; the nobility (big land owners and land owners) puts officers and high officials; the town dwellers (trade and crafts) carry the tax burden, but are supported (building of silk, glass, porcelain works); the peasants (land work) remain in the hereditary dependence (the special form of serfdom). All subjects have freedom of opinion and religion. The law reform is initiated by Samuel von Cocceji (1679-1755): abolitions of privileges, king's intruding into the law practice, selling of offices. Introduction of equality before the law and independence of jurisprudence (division of powers). State exams and financing of lawyers. Unified law instances, process, punishment and prison orders. Prussia is changed from the police to the law state. 1794 the General Land law, created by Suarez (1746-98) comes into the power.

In the foreign policy Prussia takes part in the Seven years war for Silesia (1756-63). Count Kaunitz-Rietberg, the Austrian state chancellor from 1753, wins Maria Teresia for the political equilibrium with France and the building of a coalition against Prussia. Frederic II feels himself isolated, therefore in January 1756 the British-Prussian convention of Westminster for the protector of Hannover is concluded. The defensive treaty introduces made by Kaunitz "overthrow of all unions". In May 1756 the treaty of Versailles is concluded; the French-Austrian defensive union is supported by the Russian queen Elisabeth, Saxony, Sweden and the Empire (without Hannover, Hessen-Kassel, Braunschweig). Frederic II knows beforehand the plans of the common action for 1757 and begins the first. In August 1756 Saxony is attacked in a preventive war, which after the capitulation of Pirna becomes the Prussian operation basis. Prussia fights for its existence against the 20 times more over powers (according to the population) with changing war luck in the "classical battles" of war history. Frederic II tries to use the advance of the "inside line" for the offensive destroying strikes, but cannot prevent the uniting of coalition partners. 1) 1757-1758 Frederic II attacks with victories at Prague, Roßbach (Seydlitz), Zorndorf, Leuthen and defeats at Groß-Jägersdorf (Russian occupation of East Prussia), Kolin (foundation of Maria Theresia order) and Hochkirch (Daun). Britain under Pitt supports Prussia ("Canada is won in Silesia"); Ferdinand von Braunschweig, serving to the British, opposes the French attack in the west with victories at Krefeld 1758 and Minden 1759. After Great Britain arrived its goals overseas, with the overthrow of Pitt (1761) the subsidies to Prussia are stopped.

2) 1759-61 Frederic II is in the defence. The united Austrian and Russian armies almost destroy the Prussian army in the battle at Kunersdorf (1759). The absence of unity of victors saves Prussia (“le miracle de la maison de Brandenbourg”); plunderings of Berlin; undervalued minting of coins (“Ephraimites”) for the liquidation of financial disaster. After the victories at Liegnitz and Torgau 1760 the features of general emaciation (Austria state debt increased from 49 till 136 mln. livres). An accident brings the change. After the death of the queen Russia leaves the coalition 1762; Peter III, admirer of Frederic, is murdered, Catharine II stops the war. The deficit of forces causes France and Sweden to surrender; Austria has to initiate the talks.

1763 the peace of Hubertusburg is concluded without the territorial change. Its significance: the European equilibrium is complicated through the fifth great power Prussia; the influence of Russia grows, the French misluck in the war favors the inside critics of the “Ancien régime”. The Prussian-Austrian power contrast (German dualism) determines the German politics till the “small German” salvation of Bismarck 1866. From the person and achievement of Frederic the first political self-consciousness and the national feeling of Germans.

1786-1797 Frederic Wilhelm II rules.

In the whole, the Prussian state becomes kingdom 1701 and is a big military power with the backward absolutist rulers. It is a European opponent to Russia, with which he has already the first big war, and a source of military danger for Europe.

b) Ascent of German imperial princes.

Hannover (House of Braunschweig-Lüneburg)

1692 Duke Ernst August (1679-98) receives the 9th Courprince office; from 1701 the dynasty pretends for the English throne (Act of Settlement). 1714-1837 personal union with the Great Britain.

Saxony (House of Wettin)

1697-1763 Personal union with Poland after August II the Strong (1694-1733). Daniel Pöppelmann (1662-1736) builds Dresden (Zwinger).

Bavaria (House Wittelsbach from 1597)

1679-1726 Maximilian II Emanuel rules, a victor of Turks an ally of Louis XIV in the war for Spanish succession; Munich becomes a South German barocco center. Cologne is till 1761 under the Bavarian archbishops.

Baden

Carl Frederic (1746-1811) is an example of an enlightened German imperial prince. Already 1760 he gives self-government to the land communities. 1783 the serfdom is abolished.

In the whole, Germany remains divided also in this period. Some of their lands are in the personal union with other countries, which inhibits the unification of the country.

c) Austria in 1740-1790.

In the begin of the century in Austria Leopold I (1657-1705) and Joseph I (1705-1711) rule, being also emperors of the Holy Roman Empire. 1697 the commander-in-chief of the imperial army and the leading statesman is Prince Eugen of Savoy (1663-1736). The grand nephew of Mazarini is in the Austrian office from 1683, after he is expelled by Louis XVI because of his small height. For him “:Austria is above all”. The state of eleven main nationalities is ruled by the dynasty of Habsburg (Domus Austria), has the Catholic confession, the Habsburg court nobility from all hereditary lands, the absolutist central offices (with Latin, later German language) and has the main enemy – Turks in the Danube region. 1697 the battle of Zenta and the conquest of Sarajevo take place. 1699 after the peace of Karlowitz Austria becomes the great power. Venice receives Morea, which is reconquered 1715; therefore the Third Turkish war takes place (1716-18). Prince Eugen has victories at Peterwardein and Temesvar and conquers Belgrad 1717. After the peace of Passarowitz (1718), the Habsburg Empire has the greatest extension.

Vienna becomes political, economical and cultural center of the state. Barocco architects are: Johannes Fischer von Erlach (1656-1723: the palaces of nobles, Karl's church, palace library, plans of the castle Schönbrunn); Lukas von Hildebrand (1668-1745: castle of Belvedere); Jakob Prandtauer (1660-1726: monastery of Milk). In the administration the main organ is Secret conference (1709). To it the court chancellery (for interior), the Secret council and the state chancellery (exterior), the court war council (army) and the court chamber (finances) belong. Despite it, a strict organization lacks, luxury, protection, bad planning of the state budget weaken state and army, which causes the defeat of 1739. In the economy the monopoly upon salt, tobacco, iron and manufactures for textiles (Silesia, Linz, Graz), silk (St. Pölten) and glass (Bohemia) do not make better the finances of indebted state. 1718 the Vienne porcelain manufacture is founded. The leading mercantilist is W. von Hörnigk (1640-1712): “Austria can everything, when it only wants” (1684). In the settlement policy the arrangement work (1689) creates the prerequisite for the colonization of the depopulated with the Turk domination Danube regions (movement of Banat Swabes and Transylvania Saxons).

1711-1740 Karl VI rules. After the revolts of nobility 1711 a peace of Sathmar: Hungary is administrated according to the own laws, accepted with the parliament. In the foreign policy the hegemony over Italy is achieved with participation in the War for the Spanish succession, but it cannot be secured. The emperor's policy is determined with the Pragmatic Sanction (1713): the women's succession is secured (Maria Theresia, born 1717), therefore the treaties with Spain (1725), Prussia (1728), Great Britain (1731) and France (1738) are concluded. The attempts of own colonial policy with foundation of Oriental Company 1719 (Triest) and the East Indian company 1722 (Ostende) fail because of the resistance of Great Britain. After the congresses in Cambrai (1724) and Soisson (1728) the trade companies are dissolved, according to the treaty of Vienne 1731; England recognizes the Pragmatic Sanction. 1737-39 the 4th Austrian-Russian Turkish war; the peace of Belgrad (1739), according to which North Serbia and the Small Rumania was lost), begins the Balkan rivalry between Austria and Russia.

1740 Maria Theresia takes over the state without the inside power and the exterior outlook and rules till 1780. Despite the Pragmatic Sanction the war for the Austrian succession (1740-48) begins, caused with the invasion of Frederic II into Silesia. Saxony and Bavaria have pretensions to the throne. Prussian-French union and the First Silesian war (1740-42) take place: Prussians win at Mollwitz and Chotusiz; Bavarian-French attack Prague and Linz. At the parliament of Preßburg (Bratislava) 1741 Maria Theresia gets help from Hungary. Karl

Albert of Bavaria is elected to the emperor as Karl VII (1742-45). 1742 the special peace of Breslau (Wroclaw): Austria refuses from Silesia, fights against Bavaria and is united with Savoy, Saxony and Great Britain. The “pragmatic army” has victory at Dettingen over France 1743. The second Prussian-French union and the Second Silesian war (1744-45) follow. After the Prussian victories at Soor and Hohenfriedberg the peace of Dresden (1745) follows, according to which Austria confirms the giving out of Silesia. In the peace of Füssen Bavaria recognizes the emperor Franz I of Lotharingia (1745-65), but the British-Austrian war against Spain and France (victories of Roccourt and Fontenoy) continues. 1748, according to the peace of Aachen, France returns the Austrian Netherlands and the British colonial regions. Parma (Piacenza) is given to the Spanish-Bourbon secundogenitura, Savoy gets the parts of Milan.

After the war Maria Theresia follows an example of his Prussian enemy. The inside situation is aggravated with the social, political and economic differences between the people of the state. Despite it, the Austrian-Bohemia part of the state is changed into the modern bureaucratic state, divided into gouvernements and districts; the general tax plight (also of nobility and church) on the ground of people’s registers and the Theresian cadaster for the evaluation of body. In the law the Protestants and the Jews are restricted; the state control of the church with “Placet regium” (allowment) for the Pope’s decrees; the unified criminal law (Nemesis Theresiana 1768). The people’s and vocational schools, military, ingeneer, trade academies for the melioration of practical building of the people are opened. The educational monopoly of Jesuites is broken with the dismissal of the order (1773). From 1748 the strengthened “Swabian movements” in the south-eastern regions of the state for the inside colonization take place. 1772 Austria gets Galicia in the first division of Poland, 1774 it annexes Bukovina.

Her son Joseph II becomes an emperor 1765, till 1780 he is a co-regent of his mother, 1780-90 a king of Austria. The growth of Russian power influences Austria and Prussia, which become the allies of Russia. Joseph II wants to strengthen the Austrian position in the empire after Wittelsbachers died out 1777. Through the plan of change with the heir Karl Theodor von der Pfalz (Lower Bavaria and Upper Pfalz against the Forward Austria) the War for the Bavarian succession begins (1778-79) with the Prussian invasion into Bohemia. Maria Theresia causes Joseph to reconcile. According to the peace of Teshen (1779) – warranted with Russia – Austria is satisfied with the Inn region. But Joseph II persecutes its goal in the union of Russia (1781). The attempt to change Bavaria against Belgia is answered by Frederic II with the German Union of Princes (1785) for the keeping of Westfalian peace. Austria cannot fight against Prussia in the empire. In the convention of Reichenbach of 1790 it has to fulfil the Prussian demands and to stop the Turkish war (1789-91). A peace of Sistowa (1791) does not bring a big winning, despite the victory of Fokshani and the conquest of Belgrad.

Inside the country he was a progressive reformer. The central government with German as official language was introduced in the whole state. 1781 the serfdom and the guilds’ obligation were abolished; the tolerance patent was edited, but no equality of confessions was achieved. Despite the visit of Pope Pius VI to Vienne, the church reform began. 2/3 (1300) of “idle” monasteries were closed; the education and payment of priests became the state one; the territory of monasteries was used for the caritative institutions and hospitals; the civil marriage was introduced. The “Josephinism” (Christian liberal state church) had no success, but had sequences till the 19th century. As result of reforms, the people of the state oppose

against the oppression of their national traditions and the special rights. A revolt in the Austrian Netherlands (1787) ends in the general unrest (Hungary) and the separation of the “republic of the United Belgian provinces” (1790). The most reforms, including the language law, were abolished already by Joseph himself.

In the whole, Austria was as backward state, as Prussia, despite some reforms, which aim was to introduce the enlightened absolutism with modern bureaucracy and laws.

5. Nordic countries in 1700-1790.

For Denmark the rule of Frederic IV (1699-1730) was of great significance. He abolished the serfdom at the islands. Then pietist and loving luxury Christian VI ruled, who introduced the ground dependence, according to which the peasant had to spend the time of his military service in his place of birth. Then vivid Frederic V and weak and luxurious Christian VII (1766-1808) rule. The German doctor Struensee ruled country for some time and tried to make reforms, but was dismissed and executed 1772. 1784 the power was taken fully by the crown prince Frederic, whose minister count Bernstoff (1735-97) made different reforms and finally liberated the peasants 1788. The crafts flourished, art and sciences were protected, the life of common people became better.

In Sweden Karl XII (1697-1718), 15 years old, rules, who is called “the last Viking”; convinced Lutheran, good general, but obstinate politician. 1699 Czar Peter I made an alliance against him with Saxony –Poland (August II) and Denmark. Peter puts Livonia under the Polish protection; Danes and Russian attack Sweden. 1700 with the help of the British and Dutch fleets Karl XII lands upon Seeland and beats Denmark (peace of Travendal). In the same year he defeats Peter I at Narva, whose army was five times more numerous. But instead to defeat the Russian army, the king fights against the converted August II, who is expelled from Poland. 1705 Stanislaus Leszczinski is elected to the Polish king. Saxony is subjugated; according to the dictate peace of Altranstädt 1706 August II has to leave the Polish crown and give Peter out. Marlborough in the personal mission advises the king (with the argument of Swedish “saving of Protestantism”) not to support France in the war of Spanish succession. Meanwhile Peter I renovated his army, having conquered Schlüsselburg (=Nöteborg), Ivangorod and Narva (1704) and having founded St.-Petersburg in the swamps of the Neva estuary (1703). 1708/9 the Russian campaign of Karl XII takes place. Karl unites with the Hetman Mazepa to attack Moscow. The begin of winter, plagues and Russian attacks decimate the emaciated army, despite it Karl XII makes the battle at Poltava (1709), this ends as the total defeat with the capitulation at Perevolochina. The wounded king flees in Turkey and asks Sultan to begin war (1711); The Russian army is surrounded at Pruth, but Peter I arrives the free passage with a bribe against giving out of Azov in the peace of Husi. 1713-10 the concentrated attacks upon the Swedish North Sea and Baltic possessions take place. Denmark attacks Bremen and Verden and conquers Tönning (1713). Russian occupies the Alands islands and Finland (1714) and invades Sweden (1719/20). Prussia and Hannover, which enter the coalition after 1713 (Utrecht) conquer the Swedish possessions in Germany. Karl XII flees from the Turkish imprisonment and is killed before the fortress of Frederikshald at the 30th of November 1718. The British and French interests in the Nordic equilibrium hinder the full destruction of the Swedish possessions. 1719-21 the peace was concluded: in Stockholm with Hannover (Bremen, Verden) and Prussia (Prepomerania); in Frederiksborg with Denmark (Sund tax); to Nystad with Russia (Baltic lands, which preserve a special politic position with Lutheran church, German language and

administration). A victor was Peter the Great, who called himself “Czar of all Russians” and emperor from 1721. Russia succeeds Sweden as a Baltic Sea great power.

After the death of Karl XII the king's absolutism has fallen. At its place the domination of parliament with the permanent party struggle. Both Frederic I of Hessen (1720-1751), who received his crown through the marriage to a sister of Karl XII Ulrika Eleonora, and Adolf Frederic von Holstein-Gottorp (1751-1771) were very weak and insignificant rulers. According to the peace of Abo 1743 Russia has got Finland to the east of Kymmene River and Saima Sea. Only Gustav III (1771-92) managed to save Sweden from the decay, caused with party struggle, and to make the land independent from neighbors (Denemark and Russia, war of 1788-1790). Both the freedom time and the time of Gustav were the epoch of big cultural ascent in Sweden. Among the important persons: Biologist and classificatory of arts Karl von Linnée (Carolus Linnaeus), who created the natural system of living beings 1735; Emanuel von Swedenborg, mineralogist, mathematician and mystic; the architect Sergel and the poet Karl Michael Bellmann.

In the whole, the Nordic countries were not so developed, like England, but still managed to abolish serfdom. The domination of Sweden upon the Baltic Sea was over.

6. Poland.

In the war for the Polish succession (1733-35) Russian troops help to elect the Russian-Austrian pretendent August III of Saxony (1733-63) against the French candidate Stanislaus Leszczinski. According to the peace of Vienne (1738), Lotharinia is given to Stanislaus Leszczinski, after his death (1766) it is given to France.

1764-95 Stanislaus II Poniatowski rules. The favorite of Catherine II, elected under the Russian pressure, strives as king for a reform of the “anarchy, lessened through the civil war”. Russia puts the dissidents (non-Catholics) and the opposition of nobility, represented in the confederation of Sluzk and Radom, under its protection and hinders a restriction of the “liberum veto”. The counter-confederation of Bar, supported with the Ottoman empire, is destroyed with the Russian help in the civil war (1768). 1769 Austria conquers the Zips, leased 1412. To prevent a Russian-Austrian war a first partition of Poland is made 1772 (against the will of Maria Theresia: “Fidelity and belief are lost for all the time!”), according to which Prussia gets the West Prussia, Austria Galicia, Russia – Eastern Belorussia with Vitebsk. The partition powers demand the preservation of electionary kingdom, the rights of Polish nobility and the “liberum veto”. In the time of the Russian war with the Turkey and Sweden (1788-90) the “four years parliament” (1788-91) decides to reform Poland into the hereditary parliamentary monarchy, proclaimed in the Mai constitution of 1791. Therefore the opposition creates the confederation of Targowize (1792) under the Russian influence; the king is caused to enter. For the “restoration of order” 1793 the second partition of Poland is made, accepted with the “dumb parliament” of Grodno. Now Prussia gets the Great Poland with Posen (Poznan) and Danzig (Gdansk), and Russia – the Black Russia (the west of Belorussia) with Minsk, Polesie, Wolyn and Podolie. Revolts in Wilno and Warsaw cause a general insurgence of people under the national hero, the citizen of French republic, Thadeusz Kosciuszko (1746-1817) 1794, which is suppressed with the Prussian and Russian troops (Suvorov). 1795 the third partition of Poland and the destruction of the state is made. Prussia gets the Masowia with Warsaw, Austria – the Western Galicia with Krakow, Russia – Kurland, Lithuania with Wilno, The Black Russia with Grodno and Brest and the west of

Wolyn. As result, Prussia gets a significant Polish minority, Russia extends to the west and from 1795 has the common frontiers with Prussia and Austria.

In the whole, Poland was a backward nobility republic, dependent from Russia, and lost its sovereignty.

The European countries of the period can be divided into the progressive (Great Britain and the Netherlands) and the backward absolutist ones. More to the east one goes -more backward are the countries.

Questions:

1. Describe the Enlightenment in different European countries.
2. Describe the history of Spain and Portugal in the time.
3. What are the main features of absolutism in France?
4. Compare the different German countries in this time.
5. What are the differences between the Nordic countries and the Poland in this time?

11. Eastern Europe in 1700-1790.

III macroperiod – St.-Petersburg Russia or Russia Empire.

The conventional date of the begin of this macroperiod is the begin of the Northern war and transition to the European calendar in 1700. The end of macroperiod – 1917. The third macroperiod is divided into seven periods, which continue about thirty years each and in the main correspond to the epochs of rule of this or that monarch.

15(1) period – 1700-1730.

The epoch of radical reforms, connected with Peter the First, and of the rule of his immediate successors – wife Ekaterina (Catherine) I (1725-1727) and grandson Peter II (1727-30). The voyage of Peter to Netherlands enriched his experience and injected to him the worship of the western style of life, which he became to plant among the aristocracy after his return. The needed reforms of the army and state government were made, the navy was created, manufactures appear, mining works develop (with serfs as workers). 1700 the European calendar (Julian, not Gregorian) was introduced. 1703 the new capital – St.Petersburg, built in the European style, was founded and became capital 1712. The civil alphabet was introduced, the first newspapers and public theatre appear, 1725 the Academy of sciences was opened. Despite it, the stadial retardation of Russia was not liquidated. In the result of reforms Russia became alike the absolutist Europe of the second half of 16th century, but not like the Western Europe of the Education time. To the begin of 18th century in the Netherlands and England the bourgeois revolutions already took place and the power of monarches was restricted by parliament. There was nothing like this in Russia, it remained the absolutist state, Zemsky sobor and Boyarskaya дума were liquidated at all. The essence of reforms was in the strengthening of bureaucracy, to which purpose the senate (1711) and 11 collegies (1718) were introduced, Russia was divided into eight gouvernements, the “Rank table” with 14 ranks was introduced (1722), according to which the serving nobility (dvoryansyvo) succeeds the boyars (big landowners). The church was in fact reformed according to the Anglican example, after the death of patriarch Adrian (1700) his office was long held by the lieutenant (mestoblyustitel) Stephan Yavorsky, then (1721) the Holy Synode was formed, headed by overprocurer, but the real head of church was a czar. He was supported by famous saints, like Mitrofan, bishop of Voronezh, and Dimitry, bishop of Rostov, who composed the Vitae. As in the Europe of the 16th century, the religious questions were the most important for the people’s thinking, the schismatics (old believers) strengthened, who saw Peter as Antichrist. The fight with raskol (schism) becomes the most important task for the state. The powerful people’s revolts also take place because of economic grounds (1705 Astrakhan, 1707-1709 of Condrat Bulavin on the Done). As result of reforms, the live of people became much worser, the population diminished (because of war and reforms) for 25 or more percents.

In the foreign policy Russia also strived to Europe. The Northern war with Sweden (1700-1721), headed by the talented commander Carl XII (1697-1718), initially was unsuccessful for Russia, only after the Poltava battle of 1709 the changes for the best came, 1710 Riga was taken, but the war continued till 1721. The successes of Russia and its ally Poland were also caused with the involvement of the European states in the war for the Spanish heritage (1701-1714).

In the result of war Russia became empire (1721), Ingermanlandia and a part of Carelia were returned; Estland and Livland were acquired. The result of acquisition

of territories with another culture soon had the negative influence on Russia, causing the influence of the German barons at the court already in the next period. In the Asian direction the actions of Russia were not so successful (Pruth peace with Turkey 1711, the Persian campaign 1722-23 did not caused the territorial changes in the favor of Russia). Collaboration of hetman Mazepa with Swedes made the central power reserved in the relation to the Ukrainian autonomy, and the descendants from the Ukraine (for example bishop Feofan Prokopovich) played an important part in Russia. Despite it, the Zaporozhye Sech was destroyed, a part of Cossacs went to the Turkish territory. At the Polish part of the Ukraine the revolts took place, the biggest of which was the revolt of Paley (1702-1703), and in Hungarian Transcarpatia – revolts of 1703-1711.

The period of radical changes. The revolts of Peter were objectively useful for Russia, especially for the development of industry and trade. But the stadial retardation from the Western Europe was not liquidated; Russia remained an Asiatic state with the Europized upper class and capitals. After the death of Peter the retrograde division began, his co-laborator Menshikov was exiled, the capital was even moved back to Moscow for a some time. But the return to Moscow Rus was already impossible.

16 (2) period – 1730-1762 (ca. 1730-1760).

The time of rule of Anna Ioannovna (1730-1740), Ivan VI (1740-41), the Peter's daughter Elizaveta (Elisabeth) Petrovna (1741-1761) and Peter III (1761-1762). In the begin of Anna's rule the attempt of restriction of emperess' rule with the Supreme secret council, which was not successful. Anna Ioannovna ruled with the help of German (Kurland) barons (Bühren, Münnich, Ostermann), the German influence was felt also in the Academy of sciences. The reaction to it came in the time of rule of Elizaveta, who favored Russian science and culture. The literature in the national language appears (in Europe it takes place in the 16th century), Lomonosov writes the first Russian grammar and creates the Moscow university (1755). The famous literators were also Kantemir (Greek according to his origin), Sumarokov, Tredyakovsky etc. In their works the imitation of the French classicism of 17th century (Boilot) is felt, but the Russian "barocco" is influenced with the contemporary Western rococo. The WinterPalace in St.-Petersburg begins to be built.

In the foreign policy – the war with Turkey (1735-39) with victories in the Crimea, before Ochakov and Chotin, which ended with the return of Azov according to the peace of Belgrad, the war with Sweden (according to the peace of Abo 1743 Russia has got Finland to the east of Kymmene River and Saima Sea), and the Seven years war (1756-63) with Prussia took place: Königsberg and Berlin were taken, but Peter III concluded peace. The pro-German politics of Peter III caused indignation in Russia, therefore after the revolt of 1762 his wife the German Ekaterina (Catharine) II (Sophie von Anhalt-Zerbst) comes to power, initiating the new branch of dynasty (Romanov-Hohenzollern). In Asia Kalmyks, settled from Mongolia, and a part of Kazakhs became subjects of Russia. The Dane Vitus Bering (1680-1741) and Chelyuskin make expeditions in 1728-31 for the investigation of Siberia, Russians discover the North pole (1742) and explore Alaska.

The inserfment of peasants and the privileges of nobility strengthen (edict of 1762 "About the liberties of nobility"). The mining works in Ural develop. 1743 the Sech (New Sech) is restored, the "Small Russians" (like hetman Razumovsky) are favored by the emperess Elizaveta. In the whole it is a period of growth and development for Russia.

17 (3) period – 1762-1796 (ca. 1760-1790).

This is a period of rule of the great empress Ekaterina II. On the West it is a period of Education (Voltaire, Rousseau and others) and bourgeois revolutions (American and French). It happens nothing like this in Russia because of its stadial retardation. One cannot also speak about the dissolution of feudalism and development of capitalist relations, it begins 100 years later, 1861. The last of the great peasant wars under the leadership of Pugachev (1773-1775) was defeated. As result, the inserfment of peasants strengthens, also in the Ukrainian lands. 1785 the “Favored letter to nobility” was announced. Towns have got some rights of self-government. Instead of 8 (under Peter), then 11 governments fifty governments were formed 1775, the government system was extended to the Leftshore Ukraine, which lost its autonomy, 1764 the hetman rule was abolished. The reform commission (1767-68), which aim was to edit the new laws, failed. The industry, especially manufactures (like in Europe of 16-17th centuries), continued to develop. 1764 the German peasants were settled at Volga, 1783 also in the Crimea. The land of monasteries were secularized 1767.

In the foreign policy, led by the foreign minister count Panin (1764-1780), the epoch of extending of Russia into Europe at the western and south-western direction. 1764 the union with Prussia is comcluded, which supports the election of Russia candidate Poniatowski to the Polish king. The First Russian-Turkish war takes part 1768-1774. Against Russian occupation of Moldavia and Rumania Austria unites with Turkey. Prussia is a middle man. With the help of British seamen the Russian Baltic fleet wins at Cheshme 1770, which sails the descent of Turkey (“ill man at Bosphorus”).

Russians give the Danube principedoms back, but according to the peace of Küçük – Kainarji (1774) Russia becomes a protector of Eastern Balkan Christians and gets Azov. 1783 Crimea was annexed. Togethjer with Austria the 2nd Russian-Turkish war took place 1787-92. According to the peace of Yassy (1792), the coast between Dnestr and Bug became Russia. In the result of the Russian-Turkic wars of 1768-1774 and 1787-92 the territory of New Russia and Crimea khanate was united with Russia. The famous generals were Rummyantsev and Suvorov (1730-1800), admiral – Ushakov.

The book of Suvorov “Teaching to win” (1795) describes the Russian military tactic of that time (loosed chain of shooters; sudden attacks in cooperation of infantry and cavalry). New Russia was explored by Potemkin (1736-91): Black Sea fleet was built, new villages and towns were founded (Cherson 1778, Sevastopol 1784). The Zaporozhye Sech was already not needed for the defence of souther frontiers and was liquidated, Zaporozhye cossacs settled to Kuban. In the Polish-Lithuanian state from 1764 the Russian ally Stanislaw II Poniatowski rules, with whom confederates are dissatisfied. Russia supports “dissidents” (Protestant and Orthodox) and invades with his troops into Poland. 1768 in the Ukrainian part of Poland the revolt (Koliyivshchina) takes place, later described by T.G.Shevchenko “Haidamaky”.

Russia helps to Poland to suppress the revolt, but soon (1772) the first division of Poland between Russia, Austria and Prussia takes place. Russia gets only the part of Belorussia, and Austria occupies Galicia. 1774 Bukovina is annexed by Austria. Other divisions of Poland take place only after twenty years as response to the Polish

revolution of 1788-1791, the aim of which was to make Poland into the parliamentary monarchy (the constitution of 1791). Fighting with the propagation of the ideas of the French revolution into the East, Russia and Prussia make the second division of Poland (1793), as result of which Russia gets the most part of the Rightshore Ukraine and a part of Belorussia. The last, third division of Poland (1795) ends the history of Polish-Lithuanian state, Russia gets the Western Ukraine (except Halicia), the Western Belorussia, Kurland and Lithuania. The significance of uniting of almost all Russian (East Slavonic) lands in one state is great. Russia also defeats Sweden (1788-1790). From 1783 the Eastern Georgia is under the Russian protection, the Caucasus direction of Russian politics is now apparent. 1785 Kodiak Islands (near Alaska) became Russian.

In the realm of culture there is a fruitful epoch, developing under the sigh of classicism. Ekaterina herself wrote the dramatical works, Fonvizin was a famous playwright, Derzhavin – a famous poet. The important painters were Levitsky, Borovikovsky, Argunov, sculptor- Shubin, architects – Rastrelli, Bazhenov and Kazakov. At the end of the century the new phenomenon appears: so called “Russian intelligentsia”, imbued with the Western ideas, which he tried to accomplish in Russia, but could not make it because of the stadial retardation of the country. Absence of understanding of this law caused the tragedy of Russian intelligent, who became the “unneeded man” in his own country. The first representatives of it were Novikov and Radishchev. Ekaterina fought with intelligentsia both with word (anti-mason plays) and with deed (exiles to Siberia, imprisonment into fortresses). At the same time in the Ukraine the mystical philosopher Grigory Skovoroda (1722-1794), who still writes in Latin, works, mysticism of masonic kind becomes a fashion in Russia, famous magician Kaliostro visits St.-Petersburg. The Russian mystics were more like the European Rosicrucians of the begin of 17th century, than the contemporary more rational masons, who had also the political goals. The Orthodox mysticism exists too, one of his representatives was Paisiy Velichkovsky, who wrote works in Church Slavonic. In the whole, the epoch is very unlike the European Education of 18th century, which influenced the Russian aristocracy only superficially. As the previous one, it is a period of growth and developing of the country.

Questions:

1. What were the main results of Peter I reforms?
2. Describe Russia in 1730-1760.
3. What was the foreign and interior policy of Ekaterina II?
4. What were the main achievements of culture of this period?

12. Jews in 1700-1790.

A) Jews of Western Europe.

1699-1738 lifespan of Joseph Süss Oppenheimer, better known as “The Jew Süss”, hero of the famous novel by Leon Feuchtwanger (1925). The Court Jew served Duke Charles I Alexander of Württemberg as manager of large business enterprises. After the duke’s death he was imprisoned and executed.

1700, June 23 Solomon de Medina is knighted by William III.

1700-1760 Shabbateanism is spread in central Europe and in the northern Italy by several “prophets” and “believers” such as Judah Leib Prossnitz, Meir Eisenstadt, Nehemiah Hayon, Jonathan Eybeschuetz and his son Wolf Jacob Koppel, and Moses Hayyim Luzzato and his circle.

1701 the state Sephardi synagogue at Bevis Marks (London) is opened.

1703 David Nieto, rabbi of the Sephardi community of London, is accused of Spinozism.

1705 a Hebrew printing press is opened in London.

1707 Moses Khaghiz, emissary of the Jewish communities in the Holy Land, visits Amsterdam. Some of his interlocutors reject the notion of the special merit attached to residing in the land of Israel, and see no point in a “return” except for the “poor Jews of Poland, Germany, and Turkey”.

1714 John Toland’s “Reasons for Naturalizing the Jews in Great Britain and Ireland” are written; Toland advocates the naturalization of foreign-born Jews and admitting Jews to public office.

1714 death of Leffman Behrends, one of the most important Court Jews in northern Germany, who served Ernest Augustus of Hanover.

1723 letters patent is accorded to the Portuguese of Bordeaux, for the first time addressed explicitly as Jews.

1729-1786 lifespan of Moses Mendelssohn, “father of the Haskalah”, the Jewish version of the German Enlightenment.

1730-50 Hasidim exalt singing and dancing as essential elements in their religious practice. Ashkenazi hazzanim begin to note their music.

1734 there are 6,000 Jews in England.

Ca.1740-1813 “The Admirable History of the Wandering Jew” is printed in Rouen; it was later included in the “Bibliothèque bleue”.

1743-1812 Mayer Amschel, first of the “great” Rothschilds, lives.

1744-45 concerted effort by Court Jews throughout Europe to persuade Maria-Theresia to abrogate the edict of expulsion proclaimed on the Jews of Prague.

Ca. 1750 Moses Mendelssohn's "Kohelet Musar" (Moral Ecclesiastes), a collection of texts regarded as a milestone in the emergence of modern Hebrew.

1750-1764 the anti-Shabbatean literature appears, notably the writings of Jacob Emden who violently attacks Eybeschuetz.

1753 the "Jew Bill", which would have given limited emancipation to a small number of wealthy Jews, is issued in England.

1762 in his "Apology for the Jewish Nation", Isaac de Pinto, an economist and philosopher of Portuguese-Marrano origin, attacks Voltaire's anti-Jewish remarks, calling him to admit that he "owes an apology to the Jews, to truth, and to his century".

1769-1770 the famous dispute between Mendelssohn and the Swiss pastor Johann Kaspar Lavater takes place, in which Mendelssohn was compelled to defend his loyalty to Judaism.

1772 Pinhas Horowitz, the Maggid's disciple, settles in Frankfurt – he is the first Hasidic leader to cross into Germany and serve there as a rabbi.

1771-1775 Goethe, "Der Ewige Jude" (The Eternal Jew).

1777 the appearance of "Memoirs of the Wandering Jew on his Seventeen Voyages Around the World (One in Each century)".

1777 the Republic of Venice imposes heavier restrictions on the Jews living in the ghetto.

1778 a Jewish "free school" is founded in Berlin using modern methods and omitting Talmud studies from its curriculum.

1780-83 Mendelssohn translates the Pentateuch into German and publishes it in Hebrew characters; his "Biur", a commentary in Hebrew, follows rabbinic tradition but introduces modern concepts of exegesis. The prospectus for his project was prepared in 1778 by Solomon Dubno.

1781 "On the Improvement of the Jews as Citizens" by German Christian Wilhelm von Dohm, a Prussian intellectual and government official, is published. While repeating some of Toland's arguments, he suggests that Jews should not be allowed to enter into public service until properly reformed. The book influences the process of emancipation.

1781 Toleranzpatent (Edict of Toleration) of Joseph II: abolition of the "body tax" (Leibzoll) in Austria takes place.

1782 in Italian territories under Austrian rule the Jews are granted religious freedom and other privileges.

1782 Naphtali Herz Wessely (1725-1805) publishes his "Divrei Shalom ve-Emet" ("Words of Peace and Truth") in Berlin, the first Hebrew work concerned with the education of the Jews in the spirit of the Enlightenment.

1783 Moses Mendelssohn publishes “Jerusalem” – an exposition of his philosophy of Judaism in relation to the State.

1784, January Louis XVI abolishes the “body tax” that was levied on the Jews of Alsace.

1784-1811 the first Jewish periodical, “Me’assef” (Collector), initiated by Mendelssohn circle and published in Koenigsberg, encourages secular studies, integration in the surrounding society, and the increased use of the Hebrew language.

In an essay competition in 1787, the Academy of Metz sets the following subject: “Are there any ways of making the Jews of France happier and more useful?” Abbot Henri Gregoire wins the prize for his essay “Essay on the physical, moral and political regeneration of the Jews” (1789).

1787 Comte de Mirabeau publishes his book “On Moses Mendelssohn and on the Political Reform of the Jews”.

1790 there are 26,000 Jews in England.

Partly due to the amelioration of their social and political situation, European Jewry was to experience remarkable demographic growth approximately 7.5 million people at the end of the nineteenth century.

B) Jews of Poland.

1700-1721 the Great Northern War: Russia and Sweden intervene in the conflict over the throne of Poland; the communities in northwestern Poland, Lithuania, and the Ukraine are affected most of all.

Ca. 1700-1760 lifespan of Israel Ba’al Shem Tov , a rabbi from Podolie, a miracle-worker and a healer, who became the father of Hasidism.

1717 following depreciation of the currency, the Sejm imposes a poll tax totaling 220,000 gold zlotys on the Jews of Poland.

1726-91 life of Jacob Frank, Shabbetai Zevi’s greatest successor. Frank declared himself to be the incarnation of divinity and the successor of the Messiah from Smyrna. Frankism advocated outward adherence to Catholicism while secretly believing in a nihilistic version of heretical Judaism. Spreading from Poland to Central Europe, the influence of the Frankists persisted well in the nineteenth century.

1728 in Lvov the Jews are tried and condemned to be burned at the stake for having aided a converted Jew’s return to Judaism.

1734, 1750, 1768 pogroms of the Haidamacks take place. Bands of escaped serfs, together with Zaporozhian Cossacs, poorer urban elements, heretics of all kinds, and some renegade Jews, terrorize the eastern regions of Poland with the tacit approval of Russians. Their slogan: “[Polish] Lords and Jews, out of the Ukraine!”

1736 Israel Ba’al Shem Tov is revealed as a zaddik (“righteous man”) and settles in the town of Medzhibozh.

1739 the Polish Treasury issues regulations which subject the Council of the Four Lands to stricter control by the state authorities.

1753 the Polish Treasury appoints an inspector to supervise the activities of the Council of the Four Lands.

1759 Frank's disciples convert to Christianity. In the same year a Frankist sect is founded in Iwanie (Podolie).

1760, after the death of Israel Ba'al Shem Tov, Dov Baer of Mezhirech, the maggid ("preacher") (1704-1772) succeeds him as a leader of the movement.

1764: Accession of Stanislaw II August Poniatowski, last king of Poland. June 1 the Sejm abolishes the Council of the Four Lands, the supreme body of Jewish self-government in Poland; the motivation for the suppression of the Council was the wish to reorganize the system of taxation; henceforth the poll tax would be collected directly from each individual rather than through a body of community representatives. A special government committee is set up to settle the problem of debts which the defunct council had accumulated. "The Council of Lithuania" is abolished too. In a general census in Poland and Lithuania, the number of Jews is given as 587,000, but is generally believed to have been much higher.

1772 first partition of Poland takes place. Maria-Theresia, empress of Austria, annexes Galicia, doubling the Jewish population in Austria, and promulgates a series of laws on Jewish affairs, abolishing Jewish self-government, completely subordinating the Jews to the central administration, even including a government-appointed Grand Rabbi (August); Catherine II of Russia annexes regions in Belorussia (Mogilev, Polotsk, and Vitebsk) and issues a declaration concerning the rights of Jews in her new territories (September). Shklov, an important commercial town on the new border between Russia and Poland, becomes a major intellectual center of Ashkenazi Jewry. Death of the Maggid of Mezhirech, leader of the Hasidic movement. Beginning of the struggle between the Hasidim and their orthodox opponents; at the head of these Mitnaggedim ("opponents") a great Lithuanian scholar, Elijah of Wilno (the "Gaon of Wilno") stood (1720-97). In Wilno, then in Brody, the first pronouncements against the Hasidim are made; a violent anti-Hasidic pamphlet provokes a wave of persecutions against the movement's adherents, mostly in Lithuania. Beginning of the East European Haskalah. Both movements spread in all regions of partitioned Poland.

1773 Rabbi Menahem Mendel of Minsk settles in Vitebsk and propagates Hasidism throughout Belorussia.

1774 Bukovina is annexed by Austria.

1775 "Reform of the regions" in Russia takes place: the central authorities strengthen their control over annexed territories inhabited by a large Jewish population.

1780 following the appearance of the first book of Jacob Joseph of Polonnoye, who wrote down the teachings of the Ba'al Shem Tov, the leaders of the Wilno community pronounce a new excommunication against the Hasidim.

1781 Edict of Toleration addressed to Austria's Jews. Joseph II established the state schools for Jewish children and ordered their compulsory enlistment to the army. Similar edicts are proclaimed in Russia and Prussia during the following decades.

1782 “Words of Peace and Truth” by the maskil Naphtali Herz Wessely applauds the government’s centralizing policies. This work has a profound influence on the Haskalah movement in eastern Europe and raised fierce objections among the Polish rabbies.

1784 Joseph II imposes severe restrictions on *arenda* (a system of leasing property and privileges) in Galicia. Abolition of Jewish jurisdictional authority. Rabbi Levi Isaac settles in Berdichev where he served as rabbi till the beginning of the following century.

1785 as part of major reforms in the administration of the Orders, Russian Jews are included in the urban order (layer) of Russia. Nevertheless, the autonomy of the Jewish community is presented. Modern research considers this the beginning of Jewish civil emancipation in eastern Europe.

1786 death of Rabbi Elimelech of Lyzhansk, teacher of Hasidism throughout Austrian Galicia.

1787 the maskil Herz Homberg, inspector of Jewish state schools in Galicia, creates a network of schools based on European (mostly German) culture. His success is limited because of the rapid spread of Hasidism.

1788 first session of the “four-year Sejm” which was to debate, among other things, the “reform” of Poland’s Jews. Influences of enlightened absolutism and the French Revolution, as well as the interests of the Polish nobility, determine the various reform programs of several leading Polish thinkers of the time: Hugo Kollantaj, Stanislaw Staszic, Tadeusz Czacki. Rabbi Shneur Zalman of Lyady, a Hasidic leader in Belorussia, founds Habad Hasidism.

1789 “A Way to Reform the Jews of Poland and Make Them Useful Citizens of the State” by Mateusz Butrymowicz is published in Warsaw; The Rabbi of Chelm responds with a refutation. In the same year Joseph II’s Edict of Toleration to the Jews of Galicia is published, which intention was turning of Jews into “useful” ordinary citizens.

1791 the maskil Menahem Mendel Lefin (Levin) publishes a pamphlet in French advocating the reform of the the Jews; he attacks the hasidim whom he accuses of opposing integration. May 3 the new Polish constitution is proclaimed by the four-year Sejm; Poland’s Jews are granted emancipation. December 23 Catherine II defines the “Pale of Settlement” in Russia.

1794 Kosciuszko’s resurrection. The Poles turn to the lower social strata and the Jews for support, promising future political rewards; the Jewish cavalry unit is established under the command of Berek Joselewicz. The Russians crush the insurrection and massacre the Jews of Praga, a suburb of Warsaw.

1795 the council’s debts are still being discussed; the third and final partition of Poland solves the problem by default.

In the whole, Poland was a big cultural center of Jewry, which later appeared under the power of three big and backward monarchies.

C) Jews of the Orient.

1700 led by Judah Hasid and Hayyim ben Solomon Malakh (“Angel”), Shabbatean groups from Poland “ascend” to the Land of Israel.

1703 the Shabbatean propagandist, Miguel Cardozo, settles in Egypt.

1747 during the reign of Nadir Shah, Jews settle in the holy city of Meshed.

1764 Muhammad III of Morocco orders several families of Jewish merchants to settle in the new town of Mogador; the beginning of the tujjar al-Sultan – the privileged group of the “King’s merchants”.

1768 in Cairo the tax collector Ishaq al-Yahudi is executed.

1777 dozens of Hasidim led by Menahem Mendel leave for Palestine.

1781-1817 Sheikh Sassoon, president of the Jewish community in Baghdad, is chief treasurer of the Ottoman pashas.

1790 there is a massacre in Tetuan.

In 18th century under the ruler of the Qasimite Dynasty, founded by the Imam al-Qasim al-Qabbir, leader of the anti-Ottoman rebellion, the Jewish community prospers. Towards the end of the century Qasimite rule declines and the southern tribes recede. Several Jewish families – first Iraqi, then Halevi Alsheikh – were appointed supervisors of coin minting and tax collection; their prominence in the imam’s court ensured peace for the community. This was also a period of intense intellectual activity and many illustrious spiritual leaders emerged, such as Judah Sa’adi, David Mashreki, and the great scholar Jihya Salih.

In the whole, the situation of Jews in the Orient was far from prosperous.

Questions:

1. Describe the situation of the Jews in Western Europe.
2. What main events were in the Jewish life of Poland?
3. Describe the Jewish life in the Orient.

13. Islamic countries in 1700-1790.

A) The Ottoman Empire in 1700-1789.

Under Ahmed III (1703-1730), a brother of Mustafa II, the “valley princes” (the local big landowners, especially in Anatolia, who possess the inherited domains and the tax leasing, they also have the private armies) appear for the first time. 1702 the Ottomans lose Azov, but win it back after the victory over Russia at Pruth 1711. In Tunis the Husainid Beys become independent (1706-1759), in Tripolitania the Qaramanlis (1711-1835). 1714-1718 in the war of “Holy League” prince Eugen wins at Peterwardein (1716), conquers Temesvar (1716) and Belgrad (1717). In the peace of Passarowitz (1718) the Ottomans have to give Temesvar, North Serbia and the Small Rumania, but they get the Peloponnese and the remnant free places on Crete from Venice.

The great vizier Nevshahirli Damat Ibrahim Pasha (1718-1730) has the real power and tries to modernize the state. In this time (1718-1792) the term “High Porta” is used for the residence of great vizier, later especially for the foreign ministry, from the high entrance door to the sultan’s palace in Istanbul. Despite the difficult interior and foreign situation the court leads a luxurious life. 1724 through the partition treaty with Russia the Ottomans take the Persian territory (Hamadan and Tebriz), but lose it to Persia back already 1730. The upper layer is opened to the European way of life and culture; by the order of great vizier the Hungarian renegade Ibrahim Muteferrika founds a typography 1727; finances are stabilized, the “selection of children” is abolished. The art of gardenery is one of the brilliant achievements, one makes selection of colored tulips (“the era of tulips”). 1730 a revolt under the leadership of ieniceri ends the domination of sultan and his great vizier. For a short time a leader of revolt Patrona Chalil is a dictator.

The new sultan is a son of Mustafa II Mahmud I (1730-1754), who restores the order. A French renegade Bonneval reorganizes administration and army; 1740 France becomes a protective power of all Catholics in the empire. After the war with Russia 1736-39 the empire gives Georgia, Shirvan and Armeniato Persia and loses Azov to Russia again (1736). 1739, according to the peace of Belgrad after the war with Austria (1737-39), the Ottomans win back North Serbia and Belgrad and the full domination in the black Sea, which was lost 1702. Another war with Persia took place 1743-46.

Mustafa III (1757-74), a son of Ahmed III, is supported by his great vizier Ragib Pasha (1757-63) by the transitory stabilization. After his death there are separatistic strivings in the Near East under the Mamluke emir Jin Ali Bey in Egypt (1768-73) and Sheikh Omar Tahir in Lebanon (1769-75). The war against Russia takes place 1768-1774. The Russian Baltic fleet destroys the Ottoman fleet at Cheshme (opposite to Chios) 1770. 1774, according to the peace of Küçük Kainarje, sultan refuses from the supremacy over Crime Tatars; the Russian ship sailing rights in the Black Sea and in the straits are confirmed anew; the emperess gets the protection rights over the Orthodox Christians in the Ottoman Empire; the Danube princedoms Moldavia and Rumania remain in the Ottoman state, but with big privileges.

Under Abdulhamid I (1774-1789), a brother of Mustafa III, this development continues: in Janina (Epirus) the ruler Tepedeleni Ali Pasha makes a half-autonomous government (1788-1822); in Lebanon Emir Bashir Shihab II (1788-1840) strives for the autonomy. 1775-79 a

war with Persia is led, 1787-92 with Russia and Austria. 1783 Crimea becomes a Russian province.

In the whole, the Ottoman Empire begins to modernize in the 18th century after the western example (not unlike Russia). Its main foreign enemies are now Austria and Russia, as well as Persia, which is also weakened. The Ottoman state has to give up its possessions in the north-east and to the north of the Black Sea; it meets the Russian expansion also in the north of Persia. The regions in North Africa become independent, Egypt begins to play an own part in the international relations. Even in the Aegean Sea the Ottoman domination is nor more uncontested.

B) Iran and Afghanistan in 1694-1794.

Shah Sultan Husain I (1694-1722) is the last independent Safawid Shah; but the influence of ulama is already so strong, that shah is criticized as “molla Husain”; the power of mollahs is really founded in the influence upon the layer of landowners. 1710 he edits a special order about the inserfment of peasants to the land. The situation of the trowns decreases, trade decays. The Shiite clergymen are organized as the decisive power in the state; they are now “liberated” from the rulers with charisma of descendance from the prophet. The center of clergy is now exile in Iraq at the holy places (under the Ottoman protection); instead of the tradition the authority of mujtahids (the competent scholars) and the leading principles of ijtiḥād (the law founding, based upon the own exercize) and taqlid (imitation of tradition) are valid. 1709 the Afghanian tribes make revolt. 1722 the Afghan Mahmud ibn Mir conquers Isfahan, dethrones Shah Husain and takes power in Persia. 1724 Russia and the Ottomans divide the north-west of Iran.

1729, Nadir, a leader of Turkmen tribe of Afshars, expels Afghans at the order of Safawid Tahmasp II. Nadir also expels the Ottomans from Azerbaijan (Tebriz) and Kirmanshah (Hamadan) 1730. 1735 he makes union with Russia against the Ottomans; the Caucasus lands – Georgia, Shirvan, Armenia – get back to Iran 1736. In the same year Nadir becomes Shah of Persia, 1737 he subjugates Afghanistan and invades North India 1738-39, Delhi is plundered. Nadir brought the jewelry for 500 mln. rupies for himself and for 200 mln. rupies for his army to his capital Meshhed. 1740 he makes campaign to Turkestan and invades Dagestan 1741-42. 1743/46 he makes war against the Ottomans to compel them to accept the founded by him reformed Shia as the fifth law school, trying to reconcile Shia and Sunna. He also favored Christians, Jews and Zoroastrians. He tried to strengthen the part of state and central power in the administration and land property, increasing the taxes. 1747 Nadir is murdered by Afshars and and Qajars; the throne fightings follow. In Khorasan the grandson of Nadir Shah rules. The khanates of Northern Azerbaijan, as well as Armenia and Georgia became independent again.

Ahmad Shah Durrani, a leader of Abdali tribe, is elected to the king in Afganistan and rules 1747-73; he is estimated to be a founder of the Afghanian national state; his people’s name is “Baba” (dad). He unites Herat, Meshhed, Bukhara, Samarkand, Kashmir, Lahore and Delhi to one big state.

Muhammad Karim Chand Zand of Shiraz (1750-79) rules in the other part of Persia. 1758 he defeats Kajars and Azerbaijans and takes the title of regent (wekel). He manages to make a political and economical stabilization of the country, restoring crafts and towns and regulating

the taxes. He tried to restrict the relations of Iran with the west, promoting instead relations with Russia. He also had a war with Turkey for Basra.

Muhammad Karim Khan, a hostage at the court in Shiraz, a leader of Turkmenian Kajars, flees to Masenderan 1779 and takes power in the North Persia. 1794 he begins the Kajar dynasty; the last Zand, Lutf Ali Khan, is treasured by the commandant of city of Shiraz and blinded with 20,000 men; the women are given as slaves to the Kajar army. Kerman and especially Shiraz remain the center of resistance against the Qajars.

In the whole, Iran survives the difficult time. The country is invaded by Afghans and Turkmen, the independent Afghanian state appears.

C) Central Asia in 1700-1790.

1728 the Kazakhs unite against the Oirates, who wander to East Asia 1757. In this time Russia invades in the region of hordes: 1731 it arranges protectorate over the Small Horde, 1740 over the Middle Horde, 1742 over the parts of Great Horde. At the end of the 18th century the west of steppe stays under the Russian, the east under the Chinese “protection”.

The Khanate of Khiva is conquered by Shah Nadir of Persia 1740, but then becomes independent again. Inside the khanate is weakened with tensions against nomads and peasants as well as between Uzbeks, Tajiks and Turkmen.

1710 Fergana under the Shaibanid Shah-Ruh separates from Bukhara. 1740 Nadir Shah of Persia conquers Bukhara, but it restores its independence. The Nogai line of Jhingisids (1785-1920) succeeds the Astrakhanids. Shah Murad (1785-1800) extends the khanate to Khiva and Kokand and makes campaigns to Khorasan.

1700 in Kokand the independent khanate under the pretended descendent of Jhingiz Khan is built, which controls the Fergana valley. The flourishing of Kokand follows, it controls Khojent, Tashkent and Chimkent besides the Fergana valley.

1755 the Chinese conquest of Jungaria begins, 1757-58 the further attacks follow. 1759 the Chinese take Yarkand and Kashgar.

D) Islamic culture in 1700-1790.

1. Theology and mystics.

Cairo: Murtada az-Zabidi (1732-91), probably originating from Yemen, writes the spacious commentary to al-Ghazali's “Revival of religious scholarships”. Al-Fadali (died 1821), a professor at Azhar, composes an exposition of Islamic faith “What the normal believer must know about the Kalam – scholarship”.

Muhammad ibn Abdalwahhab (1703-91, Mecca and Medina) revives the Hanbalism, going back to Ibn Taimiya, and founds the Wahhabiya.

Kazimain, Karbala and Najaf: Muhammad Baqir Bihbihani (1705-1793 or 1803) stresses the ijthihad and the authority of the mujtahid; he fights the Akhbaris, whom he condemns as unbelievers and partly persecutes with force. He founds the Usuli (principles) school in

Karbala. The last important Akhbari Mirza Muhammad is murdered by the enemies at the shrine of Kazimain 1816.

20 History and geography.

Istanbul: Findiklili Mehmed Agha (1723/24) continues the annals of Haji Khalifa for the time after 1654.

Osman Agha (1671-after 1725), an officer of the frontier fortress cavalry, is imprisoned, flies 1699 and describes his experiences as a prisoner in Vienne in the office of the emperor's general. He also describes the life of a "small man" from the middle class of the Turkish frontier population.

Sijilmasa: az-Zayani (1734-1833) takes part at the embassies to Talifat and Istanbul, becomes a governor in Sijilmasa; under al-Yazid he is persecuted and imprisoned, then returns to Tlemcen. He composes a spacious history of Islam and further fifteen works to history and geography.

21 Literature.

Nedim (died 1730, Istanbul), qadi and the librarian of great vizier, a typical representative of "tulip era", writes the court lyrics in well-sounding verses.

In the whole, in the Islamic culture one sees both mysticism and religion (with a trend to the reformation of Islam), as well as rational sciences and profane literature.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of the Ottoman empire in the 18th century.
2. What was the situation in Iran in the 18th century?
3. Describe the position of the Central Asia between Russia and China.
4. What were the main trends in the Islamic culture of the time.

14. Africa in 1700-1790.

In Bambara (Segu) king's Mamari Kulubari's (1712-55) rule is supported by the caste of warriors, he subjugates Masina, inhabited by Fulbe; when his son Ali, a pious Muslim, wants to expel the animistic cults and alcohol drinking, he is murdered by the warriors. N'Golo Diara (1760-90), one of this warriors, extends his domination till Timbuktu, but loses the town to the tuareg again (1787).

The flourishing of Nupe (Bida) is in the XVIIIth century, in this time the king converts to Islam. Crafts and trade are differentiated, quality of products is great. The state of Bagirmi (Massenja) has political and cultural flourishing also in the XVIIIth century.

Under king Ahmed Bokor (1682-1722) Islam is introduced in Darfor, the time of flourishing begins, the residences are Darfor and Kobe. The state has to defend against Wadai and Kordofan.

The ruler of Funj (Sennar) Bahadi Abu Shilluk (1724-61) destroys an Ethiopic army; Kordofan is temporarily occupied. 1790 Scottish traveler James Bruce publishes in Edinburgh his "Travels to Discover the Sources of the Nile", from which the West learns for the first time of the Falasha's existence.

Somali became settled by the sedentary population in the XVI-XVIIIth centuries. From the XVIIIth century Mogadisho, like the other towns of the Somali coast, depended politically from Oman, then from Sansibar.

The Islamic orders became active in the North Africa. Among them Shadhiliya, renovated in the XVII-XVIIIth century and extended in Egypt and North Africa, famous with the intensive prayers and benediction formulas in beautiful melodies; Tijaniya, founded by Ahmad at-Tijani (1737-1815) in Fes, a branch of Khalwatiya, extended in Algeria, Morocco, Sudan; Sammaniya, founded by Sheikh Muhammad Samman (1717-1775), propagated in Sudan, Eritrea and South-West Ethiopia; Darqawiya, founded by ad-Darqawi (1760-1823), a mystic reformator in Fes, with the influence upon Sanusiya. The brotherhood initiates revolt of Kabyl peasants against taxes and terror rule of deys in the West Ageria.

In the South-West Africa Osman dan Fodio (1754-1817) try to unite the tribes with religion.

1713 the Brites begin with the slave trade to Latin America. In XVII-XVIIIth century in the forest zone of Guinea not far from the coast some new states appeared, which were stimulated by the slave trade. Such was the state of Sawi, conquered 1727 by Dahomey. 1724 the African kingdom of Dahomey (Ouidah), founded on the eve of the XVII-XVIIIth centuries, provides Europeans with slaves. It was divided into provinces, ruled by the un noble officials. The core of Dahomey is a women core from aho, who were estimated the ruler's wife. Less centralized political structure was confederation of Ashanti, which appeared in the forest zone on the ethnic base in the XVIIIth century. Summit of chieftains and elders sanctioned the nomination of rulers from the ruling clan; the important part was played by the ruler's mother. This confederation controlled the important part of Guinea trade with gold, slaves and cola nuts. At the begin of the XVIIIth century in Kongo the revolt of noble Kimba Vita was suppressed, she was burned as heretician, but it helped to liberate Kongo from the Portuguese yoke and to establish the direct connections of church with Vatican. But politically Kongo

weakened in this time, the Portuguese had to give their place to the Dutch, Englishmen and French. Kongo also took part in the Portuguese slave trade. Its concurrent was a Portuguese factory upon San Tome. Later the center of slave trade was moved by the Portuguese to Angola, which became almost the first European colony after the building of haven of Luanda. In the XVII-XVIIIth centuries Angola, divided into presidencies and ruled by the military commendants, was practically the main slave exporter to Brasil. Some other states (Lunda, Luba, Kuba) appeared in the Kongo basin and further to the east at the end of the XVIth – XVIIIth century. Luba controlled the copper and salt mines of Shaba (Katanga).

In the second part of the XVIIIth century about 100,000 men, women and children every year are brought by ships to America. In this time the British trade interest determined the slave trade in the Caribic (the slaves for Brasil were brought by the Portuguese from Angola). From Bristol, Liverpool or London the ships sailed to West Africa, where alcohol, weapons, textile and other wares were exchanged against slaves, who were brought into Caribic. There slaves were exchanged against sugar cane and rum or brought by ships further to North America, where they were sold for tobacco or woods. This trade route was called “triangle trade”. The second route, by which the slaves were transported across the Atlantic, was called “middle passage”. Slaves were bought from the African traders, the African rulers could be very rich, selling their subjects (insurgents or thieves). After the increasing of demand for slaves, the people hunting in the neighbor states began.

Till 1760 all the French fortresses in Senegambia are occupied by the British; they achieve the sea victories (Lagos, Quiberon) and attack the French havens (“breaking windows with guineas”). According to the peace of Paris (1763), Great Britain gets Senegambia from France, but according to the peace treaty of 1783 it is returned to France.

1780 the culmination of transatlantic slave trade is reached. Some groups, like Quakers, were against the slavery. The opposition against slavery increased. 1787 the British enemies of slave trade buy a region at the west coast of Africa (Sierra Leone) to settle 400 liberated and fled slaves. 1795 Capetown, founded by the Dutch, becomes British. Ca. 1800 about 15,000 Europeans live there.

Questions:

1. Describe the North Africa in the XVIIIth century.
2. What were the peculiarities of slave trade in Africa?

15. India and neighbor countries in 1700-1790.

A. Hindustan in 1700-1790.

After the death of Aurangzeb (1707) the Moghul state continues to exist, but the real power is in the hands of different regional states. Marathis, appeared in the 17th century in Deccan in the result of guerilla war and ruled by the dynasty of peshvas), subjugate their neighbors more and more and create a powerful confederation of small states; from 1740 it includes also Bundelchand, Malwa and Gujarat, then Orissa and 1758 even Punjab. The strength of confederation is in the right of tax collection on its territory, given to it by Moghuls. But it could not occupy Delhi. 1739 Nadir Shah defeated the army of Marathis and plundered Delhi. His companion Ahmad Shah Durrani made later five campaigns against India (1748-1758), but without success because of the heroic resistance of Sikhs. But Marathis were defeated and could not take Delhi. The defeat of Marathis 1761 at Panipat against the Afghans and the Nabob (prince under the emperor's supremacy) of Oudh weakens their power; confederation is divided again into the separate states (Poona, Baroda, Gwalior, Indore, Nagpur). Another confederation from six states is united around Hyderabad 1717; other regions like Oudh with center in Lucknow (1739), Bengaly with Bihar and Orissa (1713) become independent from the Moghul emperor, who has only the formal supremacy. In Mysore the powerful state appeared, whose ruler Haidar Ali (1761-82) reorganized the army with the French help, creating the troops of well-educated hired officers and soldiers, weaponed with mousquets and canons. He refused from the Moghul system of jagirs (big land possessions of generals). His successor was his son Tipu Sultan, who fought against Englishmen.

France tries to build its colonial empire for the development of Indian trade on the base of mercantilism. The governor Dupleix (1697-1763) fights successfully against the British East Indian company. From 1746 the British-French colonial fights take place, which are led by Dupleix diplomatically well because of his good relations to the South Indian princes. In the Seven year war (1756-63) between England and France the power question in India was solved to the favor of England. For the security of trade the East Indian company intrudes into the fights for power of Indian princes; bribes, pensions, military help cause tax and administration rights (divani) over provinces and political control by "residents" and "agents". The expansion of East India Company begins from Bengaly. Here Robert Clive wins Calcutta back and defeats 20 times more forces of Nabob of Bengaly Mir Kasim at Plassey 1757 with only ten own soldiers died. Nabob unites with the Moghul emperor and the prince of Oudh and is defeated once more at Buxar 1764. From 1765 Robert Clive extends the power and possessions of the company. In 1757-1780 England brought from India wares and coins for 38 mln. pound sterling. The company (like Frenchmen earlier) used native Sipai soldiers with English officers, for whom it paid taxes. Oudh becomes a puffer state against the Marathis; through the tribute to the Moghul emperor the company gets the right of tax collection in Bengaly, Bihar (1765) and Orissa. According to the "Regulating Act" (1773), the East Indian company changes into the British administrative office. Warren Hastings, who was the first general governor of Bengaly from 1773 till 1785, orders law and administration and has further successes against the Marathis, the Nizam (prince) of Hyderabad and the Sultan of Mysore Haidar Ali. 1784 through the East India Bill the control over the East Indian Company goes from the parliament to the government. The parliament investigation in his case because of misuse in the sphere of taxes took place 1788-1795, but

he was proclaimed innocent. 1775-1818 Marathis are defeated in several wars. Some small princedoms – Gwalior, Indore, Baroda etc. – come under the English protection. Poona and Nagpur are annexed. Ca. 1750 missionaries discover the Jewish congregation of Bene Israel in Konkan (Maharashtra); first meeting between a Cochin Jew (David Rahab) and a Jewish army officer, Samuel E. Divekar.

In Nepal the mountain people of Gurkha extend from 1768.

In Sri Lanka till the end of the XVIIIth century the Dutch rule, who had monopoly for spices trade, then they were expelled by the Englishmen (beginning from 1795), who conquer the north of the island till 1815.

Both Muslim and Hindu cultures continue to develop. The Indian theologians, mostly mystics and partly poets, play a special part for Islam. Shaikh Waliullah (died 1762, Delhi) of Naqbandiya order influences the whole Indian theology of his time with his Arabic works. For him the core of mystical way is the love of God, which can melt the heart of man, likened to the peace of ice. He translates Koran into Persian.

Shaikh Abdallatif Bhitai (1689-1752, Bhit) uses the folk tales as the foundation of meditation about the mystery of God's love in his musical verses in Sindhi language. His tomb in Bhit (Hyderabad region) is one of the favorite pilgrimage goals of the Islamic world. Other places of Islamic theology are Peshawar, Sialkot, Lahore, Aurangabad, the provinces of Sind and Punjab. Mystics use the New Indian languages: Urdu, Bengali, Sindhi, Pashtu.

Delhi: Wali Deccani (died 1741?) wanders in the death year of Emperor Aurangzeb (1707) from Deccan to Delhi; writes instead of Persian and makes Urdu to the literary language.

Nasir Muhammad Andalib (1695/97 – 1758), a mystic; his main work "Plea of nightingale" is a collection of poems, stories, anecdotes and treatises and in the same time a main work of the "Muhammad path", which became known to Andalib in a vision by the Prophet's grandson Hasan ibn Ali.

Khwaja Mir Dard (died 1785), son of Andalib, Sufi of Naqshbandiya order, writes mystical meditations in Persian and short mystical verses in Urdu. His main work is a kind of a spiritual autobiography with visions of all-encompassing divine light.

Talabagh (Malwa): Mazhar Janjahan (1700-1781) is one of the "poles" of Urdu literature; Sufi of Naqshbandiya and Qadiri orders, an enemy of Shiites.

Lucknow: Mirza Rafiuddin Sauda (1710-81) leaves Delhi because of the corruption and the moral decay at the court; in his satires he criticizes the evils of his time, writing poems in Urdu to the memory of Husain's death in Karbala.

Mir Taqi Mir (died 1810), one of the famous Urdu poets, writes depressive verses, describing the mystic love in pictures of rose and nightingale.

Province Sind: Sachal Sarmast Ashikar (1739-1826) is an exstatic mystic, who glorifies the mystery of divine unity in hymnic verses in five languages and commemorates the passions of many Sufian martyrs. Other places of Islamic literature are Peshawar, Sialkot, Lahore, Aurangabad, Murchidabad, the provinces of Kashmir, Bijapur, Bengaly.

The Hindu literature develops too. Famous classic of Hindi Alankâra literature is Brahman Devdatt (Devkavi) (1673-1745), who wrote a lot of artful love poems. Padmâkara Bhaṭṭa's (1753-1833) "Jagadvinoda" is an example of artful poetry. In the second half of 18th century also a big number of philological commentaries appear. In Gujarat different poets appear. Among them Vallabh, a founder of the popular garbâ (songs about the divine mother Amba (Durga)) literature, Prîtamdâs, who celebrated Krishna, and Shivânand, who wrote about Shiva. Narbhairâm (1768-1852) writes strophes about the creation of Dakor shrine. The poets of later time are Dhîrâ (1753-1825) and Brahman Dayârâm (1767-1852) of Canod, who was a follower of a sect of Vallabha. In Marathi Brahman Shrîdhar from Pandharpur (1678-1728) writes epics in Ovî meter with the contence from heroic poems. Another famous poets are brahmans Amṛtray from Aurangabad (1698-1753), Sohîrobâ from Konkan (1714-1789), Mahipati (1715-1790), Moropant (1729-1794), his successor Râmjoshî from Sholapur (1762-1812) and Anant Phandî (1774-1819), who hailed the last peshva Bajî Rao II. In Orissa, which came under the power of Marathi prince of Nagpur (1751-1803), Râmdâs, who tell the story about saints in his "Dâdhyatâ-bhakti", Sadânanda Kavisûryabrahmâ, who wrote many Vishnuite works and his pupil Abhimayu Sâmantasimhâra (1757-1806), who wrote both religious works and romatic love stories. In Bengaly two big poets of Shaktism, brahman Bhâratacandra (1712-1760) from Basantapur in Hugli region and Râmprasâd Sen (1718-1775) from Kumarhati lived at the court of raja Krishnacandra Ray. In Tamil Nallâppillai from Madalampedu made an elaboration of "Bhârata" of Villiputtûrar (15th century). In Telugu the Christian literature appears. Ca. 1750 Mangalagiri Ânanda Kavi writes "Vedânta rasâyanam", where he sings about the creation, the prophets, the life of Jesus and the work of reconciliation. Ca. 1780 a Pingali Ellananya praises Jesus as Savior in his "Thôbhya-caritram", called also "Sarveshvara-mâhâtmyamu".

In the whole, India in this time is disintegrated, invaded by foreigners and more and more colonised by French, then by Englishmen. Despite it, the literature develops both by Muslims and by Hindus already mostly in new Indian languages.

B) Indochina and Indonesia.

On the west of Burma the old state of Arakan became independent again and was influenced by the Muslim Bengaly, colonized by Englishmen. The complicated relations of Arakan with neighboring Bengaly, the Moghul administration and the Englishmen on one side and the permanent struggle with Portuguese pirats and own Burmanian neighbors prepared the fall of state. The state of Ava, which existed till the middle of the XVIIIth century, was destroyed by one of the Mon rulers; the new state had a military conflict with Chinese forces. The rivalry between Upper (Ava) and Lower Burma (Pegu) is overcome by king Alaungpaya (1753-60). His successors extend the new state. The war of Burman states with Siam were almost permanent, but without any success.

In the XVIIIth century Siam (Ayutia) makes wars with Vietnam and Burma, and strives to subjugate the weakened Laos and Cambodia. The success in these wars helped to overcome the inside crisis and promoted some flourishing of Siam, including literature and art. The strong central power managed also to regulate the development of the economic connections of country with the outside world.

In the XVIIIth century Laos was disintegrated into some princedoms, the most powerful of which was Vientyan, which rulers were supported by Burman state of Ava and rivaled with Tai Ayutia.

In Malaya almost whole XVIIIth century the sultans of Johore rivaled with the Dutch. 1718 the Buginian immigrants begin to disturb the state. They origin from the isle of Celebes, are bellicose sea voyagers and arrange dominions at the different islands. Already 1720 Buginians are king-makers in Johore and exercize the real power. 1753 they create an independent sultanate in Selangore, but are expelled from the Dutch, like the sultan of Johore, and found a new sultanate at the island of Riau (1787) with a ruler from Malacca/Johoreas Sultan and a Buginian vice-king. At the end the Dutch had victory, and Johor was disintegrated into many small sultanates. But the 1795 Englishmen took Malacca and drived out the Dutch. The English East Indian company tries to establish its rule on Singapur and to bribe some sultanates.

In Indonesia the Dutch continue the active exploration of the islands, introducing the profitable system of monocultures. In Bantam 1750-53 the successless revolt continues, after which the dependence of Bantam is full; Sultan is now only a paid official of the Dutch. In Mataram after the throne struggle after the death of Amangkurat II (1703) the Dutch become the further rights and determine the politics more and more, despite many revolts. 1708 they get trade monopoly; 1733 the caffee plantages are taken into the propriety; 1740 after the revolt of Chinese tradesmen Mataram accepts the status of vassal state, which gives all the state income to the Dutch 1746. 1749-57 the third Java war is made, which ends with the treatises of Gianti (1755) and Salatiga (1757), accotrding to which Mataram is divided into three sultanates. 1795 a princedom becomes a part of the Dutch state. 1799 the Dutch East Indian company is liquidated; the Dutch colonial empire appears.

Philippines are temporarily taken by England 1761.

The European sailors continue to explore the Pacific Ocean. Roggeven discovers Easter island, Samoa, Solomon islands 1721/22; Bouganville sails around the world and discovers Polynesia and Melanesia 1766-68. An Englishmen James Cook makes scholarly sea travels 1768-79, exploring the east coast of Australia, New Caledonia, Tonga, Sadwich and other islands; murdered at Hawaii 1779. 1788 Australia is begun to be settled by the white people (initially prisoners) from Sydney (Botany Bay). Ca. 1800 about 83% of the Earth (60% of its land territory) is known.

In the whole, the Buddhist states of Indochina continue to be independent and fight each other, European colonizators and Chinese, in difference to Muslim Indonesia, which comes under the Dutch rule.

Questions:

1. Describe the political history of India in this period.
2. What were the main achievements of Muslim culture in India?
3. Describe the development of Hindu culture in Arian and Dravidic languages.
4. What was the difference between the development of Indochina and Indonesia in this time?

16. China and neighbor countries in 1700-1790.

In the first quarter of the XVIIIth century Kangxi (1662-1723) rules. China continues to be a bureaucratic Confucian state. From 1713 the tax quote from every district was strongly fixed. Philology develops. The Chinese standard lexicon, vocabulary of the imperial academy (1716), influences Leibnitz and the French encyclopaedists. 1715 the Russian Orthodox mission in Beijing is opened. But already 1723 the Christian religion in China is prohibited.

Qianglong (1736-96) is an orthodox Confucian, he confirms the prohibition of Christianity. Jesuits had also to leave China (1774). Under his rule China gets the greatest extension in its history through the colonial wars in Ili region (1729-34; 1754-61), in Burma (1767-69) and Tibet (1791/92). Already 1751 Chinese invade Tibet and get control over the election of Dalai-lamas. The Manzhou system becomes to stagnate: the literary "inquisition" with book burnings takes place; the Chinese secret societies are built; hate against the foreigners and the invasion of European (opium) trade grows. 1757 the far trade can be made only through the haven of Guanzhou. The increase of population (from 100 mln. to 276 mln. in 1780) cannot match with the old agrarian economics, which causes bad harvests, mass purity, suppression of ethnic and religious minorities. Many revolts take place, among them 1726, 1747 and 1795 revolts of Miao people in South-East China; Muslim revolts in East Turkestan 1758-59; revolts in Gangsu 1781-85 with brother fight of "old sect" and "new sect", as result of which the pilgrimage to Mecca is prohibited, and of Buddhist sect "White lotos" in Shangdong 1774. 1793 the British trade delegation under Lord Macartney had not big success in China and was expelled. It could still bring the information about the silk and tea production to the British East Indian company. At the end of Qianglong rule corruption and tax increasing caused the new revolts, China begins to decay. Despite it, in the XVIIIth century China exercises a strong influence upon Europe; it can be seen in the idealized China fashion (chinoiserie) of Rococo (lack works, porcelane; Chinese gardens with tea houses and pavillions).

In Korea the agrarian and tax system were perfectionated. The reforms of king Yenchho in the middle of the XVIIIth century made the taxes easier for the peasants of some categories and improved the status of non-full right peasants. New political movements demanded to abolish traditional Confucian norms and borrow the new European ideas.

In Vietnam from the second part of the XVIIIth century the mass peasant revolts began; soon the big Teishon revolt began under the motto of restauration of power of lawful rulers from Le dynasty, against Nguens and Chings. But the attempt of one of Le to restore the power was unsuccessful and caused the ultimate fall of dynasty 1789.

In Japan XVIIIth century brought the decay and the begin of economic crisis. Yoshimune (1716-45) abolishes the peasant stratum and taxes the luxury of samurais. Samurais, especially ronin, decayed. A part of peasants because of the poverty and nature catastrophes had to go into the towns or work in the system of dispersed manufactures. Under Ieharu (1761-86) most of daymyo are indebted and decayed, their power and richdom shortened, their moral sank, At the contrary, the power of shoguns continued to be unchangeable. The New Confucianism of Chu Xi direction was revived and became an official ideology. Prepared by the "Romantic" Kamo Mabuchi (1697-1769) the "four great men" (Azuma-marō, 1768-1830) and his school renew the nationalist Shinto movement: the Tenno cult is high

estimated, the shogunate – low. On the other side, the scholars, followers of rangakusha (European science), used its data for the perfectionating of economy of the country.

In the whole, the countries of Far East continued to be independent and closed themselves for the west, in the XVIIIth century they decayed more and more.

Questions:

1. Describe China in the XVIIIth century.
2. What was new in the development of Far East countries in the XVIIIth century?

Results of the 20th (2nd) period.

20 period (1700-1790) , "neoclassics", is a period of absolutism. It can be divided into two sub-periods: 1 – 1700-1740; 2 – 1740 -1790. In this time the equality of forces between the absolute monarchy and feudal on one side, and the new, capitalist social strata on other side is preserved. Technics is developing, the industrial revolution and change to the big factory production take place. The intensive colonization take place. North America is colonized, in this time colonialists fight each other and the Indian tribes. At the begin of period the absolutist France plays an important part in Europe, as before. War for the Spanish succession (1701-1713) is finished by the defeat of France and strengthening of England. Fight for colonies with England ends for France with defeat both in America and in India. Sweden, which preserved the hegemony in the Baltic Sea in the 17th century, loses it after the Northern war (1700-1721). Poland decays, at the end of 18th century it is divide between new European powers – Russia, Prussia and Austria. In 18th century the ascent of Russia takes place, it is again becomes a European state after the reforms of Peter the Great and victories in the Northern war. Now Russia takes example from Europe. Further territorial growth of Russia takes place under Catherine II, who united almost all historical lands of Kiev Rus under her power. In difference to British and Spanish colonial empires, Russian empire was “territorial”, uniting the near neighboring lands (in this significance it can be compared with the Persian of the Achemenid epoch or with Roman, from the contemporary – with Austrian). In Russia process of the secondary enfiefment of peasants takes place, which makes the Russian social-economic system archaic in comparison with even the backward European states. As earlier, Russia has retardation in comparison with Western Europe, being still in the 1st period of the new time. In 18th century ascent of Prussia and Austria takes place, they become the successors of the Holy Roman Empire, which exist only formally (after Habsburg rule). Spain decays. In the European culture classicism (the conscientious imitation of the ancient Rome) dominates, in France and other countries – the epoch of Enlightenment. Secret mystical societies, among them free masons, appear, which take an active part in the bourgeois revolutions. Idealistic philosophy is developed by Leibniz and Kant, who can be compared with Pythagoras and Plato. The Ottoman Empire still preserves its significance and even modernises, but it is disintegrated more and more into the separate feudal possessions. Persia is destroyed by the Afghan Nadir-Shah (1736-1747) and decays, it preserves independence, but meets different inside and outside problems. In India the Moghul Empire decays, the disintegrated land becomes colony of England. In China the Manzhu (Qing) dynasty continues to rule. In this time China reaches the greatest territorial extension in its history. Manzhu China evokes high estimation of Leibniz, Voltaire and other European philosophers, but Chinese themselves see the Manzhu rule as a foreign one. Jesuits have to leave China. Japan exists in the isolation from the European world. At the end of period the American bourgeois revolution takes place, in the result of which the new democratic state in the North America – USA – appears, which corresponds to the Roman republic (1775-2250 = 475, which only for 35 years differs from the date of the proclamation of Roman republic).

Questions:

1. Which are the main results of the 20th period?

History of industrial society.

Initially we have divided the history of civilization into 21 period 250 years each, the end of the third cycle being 3700. But in this division the influence of industrial revolution, as result of which the world went from agrarian society till the industrial, and of so called “scientific-technical progress” on the development of history was neglected. One must agree that these factors really accelerated the historical development in the third cycle, i.e. the history began to move faster to its end. Therefore we had to modify our review of history, preserving the same number of periods of the 3rd cycle. 19 period (1450-1700) still could be preserved, divided into two sub-periods. But our 20 period (1700-1950) is to be divided into some periods. Already in the first variant of our concept (1995) we divided it into two sub-periods 125 years each (1700-1825 и 1825-1950). Now we think that the following division is more correct. 20 period contains only 90 years (1700-1790) and can be called the period of Enlightenment (till the begin of Great French revolution and the industrial revolt). Further history of the industrial society was divided into the periods 40 years each, becoming the following system:

- 21 (1) – 1790-1830
- 22 (2) – 1830-1870
- 23 (3) – 1870-1910
- 24 (4) – 1910-1950
- 25 (5) – 1950-1990
- 26 (6) – 1990-2030
- 27 (7) – 2030-2070

In such a way the end of third cycle is now ca. 2070 (280 years after the French revolution), not 3700, as earlier, and it lasts not 2250, but 620 years, the duration of the most period decreases in 6.25 times (from 250 to 40 years). This number we call “the acceleration quotient”. Therefore we are now already not in the 21st, but in the 26th period of civilization. Dividing our cycles, as earlier ones, in the relation 4:5, we get: 1450-1870 (19-22 periods; 320 years), what corresponds to the traditional Late Middle Ages and the 1st part of new history, this first period of 3rd cycle we call “new time”; and 1870 – 2070 (200 years, 23-27 periods), which corresponds to the tradition 2nd part of new history and newest history, this second part of the 3rd cycle we call “modern time”.

Earlier we found that each cycle corresponds to this or that stage of mentality (or self-consciousness) of civilization – “plan”. So, the 1st cycle (“archaic”) corresponded to the “lower astral”, antiquity – “higher astral”, Middle Ages – “lower mental (logical)” plan. New time corresponds to the “high mental (causal)” plan. Humankind discovers the laws of nature. Really, till 1870 the laws of Kepler and Newton (discovered already in the 19th period), laws of thermodynamics and electrodynamics of Maxwell, the periodical system of chemical elements was discovered, the theory of evolution appeared, the laws of economics were discovered etc. It looked like that humankind understood the cause and sequence relations in the world, which could be expressed with more or less complicated mathematical formulas. But the next “plan” was “lower intuitive” (buddhi), which corresponds to the time from 1870. The relativist theory of Einstein, theory of electromagnetic field and waves, quantum physics, nuclear physics and physics of elementary particles already cannot be called “logical” in the common (formal) sense of this word. They are paradoxical, and the reality behind them cannot even be imagined, one can only make it more or less correct approximate model, which corresponds to the “intuitive plan”. One model often changes the other (for example, the models of atom), intuitively approaching to the understanding of Kantian “thing in itself” (Ding an sich). Revival of occultism (as parapsychology, theosophy, anthroposophy), UFOlogy and some other “sciences” fully correspond to this “plan” (intuition can also be wrong).

21 (1) period – ca. 1790-1830 (period of Romanticism).

17. America in 1790-1830.

A. North America in 1790-1830.

1791 Canada is divided into the French Lower Canada (Quebec) and English Upper Canada (Ontario), different from each other according to religion, language, law and customs.

In the neighboring USA the epoch of Virginia presidents (till 1817). The first of them is George Washington (1789-97). Alexander Hamilton (1757-1804) sketches a national program for the development of industry, trade and finances. He strengthens a new state and founds the power of American capitalism. The town of Washington, founded 1793, became a residence of president (White House) and of Congress (Capitol) from 1800. In the external policy from the foundation of the USA there is a tendency to isolationism (restriction of politics to America). 1793 the neutrality is declared despite the alliance with France and the coalition war. In his Farewell Address of 1796 Washington is warning about the “lasting alliances” with Europe.

Under President John Adams (Federalist, 1797-1801) the first conflicts with the southern states (Kentucky) began because of the federal Alien Bill, so under Thomas Jefferson (1801-09, Republican) a reaction for the centralist federal policy follows, which aim was to reach as possible as few of state and government. Energies and interests of nations are directed for “the winning of the West”, the extension to the West through the inside settlement and the immigration from the West, Middle and North Europe. The population grew from 3,9 mln. (1790) till 7,2 mln. (1810) and came inside the mainland over the Appalachians. Settlers and companies received a new land from the government for the lawful minimal prize (about 1 doll. for acre). The theoretically equal Indians were fought (General Wayne, Andrew Jackson). From 1787 the North-West and Mississippi territories were settled and the following states were created: Kentucky (1792), Tennessee (1796), Ohio (1803), Louisiana (1812), Indiana (1816), Mississippi (1817), Illinois (1818) and Alabama (1819). 1803 Louisiana is bought from Napoleon for 15 mln. doll. The continent is explored through the free Mississippi ship traveling. Tensions with United Kingdom (Indian question, territorial pretensions, trade concurrence) are answered with Embargo act of 1807.

President James Madison (Republican, 1809-1817) begins the “second war for independence” with UK (1812-1814) to conquer Canada and support Napoleon, but cannot prevent the British coast attacks and the destruction of Washington. General Jackson (“Old Hickory”) defends New Orleans. 1814 the “Eternal peace” of Gent is concluded: England is contented with the status quo; the Great Seas are neutralized.

With the collapse of the Federalists as a party, the adoption of many Federalist principles by the Republicans, and the systematic policy of President [James Monroe](#) in his two terms (1817–25) to downplay partisanship, the nation entered an [Era of Good Feelings](#), with far less partisanship than before (or after), and closed out the [First Party System](#). 1819 Florida is bought from Spain. 1820 the population of the USA is already 9,6 mln. people. 1821 the state Missouri is created. The Missouri compromise separates between the slave-owners and slave-free states. 1823 the Monroe doctrine is adopted: every intruding of the European states into the American affairs is prohibited.

His successor was [John Quincy Adams \(1825-1829\)](#). 1825 The appointment of [Henry Clay](#) as secretary of state, led to charges that the Clay and Adams made a bargain in the election of 1824. [Erie Canal](#) completed. 1828 Baltimore & Ohio railroad, the first designed for passengers and freight. In the same year [Andrew Jackson](#) (Democratic party) defeated Adams. 1824-1833 the American Reform movement, in its early Sephardic form, is born in the Charleston community. 1826 Jews settle in New Orleans. The Jews of Maryland obtain political equality: the “Jew Bill” allows them to fulfil all public functions without taking a Christian oath. The US Jewry expands through the North American continent.

In the whole, it was a first period of the USA history – the period of growth. The extension to the West brings the territorial acquisitions to the USA.

B. Latin America in 1790-1830.

Founded by the Venezuelan Francisco de Miranda (1754-1816), the Masonic lodges (lautoros) are propagated in the continent. Initially their fight is directed only against the colonial exploitation and is supported by England because of the trade interests. Creols (Criollos or Naturales), i.e. colonial Spaniards or Portuguese, 10-40 percent of the population, are the main carriers of this fight. Example of North America and the French revolution strengthen the will for freedom. In the time of Napoleon rule in the Spanish metropolis the town councils and congresses (juntas) build own governments. Military actions of Ferdinand VII for the restoration of the old system radicalize the moderate wishes of the liberal white upper class (blancos) to support the democratic independence demands of the colored proletariat (colorados, mestizes, mulattoes = mixed population). The leaders of revolt like Simón Bolívar (1783-1830) and San Martín (1778-1850) achieve the independence through the favor of political situation. US President James Monroe speaks against the intervention of Holy Alliance in his doctrine ("America for Americans") 1823. The USA and UK recognize the new states immediately. 1825 England signs treaties with Brazil, Venezuela and Argentina which contain a clause granting freedom of religion to non-Catholics.

Viceroydom New Spain: after the first attempts (revolts of the priests Hidalgo y Costilla 1810 and Morelos 1815) Colonel Agustín de Iturbide (1783-1824) achieves the freedom. 1813 the Inquisition is abolished in Mexico. 1821 independence declaration of Mexico: Iturbide proclaims himself to the emperor, but is exiled by General Santa Ana (1797-1876) and later executed. Under General Victoria (1768-1843) republic is organized 1823: the United Provinces of Central America separate from Mexico. Despite the inside fights between federalists and centralists Santa Ana beats a Spanish invasion army 1829.

West India: Haiti (French from 1697) is liberated under the colored "Emperor" Jean Jacques Dessalines 1804 and builds a republic 1806. Through the revolt of Spanish settlers the eastern part of island is separated 1808 and returns under the Spanish rule. 1821 the Dominican Republic is proclaimed independent (1822-1844 occupied by Haiti).

Viceroydom New Granada:

1811 the Inquisition is abolished in New Granada (Colombia) and in Paraguay. A congress in Caracas (1811) proclaims the independence of Venezuela. Francisco de Miranda becomes a commander in-chief, but is defeated by Spanish troops and capitulates (1812). Bolívar, nominated to dictator 1813, is defeated too, but organizes a new army from the steppe riders, the British and German legionaries in Haiti. With it he liberates Venezuela and Colombia between 1817 and 1820. 1819 Congress of Angostura: Great Colombia is proclaimed, Bolívar is President. With his friend Sucre he beats Spaniards in Ecuador after the difficult transition through Andes. 1826 the congress in Panama takes place: Bolívar's "South American Union" cannot come through. On July 13, 1829 a Jew first received a citizenship of a Latin American country from Simón Bolívar. The Jewish settlers in Coro, in north Venezuela, came from the small nearby community of Curaçao. The oldest Jewish cemetery was also located there.

1830 Great Colombia is disintegrated into the republics of Ecuador, Venezuela and the United States of New Granada.

Viceroydom La Plata:

1804 in Corrientes, Argentina, the Inquisition organizes a traditional ceremony designed to expose Judaizers and others heretics – one of the last public manifestations of Inquisitional activity in Latin America. 1813 the Inquisition is abolished in Argentina, Mexico, Peru, Chile and Uruguay. 1815 the Inquisition is re-established for a short time.

In the fights for liberty, beginning ca. 1810, juntas proclaim the independence of Paraguay (1811) under José Francia (dictator 1814-40) and in Tucumán the United States at Rio de la Plata (Argentina) 1816. San Martín leaves his military career in Madrid, becomes the

commander-in-chief of the Argentinian freedom troop 1814 and builds an army for the liberation of Peru.

Vicereign Peru: the commander-in-chief of the patriotic forces in Chile O'Higgins and his rival Carrera are defeated by Spaniards 1814. O'Higgins flees to San Martin, who liberates Chile after the winter transition over the Andes 1817/18. O'Higgins is proclaimed dictator. 1820 the British adventurer Lord Cochrane transports the liberation army with his private fleet to Callao. Peru as the last state becomes independent 1821 under the protector San Martin, who unites his troops with the troops of Bolivar. The victories at Junin and Ayacucho (1824) destroy the last Spanish resistance in the South America. Because of the differences with Bolivar San Martin resigns and dies in the European exile. Under the President Sucre (1795-1830) South Peru is proclaimed to the republic of Bolivia (1825).

On difference to the Spanish colonies, Brasil is separated from the Portugal motherland without fight. The Portuguese throne successor Dom Pedro, who had grown up in the country, did not return to the Portugal with his family after the overthrow of Napoleon. The national congress, called by Pedro, proclaims the independent empire of Brasil under Pedro I 1822 (rules till 1831). According to the constitution of March 25, 1824, Roman Catholicism officially remained the state religion, but freedom was given to all other religions. The west-European Jews lived in Brazil from 1808. A war with Argentina because of the annexed 1817 Uruguay ends with the peace of Montevideo 1828. Uruguay becomes independent.

In the whole, the Spanish and Portuguese colonial empires in Latin America, which existed ca. 300 years, are liquidated. Many new states appear, which sometimes fight each other. Unstable republics, headed by military leaders (caudillos), were burdened with the racial problems, uneducated masses and economic underdevelopment. In the Caribic Haiti is liberated from the French rule. The new states are supported by the UK and the US "to restore the equilibrium" (Canning).

Questions:

1. Describe the political development of the USA in 1790-1830.
2. What consequences had the destruction of Spanish and Portuguese colonialism for Latin America?

18. Western Europe in 1790-1830.

A) European culture of the time.

The culture of this time is influenced by the French revolution. Famous philosophers are Johann Gottlieb Fichte (1762-1814) and Frederick Wilhelm Schelling (1775-1854). In his "Science teaching" (1794) Fichte brings all being back to the eternal spiritual force ("I"), which develops in the reality in the free, subjective deed, to which one can ascend. According to Schelling, nature is a seen spirit and spirit is an unseen nature, the artist supercedes the thinker, because his work is near to the creation of "world soul". Here one can see the influence of Hermetic teaching. Famous mystic is Johann Heinrich Jung-Stilling (1740-1817), who continues the ideas of Swedenborg and is a predecessor of Spiritism. The German Romanticism has two periods. The elder, purely literary art (Jena, Berlin: brothers Schlegel, Tieck, Novalis etc.) strives to overcome the differences between nature and spirit, feeling and reason, limited and limitless through the subjective introspection (phantasy, dream, mystical vision). In the younger Romanticism (Heidelberg, Brentano, von Arnim, von Eichendorff etc.) the return to the people forces (people's songs, fairy-tells, legends) is made, which develop organically, have their historical significance (Historism) and lack any rational law. The foundations of Romanticism are transmitted upon music, art, literature, therefore the different branches of scholarship are founded: history (Niebuhr, Ranke); law (Savigny); literature (brothers Schlegel); Germanistics (brothers Grimm, Uhland); Romanistics (Diez); religion (Bachofen), state teachings. Romantic ideas are developing in Europe (Madame de Staël, "De l'Allemagne", 1813) and become the general spiritual movement in England: poets Byron (1788-1824), Shelley (1792-1822), John Keats (1795-1822) and novelist Walter Scott (1771-1832), France (Victor Hugo 1802-1885, Lamartine 1790-1869, George Sand 1804-1876), Italy (Leopardi, Manzoni), Denmark (Andersen), Poland (Mickiewicz), Russia (Zhukovsky, Batyushkov, early Pushkin).

Under the influence of French domination the unpolitical freedom ideas of "German movement" are connected with the nation, which is understood as spiritual culture community, the people's fate community and a political community of free people. Schiller writes "Orleans Maiden" (1801) and "Wilhelm Tell" (1804). Frederick Hölderlin (1770-1843) glorifies the "free people of Greeks" and the death for fatherland. In the "Speeches to the German nation (1807/1808)" Fichte demands spiritual freedom for the political renovation and identifies the 'German essence' with true morality and culture. The theologian Schleiermacher (1768-1834) awakens the national community feeling in his patriotic preachery; in the 'Hermann's battle' (1808) Heinrich von Kleist (1777-1811) pictures an example of national revolt. In his "Rheinischer Merkur" Joseph Görres (1776-1848) fights against Napoleon. Ernst Moriz Arndt (1769-1860) translates the national goal into the national language. National songs are propagated by Theodor Körner and Max von Schenkendorf. Frederick Ludwig Jahn (1778-1852) founds the national gymnastic movement.

The thinkers of the time are both conservative and liberal. F.L. von der Marwitz (1777-1837) defends the layer patriarchal order and refutes the Prussian reforms, which liberate the egoistic striving for profit and can destroy the state community. Prussian Frederic Gentz (1764-1832) translates the works of Burke and becomes the defensor of conservative ideas, which secure the European equilibrium. He supports the restaurative politics of Metternich. Politician and poet René Chateaubriand (1768-1848) refutes the revolutionary ideas in his

“Essai sur les révolutions” (1797) and comes to the subjective Christianity. Romantician Frederic von Hardenberg, called Novalis (1772-1801) makes an idealized picture of the medieval world order in his “Christianity or Europe” (1799). The state theory of Romanticism is formulated by Adam Müller (1779-1829) in his “Elements of state art” (1808/09): the grown organically Christian layer state is from God and encompasses all human spheres. The Swiss Karl Ludwig von Haller (1768-1854) gives the name to epoch in his “Restauration of state scholarships” (1816-34): the state is a private property (patrimonium) of a prince, who is responsible only before God; the subjects have no rights, only subordination. The patrimonial state is supported with the church and has to preserve the present. Legitimism is founded by de Ronald and de Maistre (1753-1821), who stresses the divine right of dynasties, which is independent from the people’s will, defends the goals of Holy Alliance and sees the Catholic belief and the Pope primacy as a foundation of state life in his “Du Pape” (1819, Ultramontanism). The ideas of utopic socialism were developed by Count Claude Henri de Saint Simon (1760-1825), his pupil Enfantin and Bazard, who proposed to abolish the heritage, and Charles Fourier (1772-1837), who pleaded for the falanstères (free communities of workers and peasants). Robert Owen (1771-1858) makes social reforms in his New Lanark and the Communist productive societies in New Harmony (USA, 1825-29). Famous philosophers are G.W.Frederick Hegel (1770-1831), who preaches the objective idealism and the monarchist law state, and Arthur Schopenhauer (1788-1860), for whom history is irrational plat of blind will (“World as will and imagination”, 1819).

1805 Georges Cuvier writes his “Leçons d’anatomie comparée”, where he classifies the invertebrata, develops the teaching about the “correlation of organs” and the “theory of catastrophes”. 1809 Lamarck (1744-1829) in his ‘Philosophie zoologique’ develops the theory of evolution. The discoveries in sciences take place. 1800 Carlisle and Nicholson discover the electrolysis; it is studied by Humphrey Davy, who discovers two new metals – Kalium and Natrium. 1811 Courtois opened a new element, which was called Iod by Gay-Lussac. He also made a study “Recherche sur la dilatation des gases et des vapeurs”. 1802 Thomas Young writes a treatise “On the theory of light and colours”, where he explains the light as the movement of ether, following Huygens. Théodor de Saussure makes botanic experiments with the nutrition solutions. Monge develops a “projective” geometry. 1808 Malus discovers a light polarization, 1815 Fresnell develops the wave theory of light, 1827 Ohm discovers the law of electric current. 1818 Berzelius discovers the weight of atoms; 1828 Wöhler synthesizes the urine. 1812 Koenig and Bauer develop the speed press.

In the whole, the influence of French revolution is seen both in the scholarship (radical school reforms, new theories), sciences (new revolutionary ideas and discoveries) and literature (Romanticism). The reaction to revolution also influenced the culture in the opposite way.

B) Europe in 1789-1815.

1. England in 1789-1815.

Till 1820 George III rules. The prime minister is a “boy minister” William Pitt the Younger (24 years), who rules from 1783 till 1806 with a pause of 1801 till 1804. The state is burdened with debts of the American war. 1797/98 the the revolt in Irland takes place. 1801 the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Irland is proclaimed. In England the industrialization and agrarian revolution takes place. The population grows from 7,8 mln. (1750) till 14,3 mln. (1820), therefore the deficit of products appears. 1814 the whole city of London has gas light,

the most houses have water toilets already in the begin of the century. 1810 there are 500 steam engines in England. The steamer is invented by Fulton (1807), the locomotive – by Stephenson (1814). Cotton industry in Manchester /Lancashire grows. Spinning (from 1790) and weaving (from 1815) works demand small initial capital and secure high profits.

The fight with the French revolution initially takes place in the ideal realm. Radical democratic ideas (the people's sovereignty, the liquidation of monarchy) are proclaimed by Thomas Paine (1737-1809). With his "Rights of Man" (1792) he fights Edmund Burke (1729-97), whose conservative critics in the "Reflections on the Revolution in France" (1790) influenced England and Europe strongly.

Then the "hot war" begins. The big "achievement" of Pitt consists in the leading of British existence fight against the French revolution and Napoleon. The involvement into the First coalition war (1793) is caused with the British-French colonial dualism, the endangered European equilibrium and the French occupation of the Rhine delta. The coalitions are built, "few troops and a lot of money" are sent. Charles James Fox (1749-1806), the oppositional leader of the Whigs, demands the stop of war, 1801 Pitt is dismissed and 1802 the peace of Amiens concluded. But the sea war under the leadership of Admiral Nelson (1758-1805) continues. In the battle of Trafalgar (October 21, 1805) Nelson dies, but the Franco-Spanish fleet is destroyed. His great successes secure the British Sea domination and the sea way to India. The blockade of the French havens with the seizing also the neutral ships strengthens the British fleet yearly for ca. 2000 ships. 1806 both Pitt and Fox die, "the ministry of all the talents" is formed. 1807 the Portland ministry with George Canning as foreign secretary is formed. Napoleon answers with the continental system, which is strengthened after the British bombardment of Copenhagen 1807 and the seizing of the Danish fleet and the Helgoland island. Arthur Wellesley organizes a "second front" in Portugal 1808. The result for UK are the tax hiving, the grain subventions, lose of the European export markets, but also the exploration of the new markets overseas (South America). The British export diminished for a half, the course of state papers for a third, the life costs grew twice. The increasing industry production causes the export crisis from 1810 (unemployment, hunger). 1811/12 the first "machine destructions" by Luddites take place. The gold reserves of the British banks can pacify the crisis of prices. The economical war does not bring success, because the both sides use licences (exclusive regulations for the important deficit wares). 1812 Perceval is murdered, the ministry of Liverpool continues till 1827.

In the whole, Great Britain develops dynamically in this epoch and fights with the French revolution and Napoleon.

2. France in 1789-1830.

a) the French revolution 1789-1794.

The Constituante (1789-91)

The dismissal of Geneva banker Jacques Necker (1732-1804) and the concentrations of troops around the city cause the taking over of the Bastille (as political prison a symbol of despotism). People win over the absolutism; the army is liquidated; La Fayette (1757-1834) builds a national guard (the militia of citizens with blue-white-red signs). As results the peasants' resurrections in the whole France, the first emigration wave of nobility, the fall of state administration follow; after the Paris example the autonomous communities appear.

After the impression of the mass revolts the *assemblée nationale* liquidates the feudal order and liberates the peasants (August 4/5, 1789). From the feudal absolutist state a bourgeoisie class state with the freedom of offices and crafts appears. France of then time had ca. 25 mln. people, among them 21 mln. peasants. August 26, 1789 the Declaration of Human Rights (imitated the Virginia Bill of Rights 1776) is accepted: *liberté, égalité, fraternité* are proclaimed. Hunger and fear of the contre-revolution cause the new actions of Paris masses. October 5, 1789 a procession of marker women to Versailles. The king and the *assemblée nationale* move to Paris (Tuilerie) and stay under the pressure of the “gallery and street”. To liquidate the financial problems the Bishop (excommunicated 1791) Talleyrand-Périgord (1754-1838) asks for expropriation of the church, crown and emigrants’ property (October, 10). The assignates (paper money, lawful pay source from 1790) cause inflation; but the new class of proprietors is built through the buying of national property. After the English example in Paris the political clubs appear: the moderate Feuillants (Bailly, La Fayette) and the radical Cordeliers (Danton, secretary of Louis XVI, Desmoulins, Marat). The Jacobines (after the dissolved St.-Jacob’s monastery) feel themselves as “holy league against the enemies of revolution” and as the “eye of revolution” (Robespierre, Saint-Just). They have closed sessions and are organized in the whole France. 1790, July the civil constitution of the clergy is accepted: the church becomes a state one, the orders and monasteries are liquidated, the priests are elected. The most clergymen refuse to make oath upon the constitution, therefore the conflict between church and state appears. With the death of Mirabeau (1749-1791) the connection between the king’s power and the revolution becomes impossible. 1791, June Louis XVI with his wife try to flee, but the king is recognized in Varennes, brought back to Paris and loses all his political rights. September 3, 1791 the new constitution is proclaimed, according to which the constitutional monarchy with a weak executive and the legislative people’s representation, restricted with property census, election of all officials, judges and open courts, division of state into 83 departaments with own government, human rights, equality of rights and private property are warranted.

The Legislative (1791-1792)

The new elected 745 deputies of the *assemblée nationale* legislative (over 50 percent of lawyers) have no political experience. They are divided into the parties of king’s Feuillants (about 20 members; dissolved in March 1792); the Girondistes (ca. 250 members; republicans and federalists as representatives of the bourgeoisie); the Jacobins (ca. 30 members; radical centralists, who influence the masses through agitation and newspapers (Marat: “Ami du peuple”, Hébert: “Père Duchesne”) and dominate in the Paris commune; the Independents without any clear political program. In April 1792 the war declaration to Austria is made (the new French republic is as aggressive as its ancient predecessor - the Athenian republic- ca. 2250 years ago), the coalition wars began. The first coalition consists from England under Pitt the Younger, Austria and Russian Czar and Grandmaster of the Maltian order Paul I. The Frenchmen try to export the revolution to liberate the other countries from absolutism and feudalism; they make pretensions to their “natural frontiers – Alps and Rhine”. The fear before the emigrants in Austria and Hansburg, the Austrian-Prussian defensive union, and the inside troubles are the main causes. Rouget de Lisle composes the anthem “Marseillaise”. King (“Monsieur Veto”) protests against the decrees of persecutions of priests who refuse to give the oath; military defeats follow and bring the “fatherland into the danger”. The manifest of Duke of Brunswick (July 25, 1792), caused mostly by the emigrants to liberate the king, evokes the taking over of Tuilerie (August 10, 1792). The king’s family is internated

in the “temple”; the Girondistes demand the liquidation of king’s power and the new election of republical convention nationale. The justice minister Danton (1756-94), Marat (1743-93) and the commune cause the September deaths (September 2-7, 1792) for the “cleaning of prison”, about 3,000 people are killed. The second wave of the noble emigrants leaves the land (among them La Fayette, who gets into the Austrian prison).

The convention (1792-93)

In September 1792 France is proclaimed to the republic. October 5, 1792 a new republican calendar (with a new era, the New Year in autumn equinox and other names of monthes) was accepted (used till 1805). In convention new parties were built: the lowland (Marais, lower ranks in convention) or Girondists support the equal rights, private property and self-government (Brissot, Vergniaud, Roland) and the mountain (Montagne, upper ranks, ca. 110 from 749 deputies) or Jacobins, who demand the centralized government and the disposal of private property for lessening of people’s needs (Danton, Robespierre, Marat). In the show process against the Citoyen Capet (Louis XVI) by the proposal of Robespierre the death penalty is accepted with 361 voices against 360 (January 17, 1793). January 21, 1793 the king is decapitated with the guillotine (the fall ax, invented by the Dr. Guillotin for the humanization of execution). This corresponds to 1649 in Great Britain (with retardation more than 140 years). In the war the attack of coalition awakes the French national feeling. September 20, 1792 the cannonade at Valmy: the Prussian army retreats. General Dumouriez (1739-1823) wins at Jemappes at conquers Belgium; Savoy is annexed. In February 1793 Great Britain and other European countries enter the war. The crisis of revolution causes the defeats in the war. In March 1793 the French army under Dumouriez is defeated at Neerwinden; the Austrian reconquest of Belgium and a new danger for Paris follow. The British fleet enters Mediterranean. Military defeats, hunger, inflation, unrest and royalist revolts of peasants endanger the revolution.

The great terror (1793/94)

The bad inside and foreign situation is met with fanaticism and hardship. June 2, 1793 the leaders of Girondists are imprisoned. The convention constitution is proclaimed: the absolute people’s power (according to Rousseau) prescribes plebiscites for each law and abolishes the division of powers, but cannot be accomplished practically. The lawyer Robespierre (1758-94) and “sword bearers” (Saint-Just, Marat – murdered by Charlotte Corday and glorified as a martyr) organize a dictatorship. According to the proposal of Marat, the comité du salut publique, founded in April (nine persons, elected by the convention), becomes the provisory government with the absolute power. In Paris the radical laws and the terror of the revolutionary tribunal practically abolish the human rights. The maximal prizes for goods are introduced. Till July 1794 in Paris 1251 “suspects” are guillotined, among them Bailly, the chemist Lavoisier, Phillip of Orleans (“Citoyen Égalité”) and the queen Marie Antoinette. In the departments the comissars of the comité suppress revolts and unrest (mass liquidations); the generals La Hoche and Kléber make an extermination war against the Royalists under Charette de la Contrie in the Vendée and against the Chouans (with the leader Cottereau) in the Bretagne. The atheism of so called Hébertists (from the Jacobin Hébert, 1757-94) increases. The “buildings, known as churches” are closed. Notre-Dame is made to the “temple of reason”. Robespierre, “the unbribable”, orders to execute both the extreme left Hébertists (March 1794) as well as the moderate right indulgents (Danton and his followers) April 3, 1794 (Germinal 14, the 2nd year). The dictatorship of Robespierre begins. In Mai 1794

Christianity is abolished to the favor of the "reason cult" with the division of month in three weeks ten days each. In June Robespierre celebrates the "holiday of Supreme Being". The terror culminates in the 'great purge' of Jacobins. The reform of revolutionary tribunal ("moral proves" are enough for the condemnation) leads to the uniting of all oppositional groups in convention and to the overthrow of Robespierre (July 27/28, Thermidor 9). He is executed with his 21 supporters (among them Saint-Just). In the whole, ca. 200,000 people were murdered in the time of terror, most of them in the street fights.

For the foreign threat France answers with the total mobilization (*Levée en masse*). Carnot (1753-1823) reforms and strengthens the army till 1 mln. (4% of the population); the political commissars control the commanders. As result of the new organization Belgium is reconquered by Jourdan (victories at Wattignies 1793 and Fleurus 1794); Holland is proclaimed to the Batavian republic. The British invasion attempts at Toulon and Quiberon are unsuccessful. After the siege of Toulon the Corsican Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821), the artillery officer from 1785, becomes a youngest revolutionary general, after the Robespierre's overthrow he is imprisoned as Jacobin.

b) The descent of revolution (1794-1799).

After the execution of Robespierre in the convention both factions of Montagne (radical "Comitees" and moderate "Thermidorians") fight each other. In September 1794 the revolutionary tribunal and the political clubs are closed; Marseillaise is prohibited. A youth movement (Muscadins) purges the Paris commune; the terror of Jacobins and Sansculottes is succeeded with the "white terror" of Royalist for all in the South France. May 20, 1795 (Prairial 1) the mass revolt is suppressed, Jacobins lose the power, the division of powers is restored, the convention is dissolved, the directoire from five members has an executive power. According to the September constitution, the deputies of the two-chamber legislative (the elder's council of 250 members and the council of 500) are elected in the indirect census election. The property bourgeoisie (Gironde) now accomplished its goals. The middle class rules again, both terrorists and aristocrats are persecuted and punished with deportation (instead of guillotine). The Paris society develops the Classicist fashion style of Directoire, in the same time the inflation grows (in May 1795 a gold louisdor costs 400 francs in assignates, in a year already 19000, some months later already 45,000). Unemployment grows, the agriculture, medicine, schools, channels and ways decay. The directoire is too weak to prevent the revolts of the right (Royalists) and the left (early Communists, organized in "Club of equals" of "people's tribune" Francois Noel Babeuf (1760-1797). Supported by Napoleon Bonaparte, Barras (1755-1829) suppresses the revolt of Royalists of Paris sections (October 5, 1795, Vendémiaire 13) in the order of directoire. Attempts to solve the economic and financial crisis cannot stop the state bankruptcy. September 4, 1797 (Fructidor 18) the coup d'état of General Augereau to purge the state from the Royalist corruption takes place. The organiser of revolutionary army Carnot and General Pichegru flee; the directoire so called triumvirate under Barras) becomes dependent from Napoleon, who takes the power Brumaire 18, 1799.

In the foreign policy the special peace of Basel is concluded 1795: Prussia refuses from the left Rhine shore against the compensation on the right one; a demarcation line secures the neutrality of North Germany till 1806. Spain concludes peace and begins war against Great Britain (treaty of Ildefonso 1796), which destroys the Spanish fleet at Cape Saint Vincent. Austria continues the war with the British financial help. Archduke Karl (1771-1847) defeats the French army under Jourdan and Moreau at Amberg and Würzburg (South Germany). An

alimentionation crisis inhibits the activity of the French army in Italy, led by Napoleon. But he can master the crisis and conquers the Lombardy. 1797 Mantua capitulates. In February the peace of Tolentino with Pius VI is concluded; in April attack to Carinthia follows and preliminary peace of Leoben is concluded. Contributions of the “liberated Italians” support the directoire and promote the “Napoleon myth”; the Italian art works are brought into the Louvre. The “savour of France” dictates the peace of Campo Formio (October 1797): Austria supports the giving out of the left Rhine shore (63,000 sq. km with 3,5 mln. inhabitants), it changes Belgium and Milan against Venice. The first coalition is to the end. The French satellite system is built: 1797 the Cisalpine (Milan) and the Ligurian republic (Genua) are built; 1798 the civil war and the reformation of Switzerland into Helvetian republic; after the taking over of Rome and imprisonment of Pope Rome becomes the Roman, Naples – the Parthenopaeian republic 1799. Napoleon becomes a commander-in-chief against England, which must be fought indirectly in the Mediterranean. He occupies Malta and lands in Alexandria (with 232 transport ships, 2,000 canons, 32,300 soldiers and 175 engineers and scholars to explore the land). He defeats the Mamelukes at the pyramids and conquers Cairo. But 1798 the British fleet under Nelson wins at Abukir, the French army is cut from France. An attack to Syria is unsuccessful before Acre (Akko) 1799, the land victory at Abukir does not save the campaign, but Egypt remains French till 1802. Attack of Naples upon the Roman Republic causes the Second coalition war (1799-1802). Russia unites with the Ottoman empire; Malta and the Mediterranean come under the British control. In March Archduke Karl defeats Jourdan at Osterreich and Stockach, in April Suvorov defeats Moreau at Cassano; in June Karl defeats Massena at Zürich; in August Joubert is defeated at Novi. The Italian satellite republics are liquidated. Russian operations in the Switzerland and British-Russian invasion at Alkmaar (Holland) remain unsuccessful. In August Napoleon leaves his army in Egypt, lands in France, overthrows the directoire and organizes a military dictatorship. After the unsuccessful peace proposal he takes over the command in Italy. In October Paul I leaves the coalition because of the British occupation of Malta.

In the whole, the French revolution develops five years at the ascent and five years at the descent line, finishing with the dictatorship of one man, which corresponds to 1653 in England.

c) The consulate (1799-1804)

The coup d'état of Brumaire 18 takes place 1799: with the help of army and his brother Lucien Napoleon dissolves the unable Directoire and the “council of 500” and builds a provisory government with Fouché (1759-1820) and Talleyrand as police and foreign ministers. Sieyès writes the new consular constitution: advised by two consuls and the state council, the first consul (who has the only law initiative) nominates all officers, officials, judges and the eighty members of senate. They propose the notables, through who indirectly in the general election the candidates of tribunate (only discussion) and the corps legislative (only voting of laws) are elected by people. The military dictatorship, closed in the democratic clothes, is approved by a plebiscite (only 1562 voices against). Napoleon is elected for ten years as a first consul. The bureaucracy is specialized through the professional officials; the law instances should follow the constitution. The education is divided into the lower, middle and high schools, controlled and regulated by the state. The formally logical subjects (Latin, Mathematics) and empirical sciences have propriety. Pope Pius VII (1800-1823) refuses from the return of church goods “for the sake of peace”. The concordate of 1801 (valid till 1905) binds clergy and the catholic population to the state (nomination of

bishops; paying and oath of priests). With the securing of finances through the foundation of Bank of France (1800) the inflation is over. Through the protective taxes, street building, army orders crafts and industry recover. The revolutionary laws are codified in the Code civil (Napoléon) of 1804, which guarantees the personal freedom, law equality, private property, civil marriage and divorce. The great bourgeoisie remains leading; the emigrated nobility is demanded to return; the state carrier is open for all. 1802 the Order of honorary legion is founded. The regime is supported with the press censure, spies and a police apparatus; critics (Madame de Staël, Chateaubriand) are not tolerated. 1802 because of his successes, a plebiscite prolongates the consulate of Napoleon for a life time. 1804 Fouché discovers a royalist conspiracy 1804; the Bourbon Duke of Enghien, who did not take part in it and was stolen from the Badish Ettenheim, becomes a victim. For his security Napoleon cause the senate to apply for the hereditary empire through a plebiscite.

In the foreign policy the victories at Marengo, Italy (Napoleon) and Hohenlinden, Germany (Moreau) 1800. In February 1801 the peace of Lunéville is concluded: Austria has to approve the conditions of Campo Formio. The first Indian plan of Napoleon is rejected after the death of Czar Paul I. 1801 the Nordic coalition for the protection of neutral trade (Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia) is built. In March 1802 the peace of Amiens is concluded; it is a first culmination of the Napoleon policy: England refuses from all colonial conquests (besides Ceylon and Trinidad); France gives Egypt back. The second coalition is over. 1802 Italy is ordered anew by Napoleon: the church state (without Romagna) and the Bourbon Naples kingdom are restored. The Grandduche Toscana becomes kingdom Etruria, the Cisalpine republic is proclaimed to the republic Italy (with Napoleon as the first consul); Piedmont remains under the French military administration. New British-French tensions appear from the attempt to renew the French colonial empire (acquisition of Louisiana from Spain 1800; landing at Haiti and Martinique to create a Caribic empire 1802); from the French occupation of Hannover 1803, breaking the peace of Basel; from the French protective tax measures and the invasion preparations in the camp of Boulogne 1804. 1803 Louisiana is sold to the USA, but Napoleon wants to invade South Australia 1804.

In the whole, it is a period of stabilization after the revolutionary years. The foundations of new French centralist state are made. In the foreign policy a time of relative peace before the great war. In the ancient history (the 2nd cycle) the first consul Napoleon corresponds to the Athenian first archon Pericles (1800-2250= 450 BCE), who also ruled about 15 years.

d) The Empire (1804-1814)

1804 Napoleon crowns himself to the emperor of Frenchmen in the absence of Pope. His family members receive the prince titles, ministers and generals become nobility and marshals. 1807 the new nobility with maiorates and old titles is organized (till 1814 31 duke, 451 counts, 1500 barons). Empire grows through the permanent annexations. From 1807 the rationally built hegemony over Europe consists from the family states (Napoleonids), dependent vassal states and allies. The French marshal Bernadotte (Karl XIV) is elected to the Swedish throne successor (1810). To rectify his policy Napoleon uses the historic parallels (Roman and Carolingian empires), but the personal power motives play an important part; besides it, the British enemy causes the stronger concentration. The states, who do not follow the Milan edict for the aggravation of continental system (1807), are occupied: Portugal 1807, Etruria, Rome 1808/9; North Germany 1810. Russia becomes a partner of Napoleon, who

mets with Alexander I at the princes' congress of Erfurt 1808. To oblige Austria Napoleon divorces Josephine Beauharnais and marries Marie-Luise, daughter of Franz I (1810).

Conscriptions of recruits with a possibility to find a remplaçant (substitute) bring ca. 1,3 mln. soldiers between 1806 and 1812 (41 percent of military obliged). Transport and sanitary system, proviance and equipment of troops are damaged with speculations of private creditors. Despite it, economics grows. 1810 there are already 200 steam engines in France. 1812 the empire has biggest extension: 152 departements with 50 from 175 mln. inhabitants of Europe. The allies of Napoleon are Norway, Danemark, Prussia and Austria.

Third coalition was built 1805, it consisted from England under Pitt the Younger, Russia under Czar Alexander I, Audtria, Sweden and Naples. Austrian army was encircled and capitualed at Ulm, Napoleon enters Vienna. But the sea battle at Trafalgar (October, 21) secured the British sea domination. After successes in Upper Italy (Caldiero) Archduke Karl retreats over Hungary to unite all forces; but Napoleon wins in the battle of three emperors at Austerlitz (December, 2). According to the treaty of Schönbrunn (December, 12) the courprincedom Hannover is promised to Prussia against Kleve, Neuenburg, Ansbach-Bayreuth; Prussia, led by Count Haugwitz (1752-1832), becomes an ally of Napoleon. According to the peace of Preßburg (December, 25), Austria gives Venetia and Dalmatia to Republic Italy; Tirol, Vorarlberg and Dalmatia to Bavaria; Breisgau with Konstanz – to Baden and Württemberg. It gets Salzburg and recognizes the rank promotions of German princes. After the death of his enemy Pitt Napoleon proposes Hannover to England, breaking his treaty with Prussia. Prussia concludes a coalition with Russia and Saxony. Ultimatum, demanding to drive back all French troops to the right of Rhine and to dissolve the Rhine union, causes the fourth coalition war (1806/1807). After the avant-garde battle at Saalfeld the old Prussian-Saxonian army is defeated gravely in the double battle at Jena and Auerstedt. Prussia is broken militarily and morally; residence is moved to Königsberg; Napoleon enters Berlin without fight and proclaims a continental system; Prussian army groups at Prenzlau and Ratkau (Blücher) are dissolved; only the fortresses Kolberg (Gneisenau, Nettelbeck), Graudenz (Courbière) and Glatz. In December 1806 the peace of Posen with Saxony is concluded, which enters the Rhine union. In February 1807 the battle at Preußisch Eylau: Sharnhorst prevents the unse of French victory; Frederick Wilhelm III (1797-1840) flees to Memel. In June 1807 Russian defeat at Friedland. In July 1807 the peace of Tilsit is concluded: Prussia is preserved from disintegration only through Russian intervention; it loses the territories to the west of Elba and the former Polish regions besides West Prussia; Danzig becomes republic with French guarrison. Till the paying out of high contribution Prussia remains under the French occupation, its army is reduced till 42,000 people. The new states appear: kingdom of Westfaly under the brother of Napoleon Jérôme and the Duche of Warsaw (in personal union with Saxony), where the serfdom is abolished. Russia becomes an ally of France, supports the continental system; Europe is divided into the French and Russian spheres of influence. The second Indian plan (1807/08) is frustrated because of the slow actions of Czar Alexander I.

For the attack upon Portugal, which market remains open to the British trade, Napoleon secures the rights of military stationing and crossing in Spain in the treaty of Fontainebleau (October 1807). Junot conquers Portugal (1807), the king's house (John VI) flees to Brasil. In February 1808 Marshal Murat (1767-1815) leads the strengthened French troops against Madrid for the "coast protection against England". After the revolt in Aragon, directed against the Francophile favorite of the queen, Godoy, Karl IV (1788-1808) has to abdicate to the

favor of his son Ferdinand VII (1808-33). Seeing his interests endangered, Napoleon intrudes into the Bourbon family struggle and causes both kings to abdicate to the favor of his brother Joseph (Mai) in Bayonne. Murat becomes king of Naples. The people governments (cortes) in Oviedo and Cartagena proclaim the national revolt, Asturia and Andalusia revolt, in Sevilla a central junta (a provisory government) for Ferdinand VII is built. In July 1808 a French corpus of 23,000 men capitulates in Bailén; Joseph flees, but the British general Arthur Wellesley (1769-1852, after 1809 Lord, after 1814 Duke of Wellington) lands in Portugal and expelles Junot. Now emperor intrudes himself with 30,000 people. 1808/09 the Spanish campaign of Napoleon takes place: Madrid is occupied, Zaragoza is conquered, king Joseph returns. The Austrian insurgence (1809) breaks the action. For the Count Stadion the Spanish revolt is a signal for the national insurgence. Count Karl directs a manifesto to the 'German people', but the hope for the German help is vain, because Prussia is prevented from the action with the French occupation and Czar Alexander I. The fifth coalition war begins. Napoleon expels the Austrian army to Bohemia. The battle at Aspern (Mai 1809) ends with the first defeat of Napoleon from Archduke Karl and heavy losses. The Polish-Russian allies move till Krakow. Successless actions in North Germany (free corpus of Schill) follow. In Tirol the people's war begins; under the leadership of Andreas Hofer and Josef Speckbacher the victorius fights against Bavarians and French at Mount Isel take place. Hofer is a victim of treasure and killed in Mantua 1810. In July 1809 Austria is defeated at Wagram. Archduke Karl and Stadion retreat. In October 1809 the peace of Schönbrunn is concluded: Austria is cut from the sea; it gives Salzburg, the Inn quarter and North Tirol to Bavaria; the South Tirol to Italy; the Illyrian provinces to France; the West Galicia with Krakow to Poland; Tarnopol (ca. 100,000 sq. km with 3,5 mln. people) to Russia; the army is limited with 150,000 people. As Stadion's successor prince Metternich orients the Austrian policy in the direction of Napoleon. Prussia and Austria are bound with help treaties in the Napoleon's system.

In Spain in the emperor's order Soult expels the British additional army under Moore till La Coruña. The guerilla war, led by nobility and clergymen, develops further and binds the strong French forces. The annexation of the church state (1809) and the imprisonment of Pope strengthen the resistance of the Catholic Spanish people. Wellington makes attacks and beats the Massena's attack at Lissabon at the fortress line of Torres Vedras 1810. The economic crisis cause Czar Alexander I to give out the continental system (December 1810); the protective taxes favor the British trade with urgently needed industry wares. The dismissal of Duke von Oldenburg, a Czar's relative, as well as non-respecting of Russian interests in Poland and Turkey sharpen the French-Russian tensions. Napoleon wants to make "the Tilsit system" valid through a direct military action. Military unions with Prussia (February) and Austria (March) secure the movement of the "Grande armée" (ca. 610,000 soldiers). Because Napoleon refuses the wishes of Bernadotte (annexation of Norway by Sweden as compensation for the lose of Finnland), respecting the Danish position, Russia unites with Sweden (April) and ends the war with Turkey. In June 1812 the Napoleon's troops cross Nemen without war declaration. The left wing operates with flank securing in Kurland (Prussia under Macdonald), the right in Wolyn and Lithuania (Saxony and Austria under Schwarzenberg). Napoleon with the main army, which diminishes radically (475,000 in June at Nemen, 375,000 in July at Vitebsk, 155,000 in August at Smolensk, 130,000 in September at Borodino), attacks over Vilno in direction of Moscow, which is taken after the victories at Smolensk and Borodino without any resistance (September 14, only 110,000 soldiers remained). Commander-in-chief Kutusov (1745-1813) decides to use the movable defence and refuses from the decisive battles. After the fall of Moscow the peace proposals of

Napoleon are refused (adviser vom und zum Stein). The supply difficulties, the Moscow fire (with destruction of Kremlin) and the coming winter cause Napoleon to the late retreat (October 19, 100,000 soldiers). The army is permanently persecuted by the Russian troops, diminishes in number (November 3, Vyazma: 50,000 soldiers; November 9, Smolensk: 37,000 soldiers) and must give out Smolensk as a winter quarters. The crossing over Berezina at Studyanka (November 28) becomes a catastrophe. Hunger, cold and illnesses almost fully destroy the army of only 30,000 people (December 10, Nemen: 5,000 people). Napoleon leaves the troops and comes suddenly to Paris to strengthen his falling regime (coup attempt of General Malet in October) and to build the new armies. At the end of 1812 the remnants of the main army arrive the Prussian border (ca. 1,000 men with 60 horses and 9 canons). Meanwhile Madrid is liberated by Wellington. In the besieged Cadiz the central junta proclimates the "Constitution of the year twelf", preserving the monarchy, but limiting the king's rights. The Russian campaign of Napoleon looks like the campaigns of Dareios I against the Scythes and Greeks, albeit it corresponds typologically to the Peloponnesian war.

The catastrophe of the great army enflames the national resistance of the European people against the French occupation. In December 1812 in the convention of Tauroggen General Yorck (von Wartenburg, 1759-1830) makes obligation to the Russian general Diebitsch (whose adviser is Clausewitz) to keep neutrality of the Prussian additional troops and opens the East Prussia to the Russian army. In the Czar's order Baron von Stein, Yorck and the East Prussia land parlements organize the people's militia. In February 1813 the treaty of Kalish is concluded. Russia secures Poland for itself against the restauration of Prussia (with annexation of Saxony). Moved by the Prussian patriots (Scharnhorst, Hardenberg), Frederick Wilhelm III declares war to France (March). The people's army is built by Scharnhorst. Together with Russia, Prussia takes the main burden of the liberation war (6 percent of population have an active military service). In the spring campaign the improvised Prussian and French "recruit armies" meet at Großgörschen (the death wound of Scharnhorst) and Bautzen. Napoleon expels the allies to Silesia, but the Swedish troops land in Pommerania (Mai). UK enters the coalition in June. The Rhine union states are reserved, despite the Kalish proclamation (March 1813) of von Stern, calling out to help the liberators and create the German national constitution. Metternich makes negotiations with both sides and mediates the ceasefire of Poischwitz (June 1813). Only after the successless peace negotiations in Prague Austria enters the war (August). In the autumn campaign three coalitionary armies attack concentrically, but elastically. Napoleon's victory at Dresden (August) and other part victories do not prevent the encircling of French army. October 16-19, 1813 the coalition wins in the people's battle at Leipzig (ca. 100,000 dead and wounded), but the ordered retreat Napoleon's over the Rhine take place. As result, the Napoleon system is broken, the Rhine union is dissolved, Germany, Netherlands, Upper Italy are liberated; Naples under Murat leaves Napoleon; in the peace of Kiel 1814 Danemark must give Norway to Sweden, Prussia gets Prepomerania. Meanwhile, the last offensive Wellington's (1813/1814) liberates Spain finally through the victory at Vitoria; it ends with the seizing of Toulouse. From Napoleon Ferdinand VII receives the crown back in the treaty of Valençay (December 1813). He refuses from the liberal constitutioin and rules as an absolute ruler. In winter Blücher (1742-1819) and Schwarzenberg cross the Rhine at Kaub or Basel. Napoleon defeats Blücher at Brienne, but is beaten by him at La Rothière; despite it, he retains the freedom of action through the energique attacks (at Champaubert, Montmirail, Montereau), because the leadership of coalition had politic differences. The peace congress of Châtillon, summoned at the initiative of Metternich (February/March 1814), ends without results. In the treaty of Chaumont

(March) the coalition powers unite anew for the collective actions. March 31, 1814 the allied entered Paris; a provisory government (Talleyrand) overthrows Napoleon. April 4 the army causes the emperor to abdicate in Fontainebleau. Instead to become a world ruler till 1814, as he planned, Napoleon receives the island of Elba as principedom and a honorary guard of 800 men. With Louis XVIII (1814-1824) the Bourbons return to the throne. The king proclamate a liberal constitution, but favors nobility and clergy. In Mai 1814 the first Paris peace with moderate conditions for France at the foundation of borders of 1792 is concluded.

e) The Vienna congress and hundred days (1814-1815)

The third big peace congress of the new time for the order of Europe is a creation of conservative Prince Metternich (1773-1859). The political principles of congress are restauration, legitimacy and solidarity. At the congress almost all countries and princes of Europe take place, the representatives of five big powers are: Metternich for Austria, Castlereagh (1769-1822) for UK, Czar Alexander I and Nesselrode (1780-1862) for Russia, Hardenberg and Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835) for Prussia, Talleyrand, the unchangeable French foreign minister from the time of directoire, for France. The Polish-Saxonian question leads to the eve of the war. Cares with preservation of the European equilibrium, Metternich and Castlereagh speak against the annexion of Poland by Russia and Saxony by Prussia (the Kalish treaty). Talleyrand use the crisis for the improvement of France situation, which enters the British-Austrian secret treaty against Russia and Prussia (January 1815). The tension at Vienna congress seduce Napoleon to descend at Cannes (March 1815). He collects the French core groups, promises the radical democratic reforms and enters Paris. Louis XVIII flees to Gent. Murat, who strives to get the crown of Italy, supports Napoleon, but is defeated by Austria (Neipperg) in the battle at Tolentino (Mai 1815). Ferdinand I (1816-25) becomes a “king of both Sicilies”. Both main armies of victors under Wellington and Blücher/ Gneisenau attack in the south and in the west. Napoleon opens a campaign in Belgium with only 120,000 soldiers. Blücher is beaten at Ligny, but in the due time he unites his troops with the Wellington’s army. In June 1815 the battle of Waterloo (Belle Alliance) takes place: the last Napoleon’s army is destroyed; the coalition enters Paris for the second time. Napoleon is protected by the British. He is deportated to the Atlantic island of St. Helene, where he dies 1821. About 2 mln. people were victims of his military actions.

In June 1815 the Vienna congress act is concluded. It restores the equilibrium of five big powers (“pentarchy”). France remains in the borders of 1792, controlled by the “crown of middle states”: Sweden in personal union with Norway; the new kingdom of United Netherlands; kingdom of Sardinia-Piemont, which got Savoy. United Kingdom in the personal union with the new kingdom of Hannover, having taken Malta, Ceylon, the Cape colony and Helgoland is a real victor. Russia gets “Congress Poland” (with own constitution) and becomes the leading continental power. Austria refuses from the Habsburg Netherlands (Belgium) and a front Austria, having rounded the territories in Galicia, Upper Italy and Dalmatia. It exercizes a political primat over reataured Italy, grows as multinational state from Germany, but pretends upon the leadership in German Union. Prussia is satisfied with the partition of Saxony and is compensated with Rhine provinces and Westfaly, therefore it is splitten in two parts, different economically and confessionally. Switzerland gets “eternal neutrality”. After the new constitution (August 1815) the state union consists from 22 cantons with own (initially reactionary) constitutions. In September 1815 the Holy alliance of three Christian powers (Orthodox Russia, Catholic Austria and the Protestant Prussia) is concluded (return to the policy of Catherine II). In November 1815 the second Paris peace is concluded:

France gives Saarbrücken to Prussia, Landau to Bavaria, Savoy to Sardinia. It has to pay 700 mln. francs of war compensation; 17 fortresses are occupied for 15 years.

It is a real end of French revolution, which disturbed the situation in Europe for twenty years, and corresponds to the Restoration of 1660 in England. Despite restoration, France became a bourgeoisie country and remains an example for the European revolutionaries all the XIX century.

3. German countries in 1790-1830.

In the peace of Lunéville Napoleon causes the reorganization of Germany to compensate the losses of the German princes at the left shore, which did not take place at the congress of Rastatt (1797-99). The church property is secularized through the comity (deputation) according to the French example. 1803 all regions of clergymen besides Mainz are redivided, among them 45 from 51 imperial towns as well as smaller principedoms and counties, in the whole, 112 imperial regions with 112 mln. people. 1804 350 imperial knightships lose their immediate subordination to the empire. German princes improve their ranks with the Napoleon's approval: 1804 Franz II (1792-1806) takes a title of Austrian emperor (rules as Franz I till 1835). 1805 Bavaria and Württemberg become kingdoms; 1806 Baden, Hessen-Darmstadt, Berg become duchies; sixteen South and West German princes found the Rhine union under the protection of Napoleon 1806. Karl Theodor von Dalberg (1774-1817), Archbishop of Mainz and from 1810 bishop of Frankfurt, becomes a first prince. August 6, 1806 Franz II refuses from the emperor's crown under the pressure of Napoleon; it is an end of the "Holy roman empire of German nation". In its successor – Austria there is a strong resistance against the reforms, made under the foreign minister Johann Philipp Count Stadion (1763-1824) 1805-1809. The nationality problems, unequal education and development situation of the parties of the country cause the preservation of the nobility, which organizes the state. Despite it the national revolt against Napoleon is prepared. Army reforms of Archduke Karl and Johann (1782-1859). 1808 the general military duty is introduced.

The states of Rhine union: after the French example, especially in Bavaria by Montgelas (1759-1838) and in Baden by Reitzenstein (1766-1846), the foundations of the modern state are introduced, among them the central bureaucracy and the professional ministries, the layer self-government in communes is abolished, some freedoms are guaranteed, the state control of churches and schools is introduced. The constitutional beginnings favor the liberal and political state thinking, especially in South Germany.

Prussia: Already before the defeat of 1806 the leading officials criticized the absolutist state system. They wanted "a revolution from up" to build a layer state. Among them was von und zum Stein (1731-1831) from Nassau/Lahn. His reform plans ("Nassau memorial", 1807) are fulfilled by the state chancellor Karl August von Hardenberg (1750-1822; 1778 Count; 1814 Prince). In his "Riga memorial" (1807) he proposes "democratic reforms in monarchist state" without the stressing of layer autonomy. A row of social reforms are made: 1807 the peasants are liberated; 1808 the new state order is accepted with the self-government of middle class city dwellers; 1810/1811 the crafts are abolished; 1811 the serfdom is abolished, a third of land is given to the landlords. 1812 the emancipation of Jews takes place. The administration reforms, separating justice and administration, take place. 1808 five ministries are established; The administration was divided into provinces (supreme president), government regions (president) and districts (elected land adviser, from 1812, according to the

gendarmerie edict, a district director, nominated by king). A conservative opposition of nobility, headed by von der Mallwitz and Heinrich von Kleist, fights against the reforms. The army reforms are made by Scharnhorst (1755-1831), Gneisenau (1760-1831) and their collaborators Boyen (1771-1848), Grolman (1777-1843) and Clausewitz (1780-1831), creator of modern war theory. Despite the restriction of active troops (line), made by Napoleon, the reserves are built with short military building, the promotion according to the service, the body punishments are abolished, the new leadership (war academies) is created. 1813 the Iron Cross is created; free units (among them Free corps of Lützow with black-red-gold) are built. 1814 the military law introduces the general military obligation. The education reform is made by Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835, 1809/10 minister of education, one of founders of comparative linguistics). 1810 the Berlin university is founded. Among others, Fichte, Schleiermacher, Niebuhr and Savigny are called. 1812 the state gymnasial order with the principle of general education and special teaching of classical languages is accepted; the state exam of philologists and pupil is introduced. The people's school to develop the natural strivings of the children in the spirit of the Swiss Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827) is created.

The new Prussian state becomes a hope of German patriots. They, united around Freiherr vom Stein, E.M. Arndt and Joseph Görres want a national German empire. But the Prussian-Austrian dualism and the particularism of separate princes prevent the creation of strong central power; therefore the empire is not restored, only the principle of secularization is approved. In June 1815 the German union act is accepted, according to the ideas of Metternich. German Union consists from 39 members (35 princes, among them the kings of UK (Hannover), of Denmark (Holstein) and the Netherlands (Luxemburg). Only a part of Austria and Prussia belongs to the union. The federal parliament in Frankfurt under the Austrian presidency can be expanded with the federal meeting. The federal decisions are made with majority of two third or more and bind the government. In the case of war the federal army from the contingents of separate states takes the defence. The Article 13 allows the "land constitutions". The Humboldt's plan of unified regulation of finances, law, transport, economy, economics (money, measures, weight) is not accepted.

In the whole, German countries are modernized in this time, but Germany is not united.

C) Europe in 1815-1830.

1. South-West Europe and the politics of congresses.

For the security of Vienna peace Metternich and Czar Alexander I try to promote the cooperation of European great powers through the conferences. Castlereagh supports this equilibrium policy despite the British reservation. The "Concert of powers" is expanded with the accession of France into the Holy Alliance at the Aachen congress 1818. Despite the British protest, in the congress of Troppau (1820) Metternich supports the intervention principle. The solidarity of powers is broken into the liberal west block (England, France) and a conservative east block (Russia, Austria, Prussia).

Portugal: the constitution, proclaimed by the Cortes 1821, is accepted by John VI after his return from Brasil. British foreign minister Canning prevents the unrest, supporting the granddaughter of John VI Maria II da Gloria against the candidate of reaction Dom Miguel.

Spain: troops' revolts in Cadiz and the revolution of liberals 1820. The Serviles (supporters of the absolute monarchy) are defeated. The victors are divided into Exaltados and Moderados. Against the British pretension (Wellington), the Verona congress (1822) orders France to make a military intervention. Madrid and the fortress of Trocadero are taken 1823. Under the French occupation Ferdinand VII (1808-33) makes a hard retribution.

Naples: the secret union of Carbonari (from ca. 1796) works for the national revolution. The revolt of Nola (1820) causes Ferdinand I to accept a constitution. Sicily (the secret union of Mafia) tries to separate from the kingdom, the Italian national movement develops in the Sardinia-Piemont and Upper Italy. Therefore the Laibach congress (1821) approves the Austrian intrusion. The revolt is broken: its leaders are condemned to the imprisonment in the fortresses in the political processes or emigrate. In the hate against Habsburg all Italian patriots unite.

In the whole, the revolts in the South-West Europe were suppressed with the forces of the Holy Alliance.

2. UK in 1815-30.

During the period of Great War the National Debt had risen from £239, 000,000 to £861,000,000. After the end of war against Napoleon the heavy economic depressions with falls of prices and unemployment through overproduction take place. The crown prestige sinks because of law scandals of "Dandy" Georg IV (regent from 1811, king 1820-30). The eldest son of George III. From the Tory cabinet of Liverpool (1812-27) the land owners reach the protective Corn Laws (1815) against the stream of cheap overseas grain. The damaged hardly workers find their lawyer in the journalist Cobbett (1762-1835) and bring their radical demands at the demonstrations. For the unrest in Manchester ("Peterloo") 1819 the "old stupid Tories" or "Ultras" answer with the "Six Acts", giving the magistrates summary powers to disarm agitators, to suppress public meetings and acts, as well as press. But the moderate "young Tories" under Robert Peel (1788-1850) became influential. In the same Peel carried an act for the resumption of cash payments, abolished 1797. In September 1822 Viscount Castlereagh committed suicide, and Canning (1770-1827) became a Foreign Secretary. Another important politicians of liberal ideas were Frederick Robinson, a Chancellor of Exchequer, and William Huskisson, President of the Board of Trade. Now UK loses from the connections with Europe (Splendid Isolation) and from the restauration policy and promotes the liberal movements of the small nations as their protective power. The criminal law is mildered 1824, the coalition freedom is given, the trade unions are recognized. Under the pressure of national "Irish Catholic Association", reactivied by Daniel O'Connell (1775-1847), and by the Peel's asking the new administration of Tory Wellington abolishes the Test Act and emancipated the Roman Catholics 1829 (a 'Roman Catholic Relief Act'). O'Connell carries out the milderding of Irish tax burden in Parlament and demands the abolishment of Union with Irland of 1801 ("Repeal"). In June 1830 George IV died.

In the whole it was a period of reaction and of moderate reforms.

3. France in 1814-1830.

In France the restauration of Bourbons takes place. Louis XVIII (1755-24), the brother of Louis XVI, returns from exile (Verona) "with the white banner in package" and initiates the Charte constutionelle (1814): two chambers system after the British system (heredital pairs'

and elected according to the high census deputies' chamber); the law initiative only by the executive, exercised by the ministers, responsible before the king. The redistribution of national wares, law equality (Code civil) and personal freedoms are recognized. The bourgeoisie becomes the strongest political layer. The parties of ultraroyalists (Charles X, Polignac, Villèle) for the restoration of old privileges of nobility; independents (Constant de Rebeque) for the liberal "principles of 1789"; doctrineurs (Guizot) for a constitutional monarchy are formed. After the "hundred days" the second restoration of 1815 takes place: the "white terror" against Jacobins and Bonapartists is made; the ultraroyalist "Chambre introuvable" is elected (dissolved 1816); the officials are purged (70,000 imprisoned); the generals of Napoleon (among them Marshal Ney, a commander-in-chief of the Russian campaign) are executed. The king tries to make equilibrium between revolution and restoration and is supported by the moderate Royalists. The cabinets of Richelieu (1815) and Decazes (1818) reach the retreat of occupants and the political return into the concert of great powers at the congress of Aachen (1818). 1820 after the murder of Duke de Berry (son of Charles X) the reaction becomes sharper: the election right is revised (double voices for the high-taxed strengthen the Ultras). After the Italian example the liberal opposition organizes into the secret unions of Charbonnerie (La Fayette); the movement of Bonapartists is supported with songs (Béranger) and the veterans' cult around Napoleon (died 1821). To distract from the inside problems, the intervention into Spain is made 1823 according to the initiative of foreign minister Chateaubriand (1768-1848), the French Romantician and restoration politician in the spirit of Holy Alliance.

Charles X (1757-1836, ruled 1824-1830), the brother of Louis XVIII, rules together with church and the Ultras (cabinet of Villèle, 1821-28). The sacrilege and press laws, the church control of schools, the return of Jesuits, dissolution of the national guard and the approvement of "billions of emigrants" for their compensation (3% was paid every year) awake the opposition. After 1828 the liberal chamber majority. The turn from the moderate cabinet of Martinac to the reactionary cabinet of Polignac (from 1829) causes the state crisis despite the conquest of Algeria 1830. The "July ordonnances" (dissolution of chamber, press censure, change in the election right) lead to the July revolution of 1830, prepared by the historian and editor of "National" Adolphe Thiers (1797-1877) and financed by Rothschild. After the barricade fighting in Paris Charles X abdicates and flees to England.

In the whole, the period of restauration lasts in France not so much time as in England. 1814 corresponds to 1660, but 1830 already to 1689 (with a retardation of ca. 140 years). It is a period of reaction, but the constitutional monarchy favors the national bourgeoisie. A full return to absolutism was already not possible.

4. Germany in 1815-1830.

Frederick Wilhelm III (1797-1840) supports the positions of the Holy Alliance. "Demagogues" are persecuted, Stein, Gneisenau, Schleiermacher are suspect. The land self-government is not brought into the life; the liberation of peasants is postponed. The restoration policy of the parliament and of thirty-five princes makes secure a period of the outside calmness (a Biedermeier time). The nobles, the conservative officials and the bourgeoisie refute the liberal ideas. 1815 the German Burschenschaft (comerode society) in Jena as reaction for the "System of Metternich" (under the imperial colors "Black-Red-Gold" and the motto "Honor, Freedom, Fatherland"). Through the regulation edict of 1816 for the compensation of landowners a new landownership, but also hired workers, therefore the land

escape and emigration is strengthened. 1817 the Lutheran and Reformed churches are united. In the same year the Wartburg festival, celebrated to the honor of the reformation and of the Leipzig battle, ends with the burning of the union act, the “reactionary” writings and symbols. The ware exchange demands the new tax and toll law of Maassen (1818); the frontier tolls and the consumption taxes are introduced. For the abolishment of thirty-eight German toll systems the Swab Frederick List (1789-1846) founds the union of trade and crafts. The radical groups (Karl Follen) strive for action. The student K.L.Sand is executed after the murder of poet Kotzebue, the supposed agent of Czar. Caused by Metternich, a minister conference reacts with the Karlsbad decisions of 1819 : organization of the central executive commission in Mainz; prohibition of the Burschenschaft; persecution of the “demagogues”; censorship of press and universities. These decisions become a part of the Vienna conclusion acts of 1820 and therefore of the Union constitution. The national movement is suppressed with the measures of policy state. Former princes of Rhine union give the constitutions according to the French example (the monarchic principle, people’s representation in two chambers) : Nassau 1814; Saxony-Weimar 1816; Bavaria, Baden 1818; Württemberg 1819; Hessen-Darmstadt 1820. 1828 the limited toll union (among them of Bavaria and Württemberg) are organized against the opposition of Metternich.

In the whole, Germany is disintegrated in this period. The nationalism become acute and disturbs the situation in the German union.

The period is characterized with the influence of the French revolution in all spheres of life. Despite Restoration, the capitalist relations and personal liberties are introduced in the West Europe. The old aristocracy is still alive, but it has to make compromise with the new bourgeoisie.

Questions:

1. Describe the French revolution.
2. What was the significance of Napoleon wars for Europe?
3. Describe the period of Restoration.
4. What were the main cultural achievements of the period?

19. Russia in 1790-1830.

18 (4) period – 1796-1825 (ca. 1790-1820).

Period of rule of Paul I (1796-1801) and Alexander I (1801-1825). The son of Catherine II Paul I hated his mother and after her death tried to do everything in other way. Not all his initiatives were bad (1797 he limited the agricultural work of serfs with three days a week, returned Radishchev from exile etc.), but his autocracy and pro-Prussian course caused hatred of nobility. In the foreign policy Russia had to confront with the expansion of French revolution (attempt of “export of revolution” was later repeated by Bolsheviks and modern western “fighters for the human rights”, but it always ended with fiasco), headed already by Thermidorians (from 1794), and from 1799 – by Napoleon. Paul himself became the grandmaster of Maltian order. To help the allies Italian and Swiss campaigns of Russian army under the command of Suvorov (1799) were made; they were heroic, but did not brought success; but fleet under Ushakov took Korfu in the same year. Then Paul began to support Napoleon in his fight with England, which brought the conspiracy of 1801, in result of which his son Alexander came to power.

Alexander I promised to rule in the spirit of his grandmother Catherine II. In the first years the important reforms of administration were made (colleges were succeeded with ministries, the State council was created) and education (five new universities were opened, among them Charkov 1802 and St.-Petersburg in 1819, the net of gymnasiums and schools was created). But whether abolishment of serfdom nor introduction of constitution did not take place, and reformed, headed by Speransky, were fired 1811. This was determined also with the opposition of conservators, whose opinion was expressed by Karamzin in “Notice about old and new Russia”. The population of Russia grew from 37 mln. in 1801 to 53 mln. in 1825, among them only 9% lived in the towns.

In the first part of his rule the utmost attention was given to the foreign policy. Participation of Russia in the wars with Napoleon in Europe (1805-1807) was unsuccessful. Napoleon defeated Prussia and Austria, abolishing the Holy Roman Empire and creating the Bavarian kingdom (1808). One had to conclude the peace of Tilsit (1807) and divide the spheres of influence between Russia and France (i.e. Europe). According to this treaty, Russia has got the freedom of hands, 1807 Bialystok, 1809 Tarnopol was taken, in the result of war with Sweden (1808-1809), according to the peace of Fredrikshamn, Finland was conquered (a part of which entered already into the Novgorod republic), war with Turkey (1806-12) – Bessarabia, war with Iran (1804-13) – Azerbaijan and remaining part of Georgia. 1824 the Northern Kazakhstan was included. In such a way Russia Empire extended both in European and in Asiatic direction. In Finland, which population had about 0,8 mln. people, the land parliament in Borga (1809) took place. The autonomous counties under Russian supremacy confirm the Finnish laws of 1772/89. The senate (government) is elected under cooperation of land parliament; Czar is represented through a general governor; committee to report the Finnish circumstances to the Czar is created. But the peace with Napoleon was only a ceasefire, 1812 the Patriotic war began, which ended with the defeat of Napoleon, who, as later Hitler, undervaluated Russia. Famous generals were Kutuzov and Barclay de Tolli. After the Vienna congress of 1815, which confirmed the new European security system, Russia has got a part of Poland with Warsaw. It was a maximal movement of Russia to Europe, Finland and Poland has got an autonomy. Russia became a member of the “Holy Union” and the “gendarme” of Europe in the next forty years. The country extended now from Poland to Alaska and has got the greatest extension in its history. Period of the maximal might and flourishing of Russia.

In the inside policy after the war the transition to more cruel way came (policy of minister Arakcheev, military settlements), which brought the indignation not only of peasants, but also of a part of nobility, who tried to make Russia republic or constitutional monarchy. The revolution in Europe and Latin America also influenced it. But Russia, which studially was 170 years behind the West, there were no conditions for the bourgeois revolution, therefore the revolutionary societies (“Union of saving”, “Union of prosperity”, “Northern” and “Southern” societies) were doomed to failure, as well as the revolt of Semenovski

regiment 1820. The revolt of “dekabristy” 1825 in Russia was also not successful (corresponding to the Fronde of the middle of the 17th century in France).

Epoch of flourishing of Russian culture. Sentimentalism (which was represented first of all by Karamzin, who in fact created the Russian literary language) is succeeded with Romanticism (Batyushkov, Zhukovsky, early Pushkin, Griboedov, fable-teller Krylov). For the 4th period the beginning of thinking over history is typical, which is testified with “History of Russian state” of Karamzin. For Romantics the interest to folklore is typical, the vocabulary of Dal begins to be created, later – the collection of Russian folk-tales of Afanasyev. The literature in the colloquial Ukrainian language (“Small Russian dialect”) begins to be developed, written by the landlords – descendants of Cossacs. 1798 the “Aeneis” of Kotlyarevski is published, he also writes dramatic works. Stories are written by Kvitka-Osnovyanenko and Grebinka, fables – by Glibov and Gulak-Artemovsky. Famous architects were Voronikhin, Zakharov and Rossi, sculptors – Orlovsky and Martos, painter – Bryullov. The achievements of Russian travelers were famous too – seamen Krusenstern and Lisianski made journey around the world 1803-1806; Bellingshausen and Lazarev discovered Antartidis 1819-21. Golovnin also made the world journeys (1807-1809), describing them in the books. In the religious sphere there is a lot of new. 1800 Metropolitan Platon could unite a part of the Old Believers with the Orthodox (so called “edinovercy”). Under Alexander in Russia masons (1810-22) and other mystical streams intrude, the first Russian translation of Bible is made, the Biblical society is created 1813, but already 1824 it is closed and the persecutions of sectarians begin. Russian Church music was created by Bortnyansky (1751-1825), influenced by Italian composers.

Questions:

1. What are the main events of the Russian history in this period?

20. Jews in 1790-1830.

A. Jews of West Europe.

1790, January 28: The decree according active civil rights to “Spanish”, “Portuguese” and “Avignonese” Jews in France.

1791, September 27: Emancipation decreed by the National Assembly for all Jews in France, including Alsace and Lorraine.

1792: the accession of Franz II marks a deterioration in the situation of the Jews in the empire; the emperor attempts to “modernize” his Jewish subjects, demanding that they abandon their “superstitions” and “vain rabbinic argumentation”. Nevertheless, the edict of toleration remains in force and the Jews contribute to the economic prosperity of Austria (Solomon de Rothschild, for example, builds the first railroad in Austria), while others enter the world of journalism, literature and the arts.

1796, September 9: The National Assembly of the Batavian Republic accords equal rights to the Jews of the Netherlands; the same step will be taken in Italy, Belgium and German states.

1796: Bonaparte’s Italian army puts an end to the Age of the Ghetto and proclaims the emancipation of Italian army.

1804-1807: In Germany the Reform movement introduces organ music and professional choir singing to the synagogue service.

1806, October 6: The Assembly of Jewish Notables is required to answer twelve questions, intended to inform the authorities about the nature of Judaism and to test the knowledge of French among the Jews.

1807, February-March: The “Grand Sanhedrin” meets in Paris, presided by David Sintzheim of Strasbourg; it was convened by Napoleon in order to codify the decisions of the Assembly of Notables.

1808, March 17: Establishment of the Central Consistory of French Jews. The consistorial system imposed by Napoleon on the Jews of France represented a step backward in revolutionary ideals; the decret infâme, determining Jewish activities, was not renewed after the expiry of its ten-year time limit.

1812: Founding of the Parisian branch of the Rothschilds Frères firm. The French Rothschilds were engaged, among other things, in railroad construction (Chemin de Fer du Nord); two of them would become regents of the Banque de France. In the same year Mayer Anshel, the first of the “great” Rothschilds (1743-1812), dies.

1812, March 11: The Prussian decree of emancipation accords to the Jews civil rights, but excludes them from government service; similar to the formulation of Jewish emancipation in Baden (1809), this decree remained one of the most liberal texts in Germany till 1848.

1813: Appearance of “Queen Mab” by Percy Bysshe Shelley: the Wandering Jew as a rebel against a tyrannical deity.

1814, March 29: The King of Denmark authorizes the Jews in his kingdom to engage in all professions.

1815: At the congress of Vienna a delegation of Jews demands, but fails to attain, the equal rights from the Emperor. Congress of Vienna permits the abolition of emancipation laws in the German states. Approximately 14,000 Jewish families reside in Bohemia and Moravia, mostly in Prague.

1818, October 18: The dedication of the Hamburg Temple – a synagogue of the Reform movement – marks the beginning of the open conflict with Orthodox Jewry.

1819, August: To the rallying cry “hep! hep!” (derived from the initials of ‘Hierosolyma est perdita’) anti-Jewish riots break out in Würzburg, quickly spreading to neighboring states. The riots expressed the anger of many Germans at the improvement in the situation of the Jews.

1819: Joseph Perl, a Galician maskil (an adherent of Haskalah), publishes a fierce anti-Hasidic pamphlet in Vienna aimed at alerting the Austrian authorities to the antigovernment attitudes of the Hasidim.

1819: A group of seven students (among them Leopold Zunz and Eduard Gans, promoters of modern Jewish historiography) found a Society for the Culture and Science of the Jews in Berlin; their idea is to improve the image of Judaism in the eyes of both Jews and Gentiles by way of scholarship.

1823: Quinet’s “Ahasuerus”. Beranger’s “Lament of the Wandering Jew”, later to be put to music by Gounod.

1825: Henrich Heine (1797-1856) is baptized as a Lutheran.

B. Jews of Eastern Europe.

1796-1801: Bitter polemics between Hasidim and Mitnaggedim takes place in Lithuania; denounced by the “Opponents”, Shneur Zalman is imprisoned twice in St. Petersburg.

1797: Elijah of Vilna (the “Gaon of Vilna”), the greatest opponent of the Hasidic movement, dies.

1799: The voyage of Rabbi Nahman, greatgrandson of Ba’al Shem Tov, to Palestine; in 1802 he settles in Bratslav where he founds a new Hasidic trend.

1804: The first “Jewish statute”: Russian Jews are permitted to enter learning institutions of all levels.

1815: “The praises of the Ba’al Shem Tov” appears in Kopyts, Belorussia – it is a collection of stories recounting the deeds of the founder of Hasidism and his disciples; death of Jacob Isaac, the “Seer of Lublin”.

1821: Death of Rabbi Hayyim, founder of the yeshivah in Volozhin which was established to serve as a barrier against the spread of Hasidism.

1823: The authorities in Congress Poland conduct an inquiry into the Hasidic movement which is suspected of working against the state and society.

1827: in Russia Jews are forcibly conscripted into the army under the Cantonist system; those aged under 18 are sent to military schools; children are delivered to the authorities by the community or “snatched” by special agents. Military and Christian education are some of the measures adopted by Nicolas I to solve the “Jewish Question”.

C. Jews of the Near East.

1805: The “Black Sabbath” in Algiers: hundreds of Jews are killed by Yeniceri who also assassinate Naphtai Busnach, the Jewish counselor of the Dey.

Ca. 1805 Yahya Salih (Maharis), one of the greatest rabbinic authorities and religious leaders in Yemen, president of the bet din (religious court), and author of the book of response “Pe’ullat Zaddik”, dies.

1807: The Sultan of Morocco, Mulay Suleiman, orders Jews out of the city centers and instructs them to settle in special quarters – the mellahs.

1808: a first group of Lithuanian scholars settles in Palestine and establishes a yeshivah in Safed following the doctrines of the “Gaon of Vilna”.

1823: The “hats affair” in Tunisia: a Jewish-British subject is arrested for wearing a European hat rather than the special headgear reserved for the Jews. The English react sharply; the man is released and henceforth all foreign nationals are exempted from this law.

In the whole, the situation of the West European Jews becomes better under the influence of the French revolution, but it becomes worse after the Vienna congress of 1815. In the East Europe the situation of Jews becomes better too. In difference to it, in the Islamic countries it grows worse. The main conflict in the Jewish culture is between the Enlightenment (Haskalah) and the mystics (Hasids).

Questions:

1. Describe the situation of Jews in the Western Europe.
2. What was the situation of Jews in the Eastern Europe?
3. Describe the problems of the Near Eastern Jews.

21. Islamic world in 1790-1830.

A. The Ottoman Empire in 1790-1830.

Under Selim III (1789-1807), a son of Mustafa III, the thoughts of Enlightenment reach Bosphorus, when only in the narrow circle of the court. The Ottoman embassies make connection with the European courts; through the edict "Nizam-I Cedid" ("a new rule") the army is reformed with the help of French military forces. But the palace intrigues and the revolt of yeniceri causes the dethronement of Sultan. 1797-99 the revolt of "valley princes" under the leadership of Pazvandodjlu Osman Aga, directed against the reform, disturbs the country. 1798 the French expedition army under Napoleon Bonaparte defeats the Mamlukes near the pyramids. In the next year the Ottoman Empire concludes a defensive union with the Great Britain and sends an army under Muhammad Ali to Egypt, which is evacuated by Frenchmen after their defeat 1801. The spoiled booty (among it Rosetta stone, deciphered 1820 by Champolion) was described, which made begin to the European Egyptology. In Egypt itself different groups fight for power: the Ottoman governor, the Mamlukes and a commendant of a Albanian troop unity, Muhammad Ali (1801-1805). Finally he wins and recognized as a governor (1805-1848). 1799 Russians and the Ottomans make protectorate over the Ionian Isles, which earlier belonged to Venice. The Serbs, who has got some liberties under the Russian pressure, make revolt against the despotism of yenicheri and the exploitation of the Ottoman governors under the leadership of George Petrovich, called Black George, 1804-1806 and put under their control Belgrad and the big parts of Serbia. An own political order from senate and scupshchina (parlament) appears. 1806 the Russian-friendly governors of two Danube principedoms were dismissed, which caused the Russian-Turkish war. 1807 the Frenchmen occupy the Ionian Isles. 1801 the Wahhabites devastate the shrine in Kerbela and murder 2,000 men.

Mahmud II (1808-1839), a son of Abdulhamid I, becomes a new sultan after the throne struggle. Reforms are initiated anew; army is reformed through the creation of Sekban-I Cedid troops ("New dog waiters") 1808. The semi-autonome vasals (ayan) are integrated into the state system. But 1812 they are liquidated (partly with weapon) together with "valley princes"; in the provinces the governors are put again, therefore the feudal anarchy comes to the end. 1812 according to the peace of Bukarest Russia has got Bessarabia and Serbia has got an own judgement. 1816 Mirza Muhammad Achbari, the last important Achbari, is murdered by enemies at the shrine of Kazimain. 1815-1817 the second revolt under Milosh Obrenovich (1780-1860), who was elected to the supreme ruler (knez) 1815, takes place. 1817 he is recognized by the Porta as a ruler with the limited autonomy in the pashalik Belgrad. 1818 the serfdom in the Empire is abolished, 1821 the yenicheri lost their power. 1821 the Russian general of Phanariotes origin Alexander Ypsilanti (1792-1828) begins a revolt in Yassy (Moldavia) 1821; he has a conflict with the native leader of revolt in Rumania Tudor Vladimirescu, who comes into his hands and is executed. But Ypsilanti is defeated at Dragazhan, surrenders in Transilvania to the Habsburg officials and is imprisoned in Vienna till his death 1828. 1828-1834 the Danube principedoms are under the Russian occupation. 1829 according to the peace of Edirne (Adrianople) Russia has to return its conquered territories on Balkans. All privileges in the principedoms are warranted. The supremacy of Porta is reduced to the tribute duty and the approvement of the prince election. 1830 Milosh gets the hereditary principedom, Serbia has only to pay tribute to the Ottomans and gives to them some frontier fortresses.

In Egypt 1811, after the liquidation of Mamlukes, Muhammad Ali begins the reform of army and administration according to the French example; he confiscates the big land possessions and foundation lands, imports European machines, founds education centers for medicine,

engineer sciences and chemistry and builds military and fleet academies. 1821 in Cairo-Bulag the first Egyptian state typography is opened, 1828 an edition of Egyptian government appears as the first Arabic newspaper. From 1811 Muhammad Ali makes many campaigns together with his sons Tusun and Ibrahim. 1816-18 he removes the power of Wahhabites (conquest of Dariya), Hijaz becomes dependent. 1820-22 the East Sudan is conquered; 1823 Khartum is founded. 1824-27 Muhammad Ali as a general of Sultan intrudes into the Greek fight for freedom; his son Ibrahim acts on Peloponnes, Crete is occupied, the acropolis of Athens has to capitulate 1827. But in the same year the Egyptian-Ottoman fleet is defeated by the united British-French-Russian fleet at Navarino. 1830 the Muhammad-Ali – mosque (Alabaster-mosque) in Cairo is begun.

1814 in Odessa the secret union of the Greek intellectuals “hetairia of philikoi” under Prince Ypsilanti is founded, where the revolt plans were made. Another union is founded in Athens under Count Kapodistrias. Supported by the Greek merchants in Constantinople (Phanariotai) and the Orthodox church, the meetings at the mainland (Clephtai, Mainotai) and the Aegeis Isles (Hydriotai). March 1821 the Greek liberation fight begins; Peloponnes is conquered till the end of the year. Accused of entertaining cordial relations with the Turkish oppressor, the Jewish communities are subjected to persecutions; the massacre in the Peloponnesus claims 5,000 victims; many Jews flee to Corfu. 1822 Ali Pasha, the governor of Epirus and supporter of the revolt, is murdered. The Greek national congress in Epidaurus proclaims the independence 1822. In Europe the philhellenic mood is built (Louis I of Bavaria, Chateaubriand, Jean Paul, Hölderlin), the European intellectuals (like Lord Byron) fight at the Greek side, collecting in Genua. The revenge actions (the Turkish attack at Chios) cannot suppress the revolt. 1824 the Egyptian fleet of Muhammad Ali invades. 1826 Missolunghi falls after the stubborn residence. The German chancellor Metternich condemns the insurrection as a revolutionary one, Czar Nicolas I favors the Greek revolt because of the Orthodox relationship, enmity to Turks and the political interests (Sea straits). 1827, according to the London treaty, UK, France and Russia plead for the Greek autonomy. Only after the retreat of the Egyptians under the pressure of England and the landing of the French troops 1828 the liberty fight has success. Count Capodistrias is elected to the regent and builds the Greek administration from Nauplia. A French additional corps liberates Morea. UK sees the Russian-Turkish war with the misbelief. 1829 the Greek proclaimed their independence; according to the peace of Adrianople through the Prussian mediumship, Russia gets the Danube estuary and protectorate over Greece. In the next year the Porta recognizes its exclusion from the Ottoman state union at the London conference. Initially the state consists only from Peloponnes, Attica and Boiotia. After almost four hundred years (when Russia was the only Orthodox state) the Greek Orthodox state is restored.

1818 a revolt of two tribal confederations – Hashed and Bekhil – against the power of the imam devastates the Jewish quarter in San’a. The incursion of the Wahhabites of Arabia leads to Ottoman intervention. End of the Qasimite Dynasty.

In the whole, the Ottoman Empire tries to make different reforms. In the same time the influence of the Western countries becomes stronger, Greece gets independence, Egypt, Serbia and the Danube princedoms – autonomy. But the empire still continues to exist.

B. Iran and Central Asia in 1790-1830.

Aga Muhammad Khan, the leader of Turkmen Qajar tribe to the south of the Caspian Sea, overthrows the Zand in Shiraz and Kerman and founds the dynasty of Qajar 1794 (till 1924). After the conquest of Azerbaijan, Armenia, Georgia and Khorasan he takes a title of the great king (shahanshah).

Fath Ali Shah (1797-1834), a nephew of Aga Muhammad, is a convinced Shiite and favors the shrines of Qum and Meshhed. But the Shiite clergy is reserved to the Qajars, because they are usurpers and do not descend from Imams. Ca. 1797 the Jewish community of Tabriz is destroyed. 1822 the sect of Shaihiya of Shaih Ahmad ibn Zainaddin Ahsai (1754-1826) is condemned by the Shiite clergymen (mujtahidin). It came from the Shiite movement of mujtahidin (leading ulama of 12 Shia), who lived in Kerbela, Kazimain and Samarra in exile as the critics of the Persian Shah. It had a faith into the connecting man to the hidden 12th Imam. Under the successor of Ahmad Saiyid Kasim Rashti (died 1843/44) it strengthens in Kerbela.

In his foreign policy Fath Ali Shah makes treaties with Russia (Caucasus), UK (India and Afghanistan) and France (the embassy of Napoleon). 1800 he concludes a treaty with the East India Company against Afghanistan and France; 1801 – a union and a trade treaty with the UK. In the time of the war with Russia in Caucasus (1804-1813) he makes pact with France against Russia and UK; the Persian army is reformed by a French general. 1809 Shah concludes an “eternal union treaty” with UK; with British pressure he concludes with UK a peace of Gulistan: Georgia must be given to Russia, the “uneven treaties” with unusual privileges and concessions to Russia. 1814 a new treatise with UK strengthens the British influence in Persia. 1826-28 a further war with Russia and Persia takes place; according to the peace of Turkkomanchai (1828) the regions to the north North of Arax (Erivan and Nakhichevan) are lost. Russian representatives in Persia have exterritoriality, but in 1829 the Russia ambassador and writer Griboedov is murdered in Persia.

1802 the German scholar Grotefend deciphered the Old Persian part of the cuneiform inscription of Behistun, beginning the decipherment of the cuneiform texts.

Timur (1803-25), a son of Durrani (1742-72), restores the territorial unity of Afghanistan and resides in Kabul. After his death the state is in anarchy (1826-39); the last ruler of the Durrani dynasty rules in Herat till 1829. 1818 and 1834 UK takes over the Afghanian possession in the Indus valley.

In Kazakhstan 1822 the Small Horde and 1824 the Middle Horde are abolished. They are integrated in Russian Empire. Some forts are built in the steppe regions, who make new defence lines. The new regions are ruled by military governors, who are subordinated to a General governor.

In the whole, Iran comes under the Western influence and loses territories, Afghanistan is disintegrated, Kazakhstan becomes a part of Russia.

In the whole, the Islam countries of the Near in Middle East are more and more influenced by the West and lose its significance, as well as some territories.

Questions:

1. Describe the development of the Ottoman Empire in this time.

2. What is new in the history of Iran and Central Asia in this time?

22. Africa in 1790-1830.

In North Africa the new orders appear. Tijaniya, a branch of Chalwatiya, is founded by Ahmad at-Tijani (1737-1815) in Fes; propagated in Alger, Morocco, Sudan, but for all in West Africa (Timbuktu) by Hajji Omar Tall (1797-1864). Indrisiya is founded by a Moroccan Ahmad ibn Idris (1760-1837), who was influenced by Chalwatiya in Cairo 1798 and became a Shaikh in Mecca 1818. The order is propagated in the Islamic Africa and in the Western Arabia. One must follow the way, shown by the Prophet, strictly, therefore the order is called "a Muhammad's order". Darqawiya is founded by al-Darqawi (1760-1823), a mystical reformer in Fes, with influence upon Sanusiya. The brotherhood initiates revolts of the Kabyl peasants against taxes and the despotism of deys in the Western Alger. At the end of the XVIIIth century in the West Africa the tribes of Fulbe became important again and tried to unite some small states of the Western and Central Sudan till the Chad Lake. Osman dan Fodio (1754-1817) and Hajji Omar try to unite the tribes through religion, but there are fights between Muslim orders. They conquer the city-states of Hausa till Bornu and Kanem. By Osman dan Fodio the big Khaliphate of Socoto is created, which existed almost the whole XIXth century with the strong centralized power and the well-organized tax system. Fulbe were privileged minority, the Hausa majority had to be subordinated to them. 1820 Muhammad Ali invades till Kordofan and Funj, which were weakened from the inside fight. 1790 Scottish traveler James Bruce publishes in Edinburgh his "Travels to Discover the Sources of the Nile", from which the West learns for the first time of the Falasha's existence. In Ethiopia in this time 16 emperors rule, the most famous of them was **Egwale Seyon** (died 12 June 1818) or **Gwalu** (throne name **Newaya Sagad**; June 1801 – 12 June 1818) of [Ethiopia](#), a member of the [Solomonic dynasty](#). He was the son of [Hezqeyas](#).

According to [Henry Salt](#), after a period when the Imperial throne was held by a number of different appointees due to "to the preponderance of the different provinces", [Rasses Wolde Selassie](#) of [Tigray](#) and [Gugsa](#) of [Yeju](#), and chief of the [Oromo](#), brought this rapid succession to an end by making Egwale Seyon Emperor. He then married Walatta Iyasus, the sister of Ras Gugsa, and they had five children. When Salt visited [Ras Wolde Selassie](#) at his palace in [Chalacot](#) in 1809/1810, the Emperor's brother, [Kenyazmach](#) Iyasu, was also a guest of the Ras.

The writer of *The Royal chronicle of Abyssinia* notes that, after one brief campaign into [Wegera](#) with Ras Gugsa at the beginning of his reign, which was notable for Egwale Seyon's meeting with his father Hezqeyas, he never left [Gondar](#). The chronicler later laments:

Nothing took place in the habitations, since nothing was done good or bad, no appointments and no dismissals; for there was an authority over the Negus in the hands of a [Galla](#), who was called *Dajazmach* Gugsa.

From 1803 on, his reign was marked by constant civil war. Most of the battles were part of a three-sided struggle between Ras Gugsa, [Ras Zewde](#) of [Gojjam](#), and Wolde Selassie. Egwale Seyon was also twice attacked at [Gondar](#) (1804 and 1808) by the disgraced [Balambaras Asserat](#), who was supported by armies of the Oromo who lived south of the [Abay River](#). According to the *Royal chronicle*, Asserat died after [Easter](#), 1806. Following the death of [Abuna Yosab III](#) in 1803, Ras Gugsa plundered the episcopal properties, but Ras Zewde forced him to return a part of what his men had stolen. A little more than five years later, Ras Zewde attempted to depose Egwale Seyon and replace him with the former Emperor [Tekle Giyorgis](#), but on February 24, 1809 Ras Gugsa arrived and Ras Zewde's army refused to fight; Ras Zewde escaped on foot, and returned to his village.

Salt notes that throughout the turmoil of his reign, Egwale Seyon lived "neglected at Gondar, with a very small retinue of servants, and an income by no means adequate to

the support of his dignity; so that, as he possesses neither wealth, power, nor influence in the state; royalty may be considered, for a time, almost eclipsed in the country." Nathaniel Pearce commented, following the Emperor's death, that Egwale Seyon "was always very sickly and of a weak constitution". Despite his political impotence, one tangible accomplishment of Egwale Seyon's reign was his benefaction of [Debre Berhan Selassie Church](#), known for its impressive collection of paintings; his patronage is proved by his numerous portraits in that church.

In the begin of the XIX century in Guinea the confederation of Ashanti exercised the fierced resistance to the UK, which tried to establish its domination at the low stream of Volta and Niger. 1787 the British buy a region at the West coast of Africa to give the new home to the freed and fled slaves and settle 400 freed slaves there – it is called Sierra Leone. 1795 Capetown, founded by the Dutch, becomes British. The native Hottentotes and Bushmen were extinguishing. Ca. 1800 about 15,000 Europeans live in the Cape colony, which was used as a transitional stop for ships at the long voyage to the East India. The colony, with its pleasant climat and the fruitful ground, was attractive also for the French Huguenottes. 1807 the UK and 1808 the USA prohibit the import of slaves from Africa, but the use of slaves was allowed in the British colonies till 1833. 1814 the Dutch give they colony to the Englishmen. 1816 the America colonization society begins the “Liberia project” and creates a homeland for the liberated slaves. In the begin of the XIXth century in the Natal province (the south-east coast) the Zulu state was created. Its chieftains, especially famous Chaka (1818-1828), could create the mighty army and conquer the lands of neighboring Bantu, many of them emigrated to the east.

In the whole, Africa comes under the Western influence more and more.

Question:

1. Describe the history of Africa in this period.
2. What can one say about the Ethiopian history in this time?

23. India and neighbor countries in 1790-1830.

General-governor Lord Richard Wellesley (1798-1805) extends the region of company. 1796 the first synagogue of Bene Israel in Bombay (Sha'ar-ha-Rahamim "Gate of Mercy") is established. 1798 Hyderabad is brought under the English control, the sultans of Mysore are subjugated in four wars till 1799, when the last battle of Tippu Sahib, Sultan of Mysore, against the British who consolidate their rule over southern India, takes place. Karnatak is annexed 1801. The Marathi union is destroyed because of the inside fights. In the second Marathi war (1803-1805) the Indian east coast is conquered. 1803 Delhi and Agra are conquered. The military state of Sikhs is extended under Ranjit Singh (1799-1839). 1809, according to the treaty of Amritsar, the Sutlej River builds a frontier with the British India. 1810 the American Mission society is founded in Bombay and opens a school in the Marathi language for Bene Israel. In Nepal the Gurkha war (1814-1816) ends with the treaty of Sagauli, according to which Nepal becomes a protectorate of England, which can hire the Gurkha warriors (Indian elite troops). The way from London to India is secured through the possession of Ceylon (1795-1815). In the central India the civil wars, plunderers, Afghanian hordes cause the intruding of England. 1817-18 the 3rd Marathi war (1817-18) ends with the subjugation of Marathi and Rajput states. 1820: David Ezra of Aleppo settles in Calcutta, India, where he becomes a leading opium trader; the drug was purchased in China and sold in Europe. During the 1820s the Sassoon family from Basra in Iraq settles in Bombay where, in association with several other Iraqi and Iranian Jews, they become the chief suppliers of indigo to Great Britain.

The Burmanian attacks to Bengaly (1813) and Assam (1822) cause the 1st Burma war (1824-1826) with the British landing in Rangun. According to the treaty of Yandabo, Tenasserim, Arakan and Assam fall to the British India. The different form of dependence of different regions is typical for the British power. The Englishmen take only the most fruitful regions under their control, the other ones are given to the Indian princes without heritage, with whom they conclude treaties, according to which the last ones get a limited autonomy. The British government gives the rule and tax collection to the company, therefore it has no direct responsibility. The Englishmen explore the country (building railways, irrigation works and havens). The British industry wares destroy the autarkic village economy and the Indian cotton production. Unemployment and overpopulation grow. Big jute, tea and indigo plantations with the British capital are created.

As reaction to the British conquest the Hindu and Muslim fanaticism grows, as well as the syncretistic movements. Râm Mohan Rây (1772-1833) teaches the Brahma Samaj (1828), combining Indian and Christian religion. The Krishnaite sect of Svaminarayanis is founded by the Brahman Sahajânand (1780-1830). The Muslim order of Mujahidin (fighters for faith) is founded by Sayid Ahmad of Ray Bareilly (1786-1831); it demands the succession of Muhammad, therefore it is called s tariqa muhammadiya (an order of Muhammad), like Idrisiya. It fights against the influence of Hinduism upon Islam, therefore a "hijra", imitating the Prophet, from the "heathen" India to the North-West India to create there an Islamic ideal state. 1827-31 the holy war against the Sikhs and the British troops takes place. 1831 Sayid falls in fight against the Sikhs at Balakot (near Peshawar) and is venerated as shahid (martyr); the order is moved to Patna. The order of Faraidiya is founded by Haji Shariatullah (1781-1840), who lives in East Bengaly after the twenty years stay in Mecca; it preaches the anti-Hinduism and the duty fulfillment according to Koran (faraid). The order is directed

mostly to the peasants. The famous mystic is Satchal Sarmast (1739-1826), the ecstatic mystic in Sind, who celebrates the all unity in five languages.

The literature in the new languages grows. In Hindi there are three big writers – Inshâ 'Allâh Khân (ca. 1800), Sadal Miśr (1773-1848), who writes the story of Naciketas in his “Candrâvatî” (1798) and Lallûjî Lâl, who writes also in Braj and Urdu. Mîr Taqî, who lived in Delhi and died in Lucknow 1810, writes poems in Urdu. 1812 a first typography was created by a Parsee Fardunjî Marzban, who founded the newspapers “Mumbainâ Samâcâr” and Jame-Jameshed”. In Gujarâtî Dhîrâ (1753-1825), the Marath Bâpu Sâheb Gaikvâr (1779-1843) and Bhojâ (1785-1850) write. In Marathi Râmjośî from Śolapur (1762-1812) and Anant Phandî (1774-1819), who prizes the last Peśvâ Baji Rao II (dethroned 1818), write. 1818-1827 only three books in Marathi were published (all about mathematics). In Bengaly a row of poets work, who continue the traditions of Râmprasâd, and a prosa writers. College of Fort William in Calcultta (founded 1800) influences the Indian thinking. The missionaries of Serampore publish the Bible translations: 1801 – the translation of New Testament of W. Carey, 1813 – an Assam Bible translation was published as the first book in Assamese language.

In Thailand (Siam) the Chakri dynasty began to rule. Their representatives were Rama I (1782-1809), Rama II (1809-1824) and Rama III (1824-1851). The private property grew in this time.

1795 in Indonesia a principedom of Mataram becomes a part of the Dutch state. 1799 the Dutch East Indian company is dissolved; the Dutch colonial empire appears. 1819 Singapore becomes British. 1824 the Netherlands and the UK agree about the influence spheres in the west of archipelago: the Malacca peninsula is given to the Englishmen; Sumatra, for all Atjeh, - the Dutch. In Java 1825-30 the war in Mataram against the colonial power and the progressing restriction of power of native Sultans under the leadership of prince of Jogjakarta Dipo Negro.

1788 in Australia at the Botany Bay a deportation colony was founded, but already in the next year it was transferred to Port Jackson, where the city of Sidney was built. 1802 a colony of criminals was founded at Tasmania; in the following years one transported more and more men and women criminals there. The free population, which consisted partly from the officials, partly from the homeless from London, as well as from the liberated criminals, did not want to be kept together with the criminals, but wandered from the New South Wales 1829 and founded a new colony at the west coast, which became the name “West Australia”. In the years 1820 till 1840 the English founded the new colonies of criminals in Queensland, which grew more and more. But the protest of free population against the import of criminals was so big, that the UK government had to cease with it.

In the whole, the big parts of India, Ceylon and the coastal parts of Burma are conquered by the British, Indonesia becomes a Dutch colony. In Australia a British colony was founded.

Questions:

1. Describe the main events of the British conquest of India.
2. What was an Indian culture in this time?

24. China and neighbor countries in 1790-1830.

A. China and neighbor countries in 1790-1830.

The **Jiaqing Emperor** (13 November 1760 – 2 September 1820) was the seventh [emperor](#) of the [Manchu](#)-led [Qing dynasty](#), and the fifth Qing emperor to rule over [China](#), from 1796 to 1820. He was the son of the [Qianlong Emperor](#). During his reign, he prosecuted [Heshen](#) (the corrupt favourite of Qianlong) and attempted to restore the state and curb the smuggling of [opium](#) inside China.

In October 1795, in the 60th year of his reign, Emperor Qianlong announced his intention to abdicate in favor of Prince Jia: he did not think it proper to rule longer than his grandfather, the late [Kangxi Emperor](#). Prince Jia acceded to the throne and proclaimed the [era name](#) of **Jiaqing** in February 1796. For the next three years however, Jiaqing ruled as Emperor in name only. Decisions were made by his father, the [Retired Emperor](#) Qianlong.

With the death of Qianlong at the beginning of February 1799, Jiaqing took control of the government and prosecuted Heshen. Heshen was charged with corruption and abuse of power. He was stripped of his titles and properties, and ordered to commit suicide. Heshen's daughter-in-law, Princess He Xiao, a sister of the new emperor, was spared from punishment and given a few properties from Heshen's estates.

Ca. 1800: the last rabbi of Kaifeng dies.

At the time the empire faced internal disorder, most importantly the large-scale [White Lotus](#) (1796–1804) and [Miao Rebellions](#) (1795–1806), the revolts in Yunnan (1818), as well as an empty treasury. Emperor Jiaqing engaged in the pacification of the empire and the quelling of rebellions. He endeavored to bring China back to its 18th-century prosperity and power. However, due in part to large outflows of [silver](#) from the country as payment for the opium smuggled into China from [British India](#), the economy declined.

Members of the Qing royal family (relatives of Jiaqing) tried to assassinate him twice - in 1803 and in 1813. The princes involved in the attempts on his life were executed. Other members of the imperial family, numbering in the hundreds, were exiled.

The "fundamental laws" of China include one section titled "Wizards, Witches, and all Superstitions, prohibited." The Jiaqing Emperor in 1814 A.D. added a sixth clause in this section with reference to Christianity. It was modified in 1821 and printed in 1826 by the [Daoguang Emperor](#). It sentenced Europeans to death for spreading Christianity among Han Chinese and Manchus (Tartars). Christians who would not repent their conversion were sent to Muslim cities in Xinjiang, to be given as slaves to Muslim leaders and [beys](#).

The **Daoguang Emperor** (16 September 1782 – 25 February 1850) was the eighth [emperor](#) of the [Manchu](#)-led [Qing dynasty](#) and the sixth Qing emperor to rule over [China](#), from 1820 to 1850.

He was the second son of Yongyan, who became the [Jiaqing Emperor](#) in 1796. His mother, the principal wife of Yongyan, was Lady Hitara of the (Manchu) Hitara clan, who became empress when Jiaqing ascended the throne in 1796. She is known posthumously as Empress Xiaoshu Rui.

Mianning was well liked by his grandfather the [Qianlong Emperor](#) and frequently accompanied the elderly emperor on hunting trips. On one such trip at the age of nine he successfully hunted a deer which greatly amused Qianlong. In 1813, while a prince, Mianning also played a vital role in repelling and killing [White Lotus](#) invaders

who stormed the Forbidden City. This action earned Mianning important merits in securing his claim for the throne.

In September 1820, at the age of 38, Mianning inherited the throne after his father the Jiaqing Emperor suddenly died of unknown causes. Now known as the Daoguang Emperor, he inherited a declining empire with Western imperialists encroaching upon the borders of China. During his reign, China experienced major problems with [opium](#), which was imported into China by British merchants. Opium had started to trickle into China during the reign of his great grandfather [Emperor Yongzheng](#) but was limited to approximately 200 chests annually. By the time of [Emperor Qianlong](#)'s reign, this amount had increased to 1000 chests, 4000 chests by Jiaqing's era and more than 30,000 chests during Daoguang's reign. He issued many [edicts](#) against [opium](#) in the 1820s and 1830s, which were carried out by Commissioner [Lin Zexu](#).

1826-1828 in the region of Kashgar in East Turkestan Uigurs revolted against the Chinese central government, which fought against their relative independence, but also against their Muslim religion. To the time Uigurs were mixed with the Chinese immigrants (often fled or punished) and the garrison troops from Manjus and Mongols.

In the whole, China begins to decay in this time. The inside revolts and the foreign intrusion weaken the country, but it continues to be independent.

In Korea **Sunjo** (1790-1834, reigned 1800-1834) was the 23rd king of the [Korean Joseon Dynasty](#). He was born [His Royal Highness Prince Yi Gong](#), the 2nd son of King [Jeongjo](#) by his concubine, Lady Subin. In 1800, He ascended to the throne upon the death of his father, [King Jeongjo](#), age at 11. [Queen Dowager Jeongsun](#), the second queen of [King Yeongjo](#), ruled as queen regent until 1803. In 1802, he married [Lady Kim](#) of [Andong](#) known posthumously as [Queen Sunwon](#), a daughter of [Kim Jo-sun](#) who was a leader of Andong Kim clan. At the eve of XVIII-XIXth centuries the crisis events in the economy appeared again, this time the towns suffered from them. In the first half of the XIXth century the new revolts of peasants and town-dwellers took place again.

In Vietnam **Nguyễn Huệ**, also known as **Emperor Quang Trung**, born in [Bình Định](#) in 1753, died in [Phú Xuân](#) on 16 September 1792, was the second emperor of the [Tây Sơn Dynasty](#) of [Vietnam](#), reigning from 1788 until 1792. He was also one of the most successful military commanders in Vietnam's history.

Nguyễn Huệ and his brothers, together known as the [Tây Sơn Brothers](#), were the leaders of the famous [Tây Sơn Rebellion](#). As rebels, they conquered Vietnam, overthrowing the imperial [Later Lê Dynasty](#) and the two rival feudal houses of the [Nguyễn](#) in the south and the [Trinh](#) in the north.

After several years of constant military campaigning and rule, Nguyễn Huệ died at the age of 40, possibly due to a [stroke](#). Prior to his death, he had made plans to continue his march southwards in order to destroy the army of [Nguyễn Ánh](#), a surviving heir of the [Nguyễn Lords](#). Nguyễn Huệ's death led to the downfall of the Tây Sơn Dynasty. His successors were unable to follow the plans he had made for ruling Vietnam. However, his conquests marked the beginning of approximately a century in which Vietnam was both unified and independent until the [Western conquest of Vietnam](#) in 1885.

[Emperor Qianlong](#) of the Great Qing Empire sent a massive army south with [Lê Chiêu Thống](#) (the last official Lê emperor) in 1788 to restore him to the throne, though under Chinese protection of course. Nguyễn Huệ gathered his forces around Thăng Long (today called Ha Noi) which had been taken by the Qing army. In a

brilliantly successful battle, Nguyễn Huệ made a surprise attack against the Chinese during [Tết](#), the Vietnamese lunar new year holiday. This was traditionally a time of peace for all sides and the Qing troops were unprepared for battle. In a fierce 5-day battle they were soundly and stunningly defeated and Lê Chiêu Thống was forced to flee for his life back to China. Yet, Nguyễn Huệ showed considerable gallantry to the defeated Chinese, allowing them to return home with honor and encouraging a peaceful relationship in keeping with previous arrangements, with the Qing Emperor. As for himself, Nguyễn Huệ had become the national saviour of Vietnam and the most popular figure in the country. He was subsequently proclaimed Emperor of Vietnam with the name Quang Trung.

Once in power, Emperor Quang Trung fast began instituting massive and unprecedented national reforms in Vietnam. He set up a new system of administration and replaced the traditional [Chinese script](#) with the Vietnamese [Chữ Nôm](#) as the official written language of the country. His religious toleration won him the support of the growing Christian community and his campaign of the common people against the traditional elites won him the admiration of the peasant majority.

Most cities in Vietnam, regardless of the political orientation of the government, have named major streets after him.

Emperor **Gia Long** (8 February 1762 – 3 February 1820), born **Nguyễn Phúc Ánh** (often referred to simply as **Nguyễn Ánh**), was an emperor of [Vietnam](#). Unifying what is now modern Vietnam in 1802, he founded the [Nguyễn Dynasty](#), the last of the [Vietnamese dynasties](#).

A nephew of the last [Nguyen Lord](#) who ruled over southern Vietnam, Nguyen Anh was forced into hiding in 1777 as a fifteen year old when his family was slain in the [Tay Son](#) revolt. After several changes of fortune in which his loyalists regained and again lost Saigon, he befriended the [FrenchCatholic](#) priest [Pigneau de Behaine](#). Pigneau championed his cause to the French government—and managed to recruit volunteers when this fell through—to help Nguyen Anh regain the throne. From 1789, Nguyen Anh was once again in the ascendancy and began his northward march to defeat the Tay Son, eventually moving by 1802 to the border with [China](#), which had previously been under the control of the [Trinh Lords](#). When this was over, he had reunited Vietnam after centuries of internecine feudal warfare with a greater land mass than ever before, stretching from China down to the [Gulf of Siam](#).

Gia Long's rule was noted for its [Confucian orthodoxy](#). He repealed [Tay Son](#) reforms and reinstated the classical Confucian education and civil service system. He moved the capital from [Hanoi](#) south to [Huế](#) as the country's populace had also shifted south over the preceding centuries, and built up fortresses and a [palace](#) in his new capital. Using French expertise, he modernized Vietnam's defensive capabilities. In deference to the assistance of his French friends, he tolerated the activities of Roman Catholic missionaries, something that became increasingly restricted under his successors. Under his rule, Vietnam strengthened its military dominance in Indochina, expelling [Siamese](#) forces from [Cambodia](#) and turning it into a vassal state.

Minh Mạng (1791–1841) was the second [emperor](#) of the [Nguyễn Dynasty](#) of [Vietnam](#), reigning from 14 February 1820 until 20 January 1841. He was a younger son of Emperor [Gia Long](#), whose eldest son, Crown Prince Canh, had died in 1801. He was well known for his opposition to [French](#) involvement in Vietnam and his rigid [Confucianorthodoxy](#). As Gia Long aged, he took on a more isolationist foreign policy, and as a result favored Minh Mang especially for his outlook. Minh Mang was a

classicist who was regarded as one of Vietnam's most scholarly monarchs. He was known as a poet and was regarded as an emperor who cared sincerely about his country and paid great attention to its rule, to the extent of micromanaging certain policies. He pursued a sceptical policy to Christian missionaries, often trying to inhibit their activities by administrative means, and later by explicitly banning [proselytisation](#). His crackdowns led to negative European sentiment towards Vietnam and fomented discontent among Catholics at home and abroad which further antagonised Western attitudes towards Vietnam. As a result of his Confucian conservatism, Minh Mang allowed little innovation in Vietnamese society, and in time its military in particular became antiquated. He restricted trade and exchange with Western powers. At home he strengthened the central administration and had to contend with several rebellions, many of them Catholic-inspired. The most serious came in 1833 when southern Vietnam revolted, leading to a civil war lasting a year. This was further deepened by an invasion into the same area by Siamese forces who had attempted to retake Cambodia from Vietnam. After a long struggle, his forces managed to put down both enemies and regain control.

B. Japan in 1790-1830.

Emperor Kōkaku (September 23, 1771 – December 11, 1840) was the 119th [Emperor of Japan](#), according to the traditional [order of succession](#). Kōkaku's reign spanned the years from 1780 through 1817.

He reigned from December 16, 1779 until May 7, 1817.

As a younger son of an imperial collateral branch the [Kan'in](#) house, it was originally expected that Tomohito-*shinnō* would go into the priesthood at the Shugoin Temple. However, in 1779, the sonless and dying emperor Go-Momozono hurriedly adopted him on his deathbed, even though he was not a *shinnō* (imperial prince).

Kōkaku was very talented and had a zeal for scholarship, reviving festivals at the [Iwashimizu](#) and Kamono shrines, and working hard at reviving ceremonies surrounding the Imperial Court. The Bakufu gave his father the honorary title of Retired Emperor ([Daijō Tennō](#)). Genealogically, Kōkaku is the founder of the dynastic imperial branch currently on the throne. Kōkaku is the lineal ancestor of all the succeeding [emperors of Japan](#) up to present monarch, [Akihito](#).

During Kōkaku's reign, the Imperial Court attempted to re-assert some of its authority by proposing a relief program to the [Bakufu](#) at the time of the Great [Tenmei](#) Famine (1782–1788) and receiving information about negotiations with Russia over disputes in the north.

In addition, he attempted to re-assert some of the Imperial authority over the Shōgun (or bakufu). He undertook this by first implementing a relief program during the Great Tenmei Famine, which not only undermined the effectiveness of the bakufu to look after their subjects, but also focused the subjects' attention back to the Imperial household.

He also took an active interest in foreign affairs; keeping himself informed about the border dispute with Russia to the north, as well as keeping himself abreast of knowledge regarding foreign currency, both Chinese and European. New era name of *Tenmei* (meaning "Dawn") was created to mark the enthronement of new emperor. The previous era ended and the new one commenced in *An'ei* 11, on the 2nd day of the 4th month.

In 1817, Kōkaku abdicated in favor of his son, [Emperor Ninkō](#). In the two centuries before Kōkaku's reign most emperors died young or were forced to abdicate. Kōkaku

was the first Japanese monarch to remain on the throne past the age of 40 since the abdication of [Emperor Ōgimachi](#) in 1586.

The last Emperor to rule as a Jōkō (Jōkō () is a shortened Japanese term for an emperor who abdicated in favor of a successor) was Emperor Kōkaku (1779–1817). The Emperor later created an incident called the "*Songō* incident" (the "respectful title incident"). The emperor came into dispute with the Tokugawa Shogunate about his intention to give a title of Abdicated Emperor (*Daijō-ten'nō*) to his father, who was an Imperial Prince Sukehito.

After Kōkaku's death in 1840, he was enshrined in the Imperial mausoleum, [Empress Dowager Yoshikō](#) is also entombed at this Imperial mausoleum complex.

Emperor Ninkō (March 16, 1800 – February 21, 1846) was the 120th [emperor of Japan](#), according to the traditional [order of succession](#).

Ninkō's reign spanned the years from 1817 through 1846.

He reigned from October 31, 1817 to February 21, 1846.

Ninkō was named as crown prince in 1809, being adopted by the chief wife (*chūgū*), of his father, the Emperor, Imperial Princess [Yoshiko](#), also known as Shin-Seiwa-in.

Ninkō was enthroned as Emperor in 1817 after his father retired from the throne.

Following his father the Retired Emperor's wishes, he attempted to revive certain court rituals and practices. For example, Ninkō and all other emperors after his father have been identified as *tennō*.

His reign saw [some deterioration](#) of [bakufu](#) power. The bakufu encountered yet more problems during the reign of his son, [Emperor Kōmei](#) (Komei-*tennō*). The bakufu collapsed in the beginning of the reign of his grandson, [Emperor Meiji](#) (Meiji-*tennō*).

Among Ninkō's innovations was the establishment of the *Gakushūsho* (the predecessor of the [Gakushūin](#) for the Court Nobility just outside of the Imperial Palace.

After Ninkō's death in 1846, he was enshrined in the Imperial mausoleum, [Empress Dowager Yoshikō](#) is also entombed at this Imperial mausoleum complex.

The famous shogun of the time was Ienari (1786-1838). He and his famous minister Matsudaira Sadanobu had the last success and the glance time in the history of Tokugawa dynasty. They ordered the finances of the land and brought a strong control over Daimyos and Samurais. The scholarship, literature and art flourished in this time. Ienari founded universities and schools, therefore the building became propagated in broad circles. But the bad rule of his predecessors caused the movement, which was directed against the shogunate for the restoration of Mikado rule; it could not be stopped even by successful Ienari.

In the whole, the countries of Far East continued to be independent in this period. In China there were a lot of revolts, the Western influence began to be felt.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of China and neighbor countries in this period.
2. What were the main events of Japanese history of this time?

The short results of the 21st period.

Period begins from the Great French revolution and ends with the July revolution of 1830 in France. French revolution develops at the ascending line (the more and more radical forces come to power (constitutional monarchists, republicans, radical democrats), than descends in the Thermidorian time, creating the dictatorship of Napoleon and his Empire and ends with the restoration of Bourbons. Such course of events was typical already for the English revolution of the 17th century, later almost according to the same example the Russia revolution takes place. In Europe the industrial revolution takes place, the steam ships appear. Notice that the development of industry brings the progressing contamination of the surrounding, which can be called “the illness of civilization” (which to this time has 4850 years, corresponding to 48.5 years for the human organism, when it is more and more contaminated with products of metabolism and is ill). Despite wars and revolutions, the growth of the world population (because of successes of medicine) begins from ca. 1 billion people in 1800, which already then causes the critics of Malthus. The epoch of Romanticism, romantics are both the bourgeois revolutionaries, who fight for “liberty, equality, brotherhood”, and left extremists - utopic socialists (Babeuf, Sen-Simon, Fourier), dreaming about the classless society, and their enemies – reactioners –restorators. To the end of period the revolutions in Latin America win, Greece is liberated from the Ottoman yoke, the USA go west, have an unsuccessful war with Great Britain (1812-1814) as allies of Napoleon and proclaim the doctrine of Monroe 1821, according to which the USA has the right to intrude in the western hemisphere. The old system dominates on the east, although there are attempts of reforms (for example, in Turkey, and India reforms are made by English colonisators, who introduce the British system of administration and education). The epoch of Romanticism in the literature (Byron, German and Russian romantics, Cooper, Dumas etc.) and even in the science (theories of evolutionists Lamarck and Cuvier are very romantic, like the political ideas of that time). Epoch creates many bright, demonic persons (Napoleon, Bolivar etc.).

Questions:

1. What are the main results of the 21st (1) period?
2. What is new in the 18 (4) period of Russian history?

22 (2) period – 1830-1870 – period of liberalism.

25. America in 1830-1830.

A. North America in 1830-1870.

Lord Durham (1792-1840) in his “Report about Canada” (1839) initiates the uniting and self-government of Canada provinces. 1840 the Upper (Ontario) and Lower (Québec) Canada are united into the province Canada. The Sioux and Métis were expelled from the Manitoba (founded 1870). Lord Elgin rules 1847-1854. 1867 in North America Act the Dominion Canada gets full political autonomy. It consists from four provinces: Ontario, Québec, New Brunswick and New Scotland.

Between 1820 and 1860 the population grows from 9,6 mln. in 23 states to 31,3 mln. in 33 states (in 226%). The expansion to the west brings territorial wins to the USA. 1845 Texas is taken into the Union. From the Oregon treaty of 1846 the 49th parallel becomes the frontier to Canada. Between 1830 and 1860 the immigration grows for 4,6 mln. The “Angloamericans” are leading (16%); Irish (39%) and Germans (30%) have more population, among them disappointed Democrats like Carl Schurz (1829-1906). The frontiers of settlements move to the west. Ruled by the Homestead law of 1862, the free land taking has three waves: the squatters (wild settlers) are succeeded by pioneers and trappers (hunters and sheep-breeders; they are followed by the frontier farmers, trades – and craftsmen. Indians are fought and brought into the reservations. 1830, according to the Indian Removal Act, Cherokee, Chickasaw, Creek, Choctaw and Seminoles are caused to escape from the south-east into the “Indian territories” to the west along the Mississippi. Thousands died in the time of the voyage, which was called the ‘Trail of Tears’. Already 1835 the parts of Indian territories were opened for the settlers. Mineral and gold findings accelerate the migration to the West (for all the ‘Gold Rush’ to California 1848/49, which attracts about 100,000 people). The ground is exploited hardly; the deficit of labor forces favors building of land machines and creates new industrial export markets. Trails and connect big distances (1862-69 the building of the first Pacific railway). The West, “land of unlimited possibilities” and “Melting Pot” for all immigrates, develops the type of American “mall people”.

With the “Selfmademan” General Andrew Jackson (1829-37) begins the political leading of Democratic party, organized by Martin von Buren, which represented the south states and the Western migrants’ states. The “hero of New Orleans” unites farmers and workers in the fight against the capital, abolishes all election differences and introduces the “Spoils system” (“The booty belongs to the victor”: the positions of officials are occupied with the party supporters). 1834 the mass immigration of German Jews begins. 1837 Jews settle in Cleveland. The most discussed political questions were the taxes and the rights of union. The opponents of Jackson were united in the party of ‘Whigs’. In the South Carolina under the leadership of vice-president J. Calhoun the tax tariff, introduced by John Quincy Adams, was abolished and the right of states for the veto and for the separation from the union was proclaimed. Jackson was ready to suppress the South Carolina with weapons, but the compromise was reached. Jackson liquidated the national bank, founded by Hamilton, and brought the money into the banks of different states; therefore a heavy economical crisis took place. Despite it, the Democrats under van Buren won 1837 and the country was plagued with the crisis. The North demands the abolition of slavery, the South has fear to lose its cotton monopoly (“Cotton is King”). The abolitionists have supporters especially among the Quakers in Pennsylvania. 1831 W.L. Garrison begins the press campaign against slavery with its newspaper “Liberator”. The “American Anti-Slavery Society” helps to the Afro-Americans to flee from the South. 1836 the state of Arkansas, 1837 Michigan are formed.

1841 Whigs won (President John Tyler 1841-45). The next President was James K. Polk (1845-49), who began the war with Mexico because of the entrance of Texas into the union (1845). In autumn 1847 the USA army came into the capital of Mexico. According to the peace of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848), Mexico lost the territory from the Pacific Ocean to the Rocky Mountains, where the states of California (1850), Nevada, Arizona, Utah, New-

Mexico, Colorado and Wyoming were formed. Other states were formed at the Indian territories: Iowa (1846), Wisconsin (1848), Minnesota (1858), Oregon (1859).

1841 Jews settle in Chicago. 1843, October 13 in a café in the Lower East Side of New York, twelve men establish a fraternal organization which still exists today: B'nai B'rith. At this time American Jewry numbers 15,000.

The 12th President Zachary Taylor ruled a short time (1849-50). He was succeeded by Millard Fillmore (1850-53). To prevent a secession the Clay compromise of 1850, reached by the leader of Whigs Henry Clay, gives to every state the right to decide about the slavery.

California is a free state, in the District of Columbia the slavery was allowed, but the slave trade was prohibited. The success of novel of Harriet Beecher Stowe "Uncle Tom's Cabin" (1852) strengthens the Abolitionists.

The next President was Franklin Pierce (1853-57). 1854 the South had victory in the Kansas-Nebraska act, according to which these Northern states have themselves to decide about the introduction of slavery. As response to it, the Whig party, the Free-soilers and the anti-slavery Democrats unite in the Republican party. 1856 the South states won at the President's elections, James Buchanan became a president (1857-1861). 1857 in the Dred-Scott-affair decision of the Supreme Court the right of slave-owners to settle with their slaves in the free territories was confirmed.

1854 Isaac Mayer Wise, an immigrant from Bohemia who came to the US in 1846, settles in Cincinnati; a remarkable organizer and a major influence on the nature of the Reform movement in the United States, he seeks to fashion American Judaism according to the dominant Protestant pattern. In the second half of 19th century public schooling, non-confessional and free, is established throughout the United States, and most Jewish children are integrated into this educational system. Relegated to afternoons and Sundays, proper Jewish education assumes only a complementary role. The Protestant sects of Mormons, Jehovah witnesses and the Adventist church were organized in 1830-50s. The Mormons (the Last days' Saints), founded by Joseph Smith, see themselves as the continuation of ancient American Christians and move to the state of Utah. The Spiritist movement grows from 1847. Its aim is a communication with the world of spirits and dead.

1860 Abraham Lincoln (1809-1865), a woodcutter, then a lawyer from Kentucky becomes the 16th President. Albeit he was moderated in the question of slavery, the Southern states (South Carolina and other ten states) build the Confederate States of America with the capital in Richmond under President Jefferson Davis (1808-89). War began April 12, 1861, when the Confederates open the fire at Fort Sumter before the haven of Charleston. Lincoln collected about 75,000 of volunteers for the preservation of the Union (23 states supported him). Modern weapons were used. A sea blockade hinders war transports from the South, which is recognized by UK and France, Russia supports the North. It is an only war in the history between the slave-owners' (2 cycle) and capitalist (3rd cycle). Despite their financial and industrial deficiency, the Southern states make a resolute resistance, fighting for its independence. Under one of the best strategists of war, General Robert Lee (1807-70), they win at Bull Run (1861/62), Fredericksburg (1862) and Chancellorsville (1863), but could not overcome the northern superiority in humans and materials (the war production increasing fast). 1861-1865 approximately 10,000 Jews participate in the Civil War, 3000 of them in the Confederate Army. 1862 the Northern army begins to appoint Jewish military chaplains. December 17 General Grant, accusing the Jews of trafficking with the Confederation, gives an order to expel Jewish cotton traders behind the lines; the order is revoked by President Lincoln. Fight for Gettysburg and Fredericksburg (1863) becomes decisive: General Lee is caused to retreat. In November 1863 at Chattanooga General Grant defeats General Braxton Bragg. In the same year Lincoln edits proclamation to liberate all the slaves in the rebelled regions. The devastation campaigns of General Sherman through Georgia and Carolina caused hunger and anarchy. In April 1865 General Lee capitulates unconditionally before the commander-in-chief General Grant at Appotomox Court House. But April 14, 1865 Lincoln is murdered in Washington Ford theater. His successor becomes a former vice-president Andrew Johnson, a poor farmer from Tennessee. In May 1865 President Jefferson is imprisoned in

Georgia, the Southern troops in Mississippi and Alabama capitulated. December 18, 1865 the slavery is abolished in all regions of the USA.

The Civil war brought many victims from both sides (about 600,000 dead, mostly because of epidemics in hospitals and prisoners' camps); the war costs were more than 8 mln. dollars; the south is ruined. As result, the union of union is preserved; under the leadership of the North the USA become the industrial economic power. The influence and the economic significance of the south sink (the cotton production is replaced to Egypt and India), the slaves' question becomes the race problem, unsolved socially and politically.

Andrew Johnson (1865-69) continues the moderated politics of Lincoln, but is caused to the struggle for power by the radical Republicans, which brings accusation in the state treason. The Afro-Americans get the civil rights (14th amendment) and the election rights (1868-1870). 1867 Alaska is bought from Russia for 6,7 mln. dollars. In 1869 President Grant (1869-1877) offers Joseph Seligman (1820-1880) the position of Secretary of the Treasury, but Seligman declines. In the same year the central union of all workers, the "Knights of Labor" is founded. It is a classical period of the USA literature. Besides Harriet Beecher-Stow (1811-1896), famous writers are poet Walt Whitman (1819-1892), who also fights against slavery, James Fennimore Cooper (1789-1851), who writes novels about Indians, and Romantic Edgar Poe (1809-1849).

In the whole, in the second period of the USA history the country reaches till the Pacific coast, having got its natural extension. The main conflict between the agricultural slavery and the industrial capitalism is decided in the favor of more progressive capitalism, which bring initially many disasters, but later influences the economic positively. Canada becomes a dominion, uniting both English and former French Canada.

B. Latin America in 1830-1870.

In the Central America the union attempts of five states are unsuccessful; increasing financial dependence from the USA ends in the political tutelage. Through the separation of Texas (1836) and the Texas war (1846-48) Mexico meets with a heavy crisis. The separatist movement of Indians, inspired by the ideas of Juan Rodriguez Puebla, brings many revolts. The most important of them take place 1848-49 and are suppressed. 1851 Maya founded their independent state in Yucatan, which existed till 1901. Through the sell of South Arizona (1853) North Mexico comes to the USA. As reaction at the clerical regime of Santa Ana (1833-1855) Sapotec Benito Juárez (1858-1872) nationalizes the huge church possession and liquidates all church and military privileges. 1857 the constitutional reform in Mexico promises freedom of religion and immigration. The famous defender of the Indian cause was a MP Arriaga. Therefore the civil war (1858-61) between clericals and liberals with intervention of British, Spanish and French troops takes place. 1863 French troops conquer Puebla and enter Mexico. Caused by Napoleon III, a notables' assembly proclaims an empire and gives the crown to the Austria Archduke Maximilian, who pretends to be a protector of Indians. Many Jews arrive from France, Belgium and Austria. Because of the USA protest (they see a violation of Monroe doctrine here) French has to withdraw its troops. 1867 Queretaro is taken by the Republicans; Maximilian is executed at the order of Juárez. In West India the main exchange places of the slave trade lose their significance with the prohibition of slavery (1838 in the British colonies). The Afro-Americans become plantation workers or strengthen the state proletariat. 1844 the Dominican Republic is founded anew (after the liberation of Haiti rule), after 1861 it is under the Spanish protection, after 1865 the influence of the USA increases.

In Brasil under the liberal government of Pedro II (1831-89) the economy is strengthened through the inside colonization, the European colonization, coffee and caouchouc (natural rubber) export. Paraguay loses about seventy percent of its population in the war of three lands (1865-1870) because of the great power policy of the dictator F.Solano López (1862-1870). In Argentina President Juan Manuel de Rosas (1829-52) ends the inside struggle. UK causes the giving out of the Falkland Isles (1833). 1853, May 2 the Argentinian Constitution promises freedom of religion and immigration. In Peru Marshal Castilla (1797-1867) becomes a dictator in the civil war (1842-45). In Columbia (New Granada) there are

permanent civil wars between Unitarians and Federalists, Liberals and Clericals. After the confederation of eight states (1858) the United States of Columbia (1861) are proclaimed. In Venezuela the federalist constitution is defended in the federation war (1861-68), but the dictators begin to rule. In Ecuador President Moreno rules friendly to the church (1860-65 and 1869-75).

With the time more and more Jews come to the Latin America, especially from Morocco. Recent studies indicate that there were West-European Jews in Mexico from 1830, in Peru from 1833, in Argentina from 1834, and in Chile from 1842. Jewish organizations were founded much later, and then only in large urban centers: Rio de Janeiro (1840), Buenos Aires (1862), Lima (1870). 1868 The Congregacion Israelita de la Republica Argentina is founded. In the whole, with the introduction of modern constitutions the new states are not strengthened. The class, party and racial fights, contradictions between Unitarians and Federalists are expressed in the permanent change of revolution and counter-revolution, anarchy and military dictatorship. Caudillos, who come to power through pronunciamientos (coups), build a type of an authoritarian rule. The old Creole aristocracy is weakened a lot in the tropic regions and wanders partly back to Europe. The colored and Mestizes build own elites. In the climatically moderate states a white great bourgeoisie continues to rule. So one can separate:

-White states: Argentine, Uruguay;

-Mestizes states: Brasil, Chile, West Indian and Central American states;

-Indian states: Bolivia, Venezuela, Columbia, Peru, Ecuador, Paraguay.

Questions:

1. Describe the development of the USA before the Civil War.
2. Describe the Civil War and its significance.
3. What were the main events of the Latin American history of this period?

26. Western Europe in 1830-1870.

A) European culture in 1830-1870.

The sciences develop further and are used technically. The new laws of nature are discovered. In physics Faraday discovers the law of electric induction (1831) and electrolysis (1833), Maxwell – the laws of electromagnetic field, Kirchoff – the laws of electric current and the spectral analysis together with Bunsen (1859). In biology the seed-lobes are discovered by Kölliker (1841), the division of cells - by Remak (1852), the laws of heredity - by Mendel (from 1865). The theory of evolution is developed by Charles Darwin (1809-92). Ernst Haeckel (1834-1919) is his main follower.

In chemistry the elementary analysis (1831) and the agricultural chemistry (1841) are discovered by Liebig (1831), phenol and aniline from coal – by Runge (1833), the benzene ring – by Kekulé (1865). Finally, the periodical system of elements is discovered independently by Meyer and Mendeleev (1869). In medicine the ether narcosis is discovered by Morton (1846), the blind gut operation is made by Haucock (1848), the cellular pathology - by Virchow (1858), the child bed fever – by Semmelweis (1861), the antiseptic wound healing – by Lister (1867).

In different branches of technique the new inventions are made. Electro motor is invented by Jacobi, the dynamo machine – by Siemens, the writing telegraph is invented by Morse (1837), the far speaker – by Reis (1861), the light press – by Albert (1869), photography – Daguerre (1839), the armored concrete – by Monier (1867). The war technique develops quickly: revolver is invented by Colt (1835), fire-arm – by Dreyse (1836), the submarine – by Bauer (1850), torpedo – by Whitehead (1866).

The teaching about progress in all branches are popular in this time. Herbert Spencer (1820-1903) sees society as an organism, Count Gobineau (1816-82) speaks about the race struggle. Karl Marx (1818-1883) – the class struggle as the moving forces of the social development. 1864 he founds the I International of all socialists in London. Ferdinand Lassalle (1825-64) founds the Common German Workers' Union (Leipzig, 1863) as the first socialist party. His national program awaits the solving of social question from the general equal election right and from the productive communities, promoted by the state. Bismarck sympathizes to Lassalle, but Marx denies the “state socialism” strictly. His supporters Wilhelm Liebknecht (1826-1900) and August Bebel (1840-1913) found the Social-democratic workers' party in Eisenach 1869.

There are also critics of progress belief. Tocqueville (1805-59) sees the dangers of egalitarian mass democracies, for Jacob Burckhardt (1818-97) they are symptoms of new civilization barbarism.

The sociology as science is developed by Lorenz von Stein (1815-90). In psychology Johannes Frederick Herbart (1776-1841) initiates the “psychophysics” with the introduction of economic methods, represented by Gustav Theodor Fechner (1801-87), Hermann von Helmholtz (1821-94) and others, developed to the “experimental” psychology by Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) and Théodule Ribot (1839-1916), but it cannot detect the difficult psychological functions. Even theology becomes critical. The problem of historical Jesus is put and discussed by D.F. Strauß (1808-74) and E. Renan (1823-92). B. Bauer (1809-82) goes further and denies the historical existence of Jesus, the mythological school is developed. The dialectical theology and existential philosophy go back to the teaching of Søren Kierkegaard (1813-1855). Ferdinand Christian Baur (1792-1860) and the Tübingen school make the Bible studies with historical-critical methods. Albrecht Ritschl (1822-89) continues it with stressing of the independence of religion. Big discoveries are made in Egyptology and Assyriology. Old civilizations of the Near East, which were more than 2,000 years earlier than the ancient Greek civilisation, are discovered, texts are edited, Egyptian and Akkadian (Babylonian-Assyrian) language are deciphered. Henrick Schliemann discovers Troya.

In literature romanticism is succeeded by realism. In England the chartist poetry is developed. Charles Dickens (1812-70), Thackeray (1811-1864) are famous prose writers. The women like Charlotte Brontë (1816-1855) and Elisabeth Gaskell (1810-1865) write realistic novels. In France Victor Hugo (1802-1885) and George Sand (1804-76) continue to be

romantics, but F. Stendale (1783-1842), Prosper Merimé (1803-1870), Honoré de Balzac (1799-1850) and Gustave Flaubert (1821-1880) are already realists. The revolutionary poetry is represented by some famous poets, among them Pierre Jean de Béranger (1780-1857), Pierre Dupont (1821-1870) and Eugene Potier. In Germany a play writer Georg Büchner (1813-1837) and poets Henrick Heine (1797-1856), Georgh Herweg (1817-1875), Ferdinand Freiligrath (1810-1876), Hermann Weert (1822-1856) are already realists. In Switzerland Gottfried Keller (1819-90) writes poems and realistic novels. In Czechia the “Czech Renaissance” takes place. Frantisek Ladislav Chelakovsky (1799-1852) studies the Slavonic folklore and writes poets. Jan Kollar (1793-1852) is another big poet. Prose is written by Bozhena Nemcova (1820-1862).

The belief in progress and natural sciences bear relativism and historicism, the moral teachings are denied. Auguste Comte (1798-1857) preaches positivism, according to which theological and philosophical stadia of progress are succeeded with positivist one. This teaching influences Mill and Spencer. H. Thomas Buckle (1821-62) tries to find the laws of history through the precise investigation of facts; H. Taine (1828-93) founds the theory, according to which the people are influenced by their surrounding.

In philosophy Ludwig Feuerbach (1804-72) sees religion as illusion of people. Ludwig Büchner (1824-99) formulates materialistic teaching about “force and matter” (“Kraft und Stoff”) 1855. Moleschott (1822-93) explains thinking with chemic processes. Historical materialism is developed by Karl Marx (1818-1883). Etienne Cabet (1788-1856) and Wilhelm Weitling (1808-71) develop the Communist ideas. Louis Blanc (1811-82) pleads for “productive associations”. Moses Heß (1812-1875) sees the power of future in proletariat. The ideas of anarchism (the full liquidation of state) are developed by Max Stirner (1806-56) and Pierre Joseph Proudhon (1809-65) and Mikhail Bakunin (1814-76).

The ideas of Christian socialism are developed in England by theologian Maurice (1805-72) and writers Kingsley (1819-75) and Thomas Carlyle (1793-1881); in France – Lamennais (1782-1854) and Leroux (1791-1871), in Germany – the Bishop of Mainz Wilhelm Emanuel Freiherr von Ketteler (1811-77), Adolf Wagner (1835-1917), Stoecker (1835-1909). Christian socialism, as well as the Oxford-movement (“Ritualism”: Edward Pusey, 1800-82) change the ‘Sunday Christianity’, the (women) care orders are founded. 1844 Christian Youth unions (YMCA) make work in the slums. The workers’ hostels are founded. In East London William Booth (1829-1912) works from 1865. In Germany Theodor Fliedner (1800-1864) opens the first deaconess’ institution in Kaiserwerth (1836), Johann Hinrich Wichern (1800-81) – a hostel for the unprotected youth (Rauhes Haus, 1833) as well a brother house for men deaconry (1843). Together they found the inside mission for help to youth, old men, ill and endangered (1848/9). From 1846 the Catholic “Gesellenvereine” are founded by priest Adolf Kolping (1813-65).

Liberal ideas are developed by John Stuart Mill (1806-73) and Herbert Spencer (1820-1903). The so called “cathedra socialists” are for the state intruding for solving of social problems. Among them Sismondi (1773-1841) from Geneva, Karl Rodbertus (1805-75), Lorenz von Stein (1815-90) and circle of liberal national economist around Gustav von Schmoller (1838-1917). From 1854 the Frederick Wilhelm Raffeisen (1818-88) promotes the peasants’ mutual help: chases for financing of seed, machines etc. are made. In the UK the Trade Union Congress is founded 1868. To bring the people of the Liberal party into the parliament, the trade-unionists build the Labour Representation league.

The radical-idealist movement of Pacifists denies every use of force from religion –ethical grounds. The peace societies (1816 Peace Society in England, 1830 in Geneva) organize international congresses from 1848. 1869 the society of peace friends is established.

In the whole, there is a lot of progress in science and scholarship in this time. Because of it, the European thinking becomes more and more materialistic, the liberal, socialist and anarchist ideas began to prevail over the conservative and monarchist. The situation of common peoples becomes better because of social work, made both by private and religious organizations.

B) Europe in 1830-1848.

1. England in 1830-48.

1830-37 William IV rules. Under the influence of the French July revolution the new elections bring the Whig cabinet Grey to the power 1830. He fights for the reform plans of Lord Russell (1792-1878) in the favor of the middle class against Tories and the upper house. 1832 the parliament reform takes place: 143 of 200 mandates of the "Rotten boroughs" are given to the new town election districts; through the extension of election rights for the house proprietors the number of voices increases for about a half. As result, the regular elections, respect for the common opinion, connection of government with the parliament majority, changing of party names into Conservative and Liberals take place. 1833 the first Factory Act is accepted; the children work is restricted for 8,5 hours daily; the state inspections are introduced. 1833 the slavery is abolished; the new Poor Laws with the compulsory work in the poor houses; the city order with the strengthened self-government (1835). Charles Dickens (1812-70) makes a social critics in his novels ("Oliver Twist", 1838/39).

Victoria, the niece William IV, began to rule 1837, being eighteen years old. The union with Hannover was broken (the brother of William Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, ruled there). 1840 Victoria was married to her cousin Albert of Saxe-Coburg (1819-61). The queen ruled as a "constitutional monarch" and became a symbol of the "Victorian era". Disappointed with the national reform and the defeat of the national trade union (1834) of Robert Owen (1771-1858), Thompson and others, the carpenter Lovett (1800-77) founds the Working Men's Association (1836). In the "People's Charter" (remembering the Magna Charta of 1215) he expresses the people's wishes: general election right, diets for deputies, annual elections, social reforms. After the refuse of parliament 1838 the petition becomes a program for Chartists, the first political working movement. The radical O'Connor expels Lovett from the leadership and calls for demonstrations and strikes, which lead even to local revolts (Birmingham, Newport). The Manchester school, a circle of textile fabricants around Richard Cobden (1804-65), unites with the workers because of the common interest in the free trade. Cobden and Bright (1811-89) cause the foundation of the Anti-Corn-Law League (1838), plead for the people's education, pacifism, tolerance and election reform, but with the strict refusal of all social laws (principle of "Laissez faire"). Their mass agitation has success: 1842 the first attempt of general strike takes place. With the peaceful means the first consumption society "Pioneers of Rochdale", inspired by Owen 1844, leads the economic struggle. 1844 the Christian Youth organizations (YMCA) work in the slums. The social crisis is sharpened by the hunger catastrophe in Ireland because of the potato illness 1845/46. There are about one million dead, the population sinks from 8,3 mln. till 6,6 mln. in 1851 because of the mass emigration, mostly to the North America. The terror wave of national movement "Young Ireland" is suppressed 1848. The conservative cabinet of Peel decides "at the last moment" against the right party wing (Disraeli) to abolish the grain taxes and therefore the free trade politics. The victory of Manchester school splits the Conservative party and removes the last barrier to the way to the pure industry and trade state. The British agriculture decays in the course of the 19th century. Between 1785 and 1840 the import of cotton increases from 11 mln. till 366 mln. pound. The first railway Liverpool-Manchester is made 1825; the length of roads is already 5000 meters 1848. The textile industry, mining and heavy industry grow. The industry production reaches 387 mln. pound sterling 1840 (30% of the world production). 1840 the stamps are introduced, later also the postcard and the package post. 1846 Sir Robert Peel is succeeded as Prime Minister by Lord John Russell, who formed an administration consisting mainly of Whigs, but with Lord Palmerston as Foreign Secretary. 1847 the ten-hour day is introduced in the factories for the women and youth (from 1850 compulsory for all). The Chartist movement decays. The revolution of 1848 does not take place in England despite the unquiet foreign policy of Palmerston ("Lord Firebrand", 1782-1865), whose policy of the 'Splendid isolation' in connection with the liberal demonstrations is supported by people, less by the queen and the cabinet of Russell.

In the whole, the United Kingdom makes great success in this time both economically and politically. It is a first country in the world according to the industry production.

2. France in 1830-48.

The party of bourgeoisie (La Fayette, Lafitte, Thiers, Guizot), which superceded the Republicans, proclaims Louis Philipp I, Duke of Orleans (1773-1850), the son of Philipp Égalité, to the “king of Frenchmen” with the acceptance of three-color flag. With the revision of constitution (the responsibility of ministers, sinking of the election census) the “golden age” of the great bourgeoisie begins; the land capitalizes and industrializes (mines and railways). 1840 France has the industry production for 264 mln. pound sterling (20% of the world, the second place after the UK). The “bourgeois king” moves between the parties of the “Mouvement” (liberal) and the “Résistance” (conservative), suppresses the revolts from the right and from the left (1831/34 Lyon; 1832/34 Paris) and strengthens his position through the authoritarian cabinets (banker Périer) till 1840. With the help of historian François Pierre Gueillaume Guizot (1787-1874) he makes a conservative personal regime. The finance bourgeoisie (pays legal) is won with the word “Enrichissez-vous” (enrich yourselves). The government is alike a corrupt share society (according to Tocqueville), which bribes its electors with the material preferences (1842 the railway becomes private). Together with the UK (Talleyrand-Palmerston: Entente cordiale 1830) initially it supports the liberal movements in Portugal, Spain, Belgium. In the time of the eastern crisis, which causes his overthrow, a prime minister Thiers searches the prestige successes in Egypt and at the Rhine (1840), which cause the national disappointment in Germany. The foreign minister Guizot (1840-47) tries to make an alliance of with England again. 1843 the state visit of Queen Victoris takes place; the colonial possessions in Africa and Oceania are extended; marshal Bugeaud finishes the conquest of Algeria. From 1846 the closing to the eastern powers (Metternich) begins. The opposition (intellectuals, students) is strengthened. Republicans under Ledru Rollon (1807-74) and Bonapartists become more dangerous than Legitimists (land aristocracy). 1840 the remnants of Napoleon are brought into the Maison des invalids with celebration. The pretenders Napoleon makes attempts to take the power from Strasbourg 1836 and from Boulogne 1840. 1846 he flees to England from the prison. 1846/47 the economic crises (potato illness, overproduction) radicalize the new proletariat. The small bourgeoisie and proletariat, divided into the groups, are collected and politicized by Louis Blanc (1811-82) with the demand for the state work insurance through the national factories. 1847 the reform banquettes (Lamartine) with the demand to change the election right and the parliament are prohibited by Guizot. It causes the begin of the February revolution. In the whole, in France the big bourgeoisie rules; the colonial empire begins to be created. The regime of Lois Philippe I causes the indignation of small bourgeoisie and workers.

3. German countries in 1830-48.

The revolts cause the constitutions in Saxony, Hannover, Brunswick, Hessen-Kassel 1830/31. With the political interest of the people the pressure of the public opinion (press) grows. The poets of ‘Young Germany’ - Börne, Heinrich Heine (1797-1856), Gutzkow and others - express their democratic ideas in the new style of the politic journalism (feuilletonism). The revolutionary spirit is expressed in the meetings at the Hambacher Festival 1832 and in the Frankfurt Watchtower 1833. The attempt of coup, made by students, strengthens the reaction again. In Baden the South German liberalism demands the restricted political cooperation of the people: pacifist and nationalist ideas (Welcker) are connected with the demands of self-government, oath courts, people’s militia and national economy (Frederick List). Under the stronger pressure of reaction gradually the North German liberalism, oriented to the UK, with the special stressing of the national unity (Dahlman) develops. Historian Johannes Gustaw Droysen and the South German Paul Pfizer plead for the leading part of Prussia in Germany. The first centers of the politic Catholicism, influenced romantically, are built in Munich (Louis I, Görres), Frankfurt and at the Rhine. Under the pressure of imprisonments of high

clergymen (Archbishop Droste zu Vischering, 1837) in the Cologne mutiny of 1837-40 (the conflict about mixed marriages with the Prussian state) they come closer to each other. The early conservatism finds its strongest support in the circle around the Prussian crown prince and the brothers Gerlach. Its publication organ is the "Kreuzzeitung" (from 1848).

The German tax union under the Prussian supremacy is organized 1834, initiated by the Prussian finance minister Motz (1775-1830). It becomes a prelude of the political unity and the industrialization. The building of railway according to the plans of Frederick List begins with the railway Leipzig-Dresden 1837-39. In comparison to England and France, German economy continues to be backward. 1840 its industrial output is at the third place in the world (150 mln. pound sterling, 12% of the world production), but the share of Germany grows in comparison with the former times (9% in 1800, 10% in 1820). From 1828 the military offices plead for the protective laws (care about the health of recruits). 1839 the children's work is prohibited (initially under nine years). The results of the July revolution sharpen the reaction with new demagogues' persecutions and press censure after the Vienna ministerial conference (1834). Emigrants are collected in Paris (Karl Marx, Heine) and in the Switzerland (Herwegh, Freiligrath). After the liquidation of personal union with England king Ernst August von Hannover breaks the constitution. 1834 protests and removal from the offices of the "Göttingen seven" (among them Prof. Dahlmann, Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm). 1840 the French protection of the Rhine frontier causes protests in whole Germany. Patriotic songs appear. The national expectations are connected with Frederick Wilhelm IV (1840-61), son of Frederick Wilhelm III, born 1795, who amnesties the "Demagogues", ends the Cologne mutiny and establishes the national symbols with the festival of Cologne cathedral building 1842 and the "Thousand years celebration of the empire" 1843. But he did not give a constitution. Finally he approves the summoning of the unified Landtag (the advisory representation of the layers) 1847.

Switzerland becomes the refuge place of the political refugees from the whole Europe, where the democratic movement (regeneration) works. From 1830 the aristocratic constitutions are succeeded with the democratic (indirect election law) in ten cantons. The republic revolts in the principedom Neuenburg (1831) have no success. From 1838 the democratic movement grows (revision of the canton constitutions); therefore the strong contradiction between liberal cantons, which try to make a unitary federal state, and conservative-Catholic cantons, which preserve the state union with free treaties, appears. 1844/45 the campaigns of free troops of radicals against Luzern take place. 1845 building of the "Protective unification" (Sonderbund), which dissolution is decreed by the Tagsatzung (general decision of union). 1847 the Sonderbund war takes place: the speed victory of the Tagsatzung army (General Dufour) at Gislikon. An intervention of the Swiss protective powers of 1815 is inhibited by Palmerston. 1848 the new union's constitution (an American example) is accepted: the national council (parliament) and the layers' council (cantonal representation) build the federal assembly (legislative); it elects the federal council (seven members) with the federal president (executive), controlled by the federal court. The union responds for the foreign policy, militia, tax, railway and moneys; the canton for church, school, court and press. In the whole, the German union continues to exist. The reforms in Prussian and other states take place. In Switzerland the new civil war takes place, which ends with the adoption of the new democratic constitution.

4. Italy and other countries in 1830-48.

In the West Europe the July revolution opens the epoch of bourgeois domination in the constitutional monarchies; in the Central and South Europe the national-liberal movement gets a new impetus. A danger of conflict of the great powers is prevented through the mediation of Prussia, through the connection of Russia with Poland and the understanding of France with the UK in the Belgian question. The division of powers in a reactionary

(conservative) east bloc (renovation of the Holy Alliance: meetings of monarchs at Münchengrätz and Teplitz 1833) and a liberal west bloc (quadruple alliance 1834) is deepened.

According to the Kiel peace of 1814, Denmark lost Norway, Helgoland became British. The state bankruptcy and agrarian crisis follow, but only after 1830 the liberal opposition appears. The “oath Danes” wish a constitution with the separation of Sleswig from Holstein (appearance of the Sleswig-Holstein crisis). The people’s school movement of the theologian Grundtvig (1783-1872) improves the general education. In Sweden Carl XIV (Bernadotte) rules from 1818-44. Then Oscar I (1844-59) favors the Scandinavism with the support of the UK. According to the convention of Moss, Norway is in the personal union with Sweden, but the storting (people’s representation) opposes against the veto right of the Swedish king. It is weakened gradually because of the Scandinavism. In Finland under Nicholas I the local parliament is not summoned, but the Finnish national idea develops.

Despite the fights in the Dutch India, in the Netherlands the inside politics becomes dominating. Liberal and conservative-Christian parties fight for power. The Catholic and liberal resistance against the United Netherlands is an expression of the confessional, historical, political and economical contradictions in the state, founded 1815. Belgium is headed by the northern (Dutch) part: the protestant school policy is made, the Dutch as official language is introduced. 1830 after the unsuccessful petitions the revolt in Brussels takes place: Antwerp is under fire. The provisory government and the national congress declare the independence of Belgium (November). The European great powers secure the independence and eternal neutrality of the new state in the London protocol of 1831. The British-French compromise candidate Leopold I von Saxony-Coburg (41 years old) becomes a king (1831-65). He respects the liberal Belgian constitution of 1831 (the people’s sovereignty, main rights, parliamentary system). 1831/32 the Netherlands attack. It is beaten with the French help (fall of Antwerp). Luxemburg is divided according to the London treaty of 1839. The main part is given to Belgium. Limburg remains partly in the Netherlands, which recognize the Belgium.

Italy: 1831 a revolutionary wave encompasses Modena, Parma, the Romagna 1831, but one has to wait for the French help till the occupation of Ancona 1831-38. The Austrian troops suppress the second main fireplace of the European crisis. In the exile (Marseille) The Genuese Giuseppe Garibaldi (1805-1872) founds the secret union “Giovane Italia” (Young Italy) for the national unification and the inside renovation. Under the motto “Italia farà da se” (Italia will make it itself) he persecutes three goals: 1. Bringing the masses from the national inertia; 2. Renovation of the state idea; 3. Cooperation of all nations in a democratic people’s union; therefore the ‘Young Europe’ is founded in Bern (1834). From Piedmont the conspiracy net to prepare the revolts and attempts is built.

In Poland the economic progresses under the financial minister prince Lubecki. From the time of Nicholas I the Russian intruding into the constitution (written by Czartoryski) grows. The idea of Czar to use the Polish army against the French and Belgian revolutions causes the revolt in Warsaw (1830): the Russian prince Constantine flees. Prince Czartoryski (1770-1861) builds a national government; the parliament overthrows the Russian dynasty. In the Europe one supports the Polish cause, but gives no help. 1831 the defeats at Grochow (against Diebitsch) and Ostrolenka follow. Paskjewitsch (1812-1856) conquers Warsaw. After the hard suppression of the insurgents he as a governor executes a policy of Russification. The Organic

statute of 1832 gives a status of the Russian province to Poland. Thousands of Polish freedom fighters flee abroad. Paris becomes a center of the "big emigration", but later the exile Poles are divided into the aristocratic "white" (Czartoryski) and democratic "red" (Lelewel), who take part in all the revolutionary fights. 1846 the revolt in Cracow takes place, which causes the Austrian annexation of the free city.

In the whole, in Europe the fight between the revolutionaries and monarchists takes place, as a result of which the new state of Belgium appears.

C) Europe in 1848-70.

1. The Iberian states.

In Spain and Portugal liberals, republicans and socialists fight monarchists (moderates) and Catholics. Economic backwardness, political and financial weakness endanger the colonial possession. 1843 Isabella (1830-1904) is proclaimed a queen. Coups d'état, the second Carlists' war (1847-49) and republican revolts weaken the liberal system. Prime-minister O'Donnell (1858-63) makes war against Morocco (1859-60) and participates in the Mexican expedition. 1868 Isabella is dethroned; Generals Serrano and Prim support the candidature of Leopold von Hohenzollern.

In Portugal Maria II da Gloria rules 1834-53. Permanent party fights of conservative and liberal groups, after 1848 republicans. Under Pedro V (1853-61) the dictator Saldanha rules, 1857 he is overthrown by de Loulé (1804-75).

2. The UK in 1848-1870.

The Manchester liberalism restricts the tasks of state to the law protection and the inside security. The state and town administration, the offices, police and post are strengthened. 1851 the Great Exhibition (First World Exhibition) of the British industry was held in Hyde Park (the "Crystal Palace"). Russell's "Ecclesiastical Titles Act" (1852) made it unlawful for Roman Catholic bishops to use the territorial titles recently bestowed by Pope Pius IX. The Russell's successor became the Conservative Earl of Derby (First Lord of Treasury and Premier), under whom Benjamin Disraeli (1804-81) was Chancellor of Exchequer and leader of the House of Commons. But this cabinet lasted only some months (February-December 1852). It was succeeded by the Whig and Peelite Aberdeen Coalition ministry, where William Ewart Gladstone (1809-98) became Chancellor of Exchequer. 1854 a separate Secretaryship of State for the colonies (administered by the Secretary of War since 1801) was founded. Under Henry John Temple Palmerstone (Prime minister 1855-58, 1859-65) the UK was ready to support the liberal forces in Italy, Denmark and Poland. The Crimean War and the Indian Mutiny took place 1854-58. Because of the Orsini's attempt to murder Napoleon III with an English bomb Palmerstone had to resign and was succeeded with the second Derby ministry (February 1858-June 1859), but returned to power soon. The growing social product improves the life standard, makes the society bourgeois and mitigates the class differences. The reformism of trade unions are favored by the movements from the religious-moral grounds (Kingsley); reform of poor and prison administration; the state health and factories laws are accepted. The nobility parties are reformed into the democratic mass parties. From the Peel's supporter Gladstone becomes a liberal pacifist and stresses the inside politics: finance and administration reforms. 1860 the Cobden treaty with France is concluded; the free trade is built. Disraeli, who as an enemy of Peel becomes a leader of Conservatives, refuses from the free trade policy and attracts the workers with the program of 'Tory democracy'. Another World exhibition takes place in London 1862. After Palmerstone the "Leap in the Dark" follows (Russell's second ministry, October 1865-June 1866; Derby's third ministry, June 1866-February 1868, Disraeli's third ministry, February-November 1868). 1867 the

election reform with vote right for small bourgeoisie and professional works is made (the Second Reform Act). Gladstone uses it to form his first ministry (1868-1874). 1858 the Irish emigrants found the radical secret union of Fenians in the USA to create an own republic. Terror acts and peasants' revolts are met by Gladstone with a Bill to disestablish and disendow the Irish Church 1869 and the Irish Land Act of 1870 to help the Irish tenants. In the whole, the UK develops swiftly in this time ("the Victorian age"), the two-parties system functions well, the electors' circle grows. Therefore there revolutions of mainland do not cross the English Channel.

3. France in 1848-70.

The prohibition of the reform banquet in Paris causes the February revolution (22-24.2.1848): barricade fights begin; students, workers and national guard cause the abdication of the Louis Philipp and proclaim the second republic. A provisory government is built: poet Alphonse de Lamartine (1790-1869) as foreign minister saves the tricolor against the 'red flag' of Socialists. Working minister Louis Blanc proclaims the "right for work" and organizes national workshops for the unemployed. Under interior minister Ledru-Rollin (1807-74) in April the first general election to the national assembly takes place, which brings a bourgeois majority. In May the mass movement of the radical socialists take place (Louis Auguste Blanqui). In June the unrentable national workshops are closed. Therefore the June revolt of workers. War minister Eugène Cavaignac (1802-57) receives the dictatorial power: he liquidates the "red danger" (about 10 000 dead). In November the constitution of the second republic with one chamber and direct election of the president (head of the executive, four years in office without re-election). Against Cavaignac and Ledru-Rollin the electors give 75% of voices to the nephew of Napoleon I (son of Louis Napoleon, king of Holland, and Hortense Beuharnais) Louis Napoleon III (1808-1873). In December 1848 he becomes prince-president. As ruler over bureaucracy and army he rules in anti-parlamentary way, wins the trust of people and the church. 1849 Roman expedition to preserve the church state is made against the protest of republicans, whom he wins with the help of monarchists (two third of the chamber). A republican revolt (Ledru-Rollin) in June has no success. The law to the restriction of the election right is used by Napoleon to make voices against the chamber, which is against the change of constitution for his re-election. Therefore in December 1851 the coup d'état follows: dissolving of Chamber and imprisonments (Thiers, Cavaignac). A plebiscite allows the new constitution in January 1852 (ten years of presidency, senate, legislative; control of press and national guard). The senate's decision and the new plebiscite (97 percent of approval) bring the hereditary empire for Napoleon III (December 1852), "The Emperor of Frenchmen through the mercy of God and the will of nation". The revolution is over.

The revolution develops at the descending line, corresponding to the French revolution from 1794 to 1804. The radicals are succeeded by the military dictatorship, Napoleon III becomes president 1848 (like Napoleon I the first consul 1799), 1852 he becomes Emperor (like his uncle 1804). The course of revolution is characterized by Karl Marx in his book "18 Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte".

Napoleon III marries the Spanish countess Eugénie de Montijo and feels himself as representative of nation. His democratic Caesarism (plebiscitary dictatorship) tries to equalize the class differences. The people has to suborder to the authoritarian regime, which becomes stronger after the Orsini attempt 1858. In the social politics the employment of workers is reached through the big building programs (railways, streets, channels, havens). Between 1852 and 1865 Paris is built anew as the "world capital" according to the plans of prefect of Haussman: about 60,000 new buildings, boulevards, fortifications. Despite the help to workers (help cashes, building of flats, people's book shops) the 12 hours working day without right to strike; till 1864 the workers' coalitions are prohibited. In economics through the financial capital (bank and credit: brothers Péreire) and building of the big industry the trade grows for 300 percent in twelve years. The capital export makes France to the land of creditors and pensioners. The Paris world exhibitions (1855, 1867) become the symbol of prosperity. The colonial policy is continued. Algeria becomes a grain chamber and a core of

the “France overseas”; the French settlers migrate. Governor Faidherbe (1854-65) increases Senegal and founds Dakar. “For the protection of religion” the intruding in China (Lorcha war 1856-58 together with the UK: Taku fort is taken. After the break of Tientsin treaty (1858) Beijing is occupied) and Syria (landing in Beirut 1860); the colonial empire in Indochina begins to be built. 1857 the Kabyls in Algeria are conquered. 1859-62 the Suez Channel is built by Ferdinand de Lesseps under French financing; therefore Obok is bought (1862). Through the support of the national movements (Balkans, Italy, Germany) Napoleon III tries to revise the treaties of 1815. Using the British-French conflict France wins a new power position in the Crimea War (1854-56). Emperor becomes a middle man in the Paris peace congress 1856. Since the meeting with Cavour in Plombières 1858 a solving of the Italian question is planned. 1859 the Italian unification war takes place: Napoleon III is for the quick equal treaty with Austria. According to the peace of Zürich, Lombardy is won. But in the Turin treaty it is exchanged against Nizza and Savoy with Sardinia-Piemont. Under Bazaine (1811-88) the Mexican expedition takes place 1861. The lose of prestige in the German question: 1865 the meeting in Biarritz takes place: Bismarck wins over Napoleon III, whose unclear compensation wishes of Belgium, Luxemburg and the Pfalz against the Prussian power extension in Austrian-Prussian war are frustrated through the Austrian defeat at Sadowa 1866. The “unhappy year” 1867 brings whether compensations nor Luxemburg (which Napoleon II wants to buy from Holland); the “Mexican adventure” is defeated because of the intrusion of the USA; the keeping of the military protection of the Church state (giving attention to the Catholic opposition) darkens the friendship with Italy. The change to “Empire liberal” is made because of the growing critics of regime (opposition between the freedom policy outside and the dictatorship inside), defeats in the foreign policy and the dubitation at the Cobden treaty with the UK of 1860 (free trade politics). The ill emperor must give the liberal concessions, demanded by Thiers, in the program of “needed freedoms” (of person, press, chamber, responsibility of ministers) 1864. 1869 the win of liberal opposition takes place: political amnesty and building of the cabinet Ollivier to work out a liberal constitution follow. 1870 plebiscite takes place: 83 percent of voices for a liberal empire. In the whole, France makes many successes in the time of Napoleon III both inside and outside the country, but in the end of period the situation becomes complicated. Attempt to make liberal reforms causes the fall of authoritarian regime.

4. Germany in 1848-1870.

a) the revolution of 1848-49.

The French February revolution comes to Germany. In the demonstrations the freedom of unions and press, oath courts and people’s militia are demanded. The radicals (small bourgeoisie, peasants at Rhine, in Baden, Saxony, Silesia) fight for the democratic republic, but the liberal bourgeoisie make moderate petitions; the wish for the national unity is common. In February the demands to summon a German parliament are made in Baden. The princes fulfill the “March demands” and summon the liberal “March ministries”; the parliament abolishes the censure, but its reform plans come too late. March 5: The big states Austria and Prussia are plagued with the revolution. March 5: the Heidelberg assembly: 51 member of South German land parliaments invite the representatives from the whole Germany to prepare a national assembly. March 13: the students begin the first revolt in Vienna; it causes the Prussian king to make liberal concessions. At the meeting of thanks two shoots of the castle guard take place, the people believe in the treason. March 18: the barricade revolt in Berlin takes place: Frederick Wilhelm IV takes the troops from the city, calls a liberal ministry (Camphausen), under the pressure of people remember 250 “fallen in March”, promises a national assembly and the solving of national question. Prussia must be incorporated into Germany. March 20: in Munich Louis I abdicates to the favor of his son Maximilian II (scandal around the dancing woman Lola Montez). March 31 – April 4: Frankfurt pre-parliament (about 500 members) decrees inclusion of Sleswig, East and West Prussia in the union and general free elections (1 deputy for 50,000 people). Hecker (1811-81) proclaims republic in Konstanz. In April the federal troops suppress the revolts of democratic insurgents in Baden (battle at Kandern) and in Elsass (Herwegh). The federal

parliament votes for the election of people's representation, non-German nationalities of Austria refuse from the participation (Palacky). May 18 the legislative national assembly in the Frankfurt Paul's church is opened; among the 586 deputies there are 223 lawyers, 106 professors, 46 industrials, four artisans, no peasants). The "March minister" from Hessen Henrick von Gagern (1799-1880) becomes a president. The popular Archduke Johann becomes an imperial supervisor and builds a provisory imperial governor (June). Meanwhile, in May 1848 the national assembly in Berlin takes place: in the fight between the left majority (people's sovereignty) and crown the conservative party (brothers Gerlach, Bismarck) is formed to keep the layer privileges and the king's authority. The "parliament of professors" begins his work with the discussion of main rights (Beseler) in July-October, which are proclaimed in December (example for all further democratic German constitutions). The building of the first workers' unions (Stephan Born), growing resistance of Austria and Prussia and the pressure of foreign powers in the Sleswig-Holstein question make the political work difficult. The taking over of Vienna (October) strengthens the reaction: therefore the national assembly is moved from Berlin to Brandenburg and dissolved by General Wrangel (1789-1877). In December 1848 the Prussian constitution is accepted: the liberal project of Waldecke is changed in the conservative sense (three classes' election law). In Sleswig-Holstein the "Eider Danes" want to unite Sleswig with Danemark, the German party strives for the real union with Holstein. In March Sleswig is incorporated into Danemark, the revolt in Sleswig-Holstein follows; in May the Prussians invade Danemark (General Wrangel) at the order of German Union; but Russia, England and France cause the ceasefire of Malmö (August). The national assembly is disappointed, but has to support the ceasefire later. The "treason" causes the radicals to make a September revolt in Frankfurt against the national assembly, which must ask for the help of troops. Their catastrophe strengthens the reaction. From the "June battle" in Paris the liberal center and bourgeoisie preferred to connect with the old "authority and government" and not with the democratic revolutionaries. In October 1848-March 1849 the constitution is discussed: a synthesis between tradition (empire, monarchy, single state) and progress (general election right, people's representation). The constitution problem is decided to the favor of division of powers between the parliament and hereditary empire (March 1849 with 267:263). The solving of federal problem stresses the central power (foreign policy, army, law giving), but respects the federal lands. The national problem splits the national assembly in big German - federalist direction (federative state with whole Austria under Catholic Habsburg dynasty); unitarian-democratic direction (republic only with Germany and Austria); and in small German (national state under the leadership of Protestant Prussian dynasty without Austria). The small German direction wins. In February 1849 the Danes renew the war. In March with 290:248 the Prussian king is elected to the hereditary emperor. But Frederick Wilhelm IV (1795-1861) refuses from the emperor's office, planning the union of princes. Gagern retreats, the Austrian and Prussian deputies are called back. The "Paul's church" is dissolved; the Stuttgart remnant parliament is built in May, but is dissolved by military men in June. The radical people's revolts at Rhine, in Berlin, Dresden (Rich. Wagner, Bakunin), for all in Baden and the Pfalz. The Duke of Baden asks the help of Prussian troops. Prince Wilhelm beats the Baden troops and volunteers. After the fall of fortress Rastatt (July) layer courts with mass executions take place. In December 1849 Archduke Johann abdicates as the imperial supervisor. The three kings' union with Saxony and Hannover is concluded 1849. The revolution is defeated because of the fear of citizens before the revolutionary radicalism, the deficit of politic experience (under-evaluation of German and European power relations), because of the loyalty of army and officials and because of the intrusion of foreign countries (in Hungary and Sleswig-Holstein). As result, the national wish for unity remains alive, but the politically disappointed bourgeoisie turns to the economics; mass emigrations (among them Carl Schurz, Kinkel, Freiligrath, Hecker; 80,000 only from Baden) weaken the democratic movement.

b) Prussia in 1850-1870.

Despite the Danish victories (Idstedt), Prussia, pressed by Russia and France, gives Sleswig-Holstein back according to the treaty of Berlin (1850). In the same year the Erfurt union parliament for the discussion of a constitution is summoned. Against the union's politics (von Radowitz) Schwarzenberg wins the middle states (among them Bavaria, Saxony). There is a danger of open Prussian-Austrian conflict because of the right of Prussian crossing in Courhessen. Czar Nicolas I as a middleman judge decides for Austria. 1850, according to the treaty of Olmütz, the German union under the Austrian leadership is restored in Frankfurt. 1850/51 the Dresden conferences to the reform of the federal parliament take place: a reaction committee for the control of liberal states like Baden (liberal "example land" under Great Duke Frederick, 1856-1907). Besides Austria and Prussia, an independent "triad policy" is persecuted by Saxony (prime minister Beust) and Bavaria under Maximilian II (Prime Minister von der Pfordten, 1811-80).

1852, according to the London protocol, the personal union of autonomous duchies Sleswig and Holstein with Denmark is concluded. 1854 the children work under twelve years is prohibited.

In economics liberal great industrials, share and commandit societies develop the mining, iron and machine industry. The banks, insurance, transport and news branches, electro and optic industry are developed. 1847 Hapag, 1851 the Discount society (D.Hansemann), 1853 the Darmstadt Bank, 1857 the North German Lloyd. Through the artificial dung procedure, developed by Justus Liebig (1803-1873), the agricultural harvest grows; the synthetic colors' production (1856) founds the modern big industry (color works Höchst, Baden aniline and soda factory). Despite the first economic crisis (1857), the overpopulation (despite the emigration) causes the economic expansion; Prussia is a main winner. It produces 50% of German textile, 65% of big industry, 95% of mining. The economic circles demand stronger political rights of voting and national unity. The engaged politically historians like Gustav Droysen (1808-1884), Henrick von Sybel (1817-85), Theodor Mommsen (1817-1903), as well as the unions of singers, gymnastics and shooters, Schiller memorial celebration (1859) and some princes ("Duke of shooters" Ernst von Coburg-Gotha) favor the patriotism. The National union (Verein), founded 1859 with the residence in Coburg (Bennigsen, Schulze-Delitsch), founds its big German opposite in the National union (in Austria and South Germany).

The big land possession, Protestant church and officials support the police system of the Manteuffel ministry in Prussia. To the new Supreme church council (F.J.Stahl), founded 1850, the people's school is subordinated 1850. Against the Protestant culture policy (Raumer) the Catholic fraction (Reichensperger) fights from 1852, from 1859 it is called Center. In the crisis of tax union (accepting of Hannover tax union; big German tax policy of Austria) 1852-54 Richard von Delbrück (1817-1903) conducts the Prussian hegemony. But the foreign policy insecurity follows: camarilla (the king's court party) and "Kreuzzeitung" party prevent the stronger support of the Western powers. Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen (1815-98), the envoy at the federal parliament, tries to make an equality with the Austrian presidial envoy (Thun, Reichberg); 1859 in St.-Petersburg he becomes an ambassador in St.-Petersburg, 1862 in Paris.

Wilhelm I (1800-1888), from 1858 regent for the mentally ill Frederick Wilhelm I, from 1861 king, summons a liberal ministry. 1859 an army reform of the military minister Albert von Roon (1803-79) to strengthen (active troops) and reserve corresponding to the population, increased from 1814, takes place. The liberal majority of land parliament sees in the reform (three years of service) a growth of the crown's power and votes against the army project. 1861 the liberal progress party (Waldeck) is founded; the land parliament is dissolved, but liberals won anew. In the constitution conflict (1862) at the proposal of Roon the king makes Bismarck a Prime Minister. He prevents the king's abdication and is ready to rule also against the constitution and land parliament. Army becomes stronger (the peace army grows from 150,000 till 213,000 and the annual call from 40,000 to 63,000), gets a preference position and influences also the civil live forms (begin of the Prussian German militarism).

The goals of the Bismarcks' real politics (with the preference of foreign policy and use of war as the "ultima ratio" of politics): strengthening of monarchy to strengthen Prussia; Prussian

leadership in German Union with or without Austria. In the Polish revolt Bismarck supports the Russian actions with a military convention of Alvensleben (1863): renovation of friendship with Russia. Austria (Prime Minister Schmerling) wants to use the anti-Russian mood for the reform of union (directory of princes, consulting parliament). The plan is not accepted at the princes' meeting in Frankfurt 1863 (presidency of Emperor Franz Joseph), because Wilhelm I is absent at the wish of Bismarck. But Bismarck becomes the Austrian co-operation in the Danish conflict, appeared because of the Danish November constitution (1863): annexion of Sleswig and separation of Holstein. The national movement demands the independence of duchy: Bismarck only stresses the break with the London protocol and therefore secures the neutrality of great powers. 1864 the German-Danish War: taking of the Düppel fortifications. After the taking of Alsen Denmark gives Sleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg to Prussia and Austria in the treaty of Vienna (October). The common administration of condominium sharpens the Prussian-Austrian antagonism, which is regulated in the Gastein treaty (1865): Austria administrates Holstein, Prussia – Sleswig. Napoleon III as a middleman hopes for compensation at Rhine (promised by Bismarck and Austria). He favors the Prussian union with Italy. The Prussian attempt to reform the union through an elected parliament is not accepted by Austria, which summons the federal parliament to decide the Sleswig-Holstein question. Prussia answers this break of Gastein treaty with marching into Holstein and leaving of the German Union, which mobilizes against Prussia. 1866 German War: capitulation of Hannover army at Langensalza; decisive victory of Prussia (Chief of General staff: Helmut Moltke, 1800-91) at Königgrätz. Bismarck asks the king to refuse from the military use of victory and accelerates the preliminary peace of Nikolsburg to prevent the French intruding. French territorial demands cause the South German states to make the unions with Prussia. In the same year the Italian-Austrian war takes place. The peace of Prague (with Prussia) and of Vienna (with Italy): Austria loses only Venetia, the German Union is dissolved; Prussia annexes all enemy states to the north of the Main line besides Saxony and Hessen-Darmstadt. Building of the North German Union (1866/67). The Prussian constitution conflict is regulated by the land parliament. In September 1866 the indemnity project is accepted (with 250:75 voices the anti-constitutional government Bismarck's is approved). The 'democratic sin fall' splits the liberals. The Progressive party remains in opposition, the new National-liberal party (von Bennigsen, Miquel) supports the political success and works together with Bismarck and Free Conservative party (the left wing of old Conservatives) 1867. In the same year the constitution of the North German Union is accepted: the Prussian presidium of Union (Wilhelm I, Bismarck as a federal chancellor, the Union's council, the elected parliament. The tax union is renovated by the German tax parliament. Napoleon III feels himself cheated in the question of compensations. 1867 in London treaty the neutrality of Luxemburg is secured. In the whole, after the unsuccessful revolution of 1848-49 (the united Germany was not created) Prussia goes upon the way of modernization, it defeats Denmark, Hannover and Austria and creates North German Union (instead of German Union) under its presidency. Only some years are left till the creation of the German empire (1871), which begins a new (second) macroperiod in the German history.

5. Austria in 1848-1870.

a) the revolution of 1848-49.

In March 1848 the first revolt in Vienna (students, militia of citizens): Metternich flees to England. His overthrow causes the national revolts in all parts of the empire; the court promises a constitution, which is not approved everywhere. In May the second revolt takes place: calling of the parliament (Reichstag), giving the constitution, which decrees the decisive liberation of peasants (Hans Kudlich, 1823-1917). In October the third revolt – mutiny of troops, directed against Hungary, takes place: barricade fights, plundering of

arsenal and arming of proletariat; murder of war minister Latour. The court flees to Olmütz; the troops evacuate Vienna (Auersperg), but Field marshal Alfred Prince zu Windischgrätz (1787-1862) suppresses the resistance of national guard. Their leaders and Robert Blum as representative of the Paul's church, are executed. Joseph Jellachich (1801-59), Ban of Croatia, beats Hungarian additional contingents at Swechat. In November the Reichstag is moved to Kremsier. The new prime minister Felix Prince zu Schwarzenberg (1800-52) causes the abdication of the mentally ill Ferdinand I to the favor of his nephew Franz Joseph I (1848-1916). In March 1849 the centralistic constitution is accepted. Military men and Russian help save the monarchy.

Bohemia: Led by the historian František Palacky (1798-1876), in June 1848 in Prague the Slavonic congress pleads for the national equality inside the Danube monarchy (Austro-Slavism). The leaders of Czech movement (Palacky, Rieger) are against the Pentecost revolt, which is suppressed by Windischgrätz.

Croatia: because of the Hungarian pressure the parliament in Agram (Zagreb) gives away the plan of the South Slavonic state. Jellachich is nominated to the Ban and uses his troops for the monarchy.

Hungary: revolts cause a national government (prime minister Batthyány) to the personal union with Habsburg under the Palatin (deputy) Archduke Stephan. The Conservatives are defeated by the Liberals (Eötvös, 1813-71; Ludwig Kossuth, 1802-94; Franz Deák, 1803-76): the liberation of peasants and liquidation of privileges of nobles; building of the Honvéd (the volunteers' troops). September 1848 the king's commissar Lamberg is murdered in Pest. The dissolving of parliament, ordered from Vienna, is not followed. Franz Joseph I is not accepted (December). In April 1849 a constitution leads to the dethronement of Habsburgs; Kossuth is made a supervisor the state. Generals Görgey and Bem drive back the Austrian army. In May 1849 the emperors' meeting in Warsaw takes place: Czar Nicolas I promises the help. Two Russian armies under Paskjewitsch beats the Hungarians in the east; Generals Haynau and Jellachich attack from the west (Temesvar). The poet of freedom Alexander (Sandor) Petöfi (1823-49) is murdered; Kossuth flees to the Turkey (is internee there till 1851). In August the capitulation of Világos (General Görgey) takes place; the fortress Komorn fights till October. The Austrian punishment court follows (General Haynau): Hungarian freedom fighters (Batthyány) are executed; Bem and Andrassy fled. Hungary is divided into five provinces under military administration.

In the whole, the revolution in the Danube monarchy was unsuccessful. The national controversies between Germans, Hungarians and Slavs helped to suppress the revolution, as well as the Russian help.

b) Austria in 1850-70.

After the victory of dynastic restoration 1851 the constitution is abolished; neoabsolutism of ministry Bach: centralist bureaucracy, military dictatorship in Hungary and Italy. The concordate of 1855 secures to the church the care about education, cult and marriage law. Successful economy politics of the trade minister Bruck (1798-1860): industry, railway building, Adria trade (Triest) and credit are favored. His tax politics is unsuccessful because of the economic backwardness of the Danube state. Lasting finance crisis, military weakness, opposition of liberals and the nationalities; despite it, political pretension for leadership in Germany and Italy. 1859 the hegemony over Italy is broken; the neoabsolutism is given over.

The controversies between the central power, lands of empire, nationalities make difficult the constitution building. Hungarians and Germans do not approve the federalist October diploma (1860). Prime minister Schmerling (1805-93) makes the February patent (1862): the legislative is divided between crown and Reichsrat (imperial council), which Hungary, Croatia, Czechs and Tirol boycott.

The defeat of 1866 causes the equalization of 1867, demanded by Hungary: the Austria-Hungarian dualism with common (emperor and king) foreign, financial and army politics, but with separated constitutions, administrations, law giving; the Austrian Landwehr and Hungarian Honved (land army). The treaties for ten year each about trade, tax, currency, transport questions are concluded. The custom incomes and payings (Austria about 70 percent) are used to finance common projects. 1867 Franz Joseph I is crowned as a king of Hungary. With army and bureaucracy he keeps the multinational state together, but makes no reforms. The execution of his brother Maximilian in Mexico is a hard strike for an emperor.

Austria (Cisleithania: eight nations, 15 crown lands, 17 parliaments) is plagued from the increasing nationality struggle. 1867 the December constitution with the government right to order after the dissolving of parliament is accepted. 1867 till 1878 is the liberal era (big capital, German Liberal constitution party: Plener). 1868 the May laws end the concordat of 1855. 1869 the general military obligation and imperial law about people's schools are accepted. The Conservative Old Czechs (Palacky, Rieger) are united with the Russian Pan-Slavism. From the fear before the strengthening of Slavs the German Liberals do not approve the "Fundamental article" (1871) of the Bohemian parliament to build an autonomous constitution as well as the Balkan policy of the monarchy in Bosnia.

Hungary (Transleithania) receives the foreign political hegemony in the whole empire because of the Count Gyula Andrássy (1823-90, Prime minister 1867-71, foreign minister till 1879). 1868 Croatia-Slavonia receives autonomy. The power in Hungary remains at the "historical classes" (nobility, clergy). The tolerant nationalities law is accepted 1868.

In the whole, the Austrian empire remains backward; it loses its possessions in Italy and is defeated by Germany. After 1867 the new period in the history of empire begins: it is divided into two lands with local parliament under one emperor. The liberal changes take place.

6. Italy in 1848-1970.

a) revolution of 1848/49 in Italy.

The patriotic movement (Mazzini, Gioberti) hopes for Pius IX (1846-78), the would-be liberal Pope. His amnesty of political crimes and his reforms work as an example for other princes. Karl Albert of Sardinia (1831-49) fires the reactionary ministers. The writer Massimo d'Azeglio (1798-1866) proclaims the "principle of open conspiracy". 1847 revolts in Messina and Reggio and Austrian occupation of Ferrara take place. 1848 in Upper Italy the March revolts in Milan and Venice for the national liberation through Piedmont take place (Italia farà da se! "Italy makes it itself"), as well as in Palermo. In March-August 1848 "Guerra Santa" (the "Holy War") of Karl Albert and Italian volunteers against Austria takes place. After the initial successes the absence of unity of princes about a new political order. Field marshal Radetzky (1766-1858) retreats, but wins over king Karl Albert at Custoza (July), takes Milan and concludes ceasefire. The Pope's troops capitulate at Vicenza (June), Italy is defeated. Garibaldi flees into Switzerland. Venice proclaims the republic and elects

Daniele Manin (1804-57) to dictator. In March 1849 the war begins anew. After the new defeats at Mortara and Novara the king abdicates. In Naples Ferdinand II (1840-59), “Re Bomba”, supports liberal revolts and conquers Sicilia back (till September). Pius IX flees to Gaeta from the people’s movement; in February 1849 the Roman Republic is proclaimed. From “ideal center of nation” Mazzini composes a renovation program, but the Pope calls Austria, France and Naples for help. Garibaldi stops the French intervention and defeats Naples at Velletri. In June 1849 the French troops enter Rome; Garibaldi comes to San Marino, fighting adventurously. In August 1849 the capitulation of Venice after the heroic resistance ends the unsuccessful revolution. Victor Emanuel II (1849-78) concludes the peace of Milan: Austria preserves Lombardo-Venetia and the hegemony over Italy.

In the whole, the revolution was unsuccessful because of the absence of unity of leaders and the foreign intervention.

b) Italy in 1850-70.

Camillo Count Benso di Cavour (1810-61) was a pragmatic realist and a modern landlord (example land possession Leri), “Anglo-Saxonic in the ideas and Gallic in the language” (Gioberti). He is a co-editor of newspaper “Il Risorgimento” (1847), which gave the name to the epoch. Cavour, from 1850 minister in cabinet d’Azeglio, becomes prime minister of Sardinia-Piemont 1852, which developed by him to a liberal exemplary land through a free trade policy, justice reform and church law giving (“free church in free state”). His program to national unification under leadership of Sardinia: 1. Refuse from revolutionary change and self-liberation (Mazzini); 2. Liquidation of absolutism through liberal revolution and liberation of Italy with foreign help; 3. Collection of all patriots against Austria (1857 foundation of “Società nazionale Italiana”. 1855/56 participation of Sardinia in the Crimean War. Cavour gets the support of European power. The attempt of Italian nationalist Orsini to kill Napoleon III is used in the meeting in Plombières 1858: the emperor promises military help against Austria to arrange an Italian state union under Pope’s presidency (“Italy free till Adria”). Militarisation and negation of an ultimatum cause Vienna to proclaim war to Sardinia. 1859-Sardinian-French war against Austria takes place: the allies win at Magenta and Solferino (June). Revolts in Middle Italy and fear before the Prussian intruding at Rhine cause Napoleon III to the ceasefire of Villafranca (July). In November 1859 the peace of Zürich: despite the French promise Venice remains Austrian, the Lombardy is given to France. Cavour retreats from protest (till January 1860). Against the building of an Italian confederation plebiscites for the uniting with Sardinia in Bologna, Toscana, Parma and Modena are made. Napoleon supports. According to the treaty of Turin (1860) he gets Niece and Savoy against the Lombardy. In the Lower Italy Mazzinists of the democratic action party like Crispi (1819-1901) organized revolts. After the unsuccessful revolt in Palermo (1860) volunteers (“red shirts”) under Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807-82) in Marsala. In May-September 1860 “a march of thousands” through Sicily and Calabria. To prevent an anarchy and a attack for the Rome, protected from France (1849), Sardinia intrudes and beats the Pope’s troops at Castelfidardo, who capitulate in Ancona (September). The defeat of Bourbon army at Volturno and against Garibaldi at Caserta. The meeting of Victor Emanuel II with Garibaldi takes place in October, who ceases his dictatorship after the plebiscites in Umbria, the Marca and the Both Sicilies to the favor of the uniting with Sardinia. 1861 the capitulation of Gaeta (February): the Bourbons are overthrown, Franz II of Naples flees to Rome. The common Italian parliament in Turin proclaims Rome to the capital and approves Victor Emanuel II as the king of Italy (till 1878) in March 1861. The lack of money, debts, the cultural and

economical difference between North and South (in the South 75% of analphabets, the gangs), resistance against the centralism and the political overweight of Piedmont (“piemontesimo”) burden a new state. To liberate Venice a military union with Prussia (1866) and war with Austria with defeats at Custoza and Lissa takes place. Because of the French support and Prussian victories in Bohemia according to the peace of Bienna (October 1866) Venice is given to Italy, which refuses from South Tirol (Trentino) and Istria, the main goals of Irredenta (the national movement for the incorporation of “Italian people’s territories”). In the Roman question the “Consorteria” (the king’s court party) hopes a solution together with France in difference to opposition (Republicans, Mazzinists).

The Church state: the reactionary wing of curia (state secretary Antonelli), the Catholic party in France and Franz II of Naples obstruct liberal reforms and understanding with the new kingdom. Garibaldi collects volunteers, his attack (“Rome or the death”) ends already in Calabria with the defeat of Aspromonte (1862). 1864, September the convention between Piedmont and France is concluded: the French troops retreat against the defense of church state. Revolts because of moving of government sit from Turin to Florence (cabinet La Marmora), which is understood as refuse from the Rome as capital. Pius IX (1846-78) criticizes the liberal false teachings in “Syllabus errorum” (1864) and demands the subordination of state and scholarship under the church authority. 1867 the third march of Garibaldi to Rome takes place, which ends after the new landing of French troops in the battle of Mentana. 1869 the First Vatican Council (XXI Oecumenic) begins. 1870 the dogma of infallibility of Pope in the teaching opinion (ex cathedra) is proclaimed. After the French defeat in the German-French War the Italians occupy the Church state in September 1870 (General Cadorna); Pius IX is not agreed with the “warranty” of the Pope’s independence/ The Pope retains the supremacy over the Vatican state. Roma becomes a capital of Italy.

In the whole, Italy is united in this time, but the differences between North and South remain big enough.

7. Other countries in 1848-70.

In Denmark the “Eider Danish cabinet”, called by Frederick VII (1848-63), causes a Sleswig-Holstein people’s revolt and the 1st German-Danish War of 1848-50. According to the London protocol of 1852, the whole state is restored. The June constitution of 1849 proclaims the general election right and the freedom of crafts. The leading National Liberals renew the Eider politics. 1863 the November constitution and German-Danish throne struggle around Christian IX (1863-1906) take –place. The Sleswig-Holstein question is decided in the 2nd German-Danish War of 1864. The cultural, later political unification movement of Scandinavia under the Eider Danish leadership is in fact destroyed because of the Sleswig-Holstein question.

In Sweden Oskar I (1844-59) favors the Scandinavism, supporting the UK. 1848 the Swedish-Danish military convention in German-Danish conflict is concluded. 1855 the UK and France make warranty of frontiers. 1859-72 Karl XV (1859-72) gives the rule to the Prime Minister Louis de Geer (1818-96), who removes the political privileges of nobility and church through the parliament reform (1866). The new “Land men” party wins the majority, but cannot make government. In Norway after 1850 the economic ascent takes place.

In Finland Elias Lönnrot (1802-84) writes the national epics “Kalevala”, remaking the Old Finnish songs. A movement to prepare the an own state is founded by Johan Vilhelm

Snellman (1806-81), despite the contradictions between ‘Swedish Fins’ (the upper class) and ‘People’s Fins’.

In Switzerland 1856/57 the UK and France are mediators in the conflict with Prussia around Neuenburg. 1859 the soldier-of-fortune service is prohibited. The battle at Solferino causes the Henri Dunant (1828-1910) from Geneva to found the Red Cross (1864): protection of the sanitary system and care of all wounded in the war.

In Netherlands 1848 the parliamentary constitution with responsibility of ministers, finance control and colonial administration through the people’s representation (general states) is projected by the leader of Liberals Thorbecke (1798-1872)/ The state develops liberally under Wilhelm III (1849-90). In the conflict with the crown around the selling of Luxemburg to Napoleon III (1866-68) the parliament wins.

In Belgium from 1830 Leopold III rules (till 1909). The annexion plans of Napoleon III make danger to the land.

In the whole, the most European countries develop at the liberal way, but the monarchic government is preserved (besides Switzerland).

Questions:

1. Describe the cultural development of Europe in 1830-70.
2. What were the main events of the European history in 1830-1848?
3. What was the significance of revolutions of 1848-49?
4. Describe the main events of the European history in 1848-1870.

27. Eastern Europe in 1830-1870.

In Russia 19 (5) period – 1825-1855 (ca. 1820-1850) and 20 (6) period – 1855-1881 (ca. 1850-1880).

This epoch is opened with the revolt of “dekabristy” 14th December, 1825. This revolt does not look like the contemporary bourgeois revolutions in Latin America and in Europe, it looks more like Fronde of 1648-53 (refuse to make oath to Nicolas in the favor of Constantin, the noble contingent of participators etc.). In this the stadial retardation of Russia from the West was clearly expressed. Revolts in St.-Petersburg and in the Ukraine (Chernigov regiment) were cruelly suppressed, “dekabristy” were hanged or exiled into Siberia. The brother of Alexander I Nicolas I became a czar, who typologically corresponded to Louis XIV in France, but not to his contemporary Louis Philipp I (“king of bankers”). In the inner politics there is a natural for this (5th, higher mental) period striving for the reglamentation of law, 1833 the “Collection (svod) of laws of Russian empire” is edited. Serfdom was not abolished (accept Poland, where it was made already by Napoleon), what caused many revolts of peasants in 1827-1850, among them military settlers, so called “cholera mutinies”, military revolt in Sevastopol 1830 and revolt of Karmalyuk in the Ukraine, suppressed 1835. The revolt in Poland 1830-31 had other character and was in fact reactionary, because the aim of the revolting szlachta was recreation of Rzecz Pospolita in the borders of 1772. As result, “Polish kingdom” lost the autonomy, which it had after 1815, the Vilna university was closed, instead of it the University of Kiev was founded 1834. Also in Russia the industry develops, steamers and railways appear. 1800 Russia produced two percents of world industry, 1840 – already three percents, being at the fourth place in Europe (after England, France and Germany).

The foreign policy of Nicolas I had some directions. In Europe Russia continued to play part of “gendarme”, fighting revolts. 1849 Russia helps to suppress revolution in Europe. But, as Russian experience shows, friendship with Europeans brings success not always. Hypocritical European countries (England, France and Naples kingdom) “thanked”, supporting Turkey in its war with Russia and descended their armies in Crimea (so called Crimea war 1853-56). Prussia and Austria demanded from the Czar to evacuate the troops from the Danube kingdoms, threatening with a war. War was lost, as result Russia has lost the Danube estuary and the southern part of Bessarabia, it also lost the fortresses and the right to have fleet in the Black Sea. Now Russia ceased to play an important part in Europe. Its movement into Asia was more successful. After war with Iran (1826-28) Armenia and Nakhichevan came to Russia, with Turkey (1828-29) – the eastern coast of the Black Sea. War with North Caucasian tribes was more hard and last quarter a century (1834-59). Here Russia for the first time met the Islamic fanaticism, Shamil was a famous leader of the mountain people. Chechnya and Dagestan were subjugated only till 1859, Adygeya – till 1864. With this conquest of people of different culture Russia has got a lot of problems, which it has till now. Russia moves also into the Central Asia, 1853-54 the Southern Kazakhstan (Older Zhuz). In such a way losing the influence in Europe, Russia moves into Asia.

Under Nicolas the state ideology is formed, which main principles were “Orthodoxy, autocracy, people’s spirit”. The positions of Orthodoxy are strengthened, also in the education. Many new gymnasiums (with classical languages, Church Slavonic and theology) are opened. 1839 the unia in Belorussia and Ukraine was liquidated. The catechism of Metropolitan Filaret (Drosdov) in Russian is published (notice that the catechism of Martin Luther in colloquial German came 300 years earlier), but Church Slavonic remained the language of divine service, and Russia translation of the Bible was not published. Russians make missionary activity, translating the Bible into the languages of Russia : Altai (1830) and Tatar (1842) were founded. 1840 Innokenty (Veniaminov) became the first bishop of Kamchatka, including Alaska. Monastery are revived, famous saints were Serafim Sarovski (1759-1833) starcy (elders) Leonid and Makary from Optina Pustyn, Metropolitan of Kiev

Filaret (Amfiteatrov). Metropolitan of Moscow Makary (Bulgakov) was a famous theologian. Old believers created the Belaya Krinitsa hierarchy (1846). Russian intelligentsia becomes more and more oppositional to the state, two main streams are formed: westerners (Chaadaev, Herten, Ogarev, Panaev, Botkin etc.) and Slavophiles (Khomyakov, Kireevsky, brothers Aksakov etc.). Revolutionary circles of intelligentsia are suppressed by Nicholas, their participants are exiled. Despite these repressions, the flourishing of Russian culture takes place. The thinking over history continues, famous historians were S.Solovyov, Granovsky and Kostomarov. The "Golden age" of Russian literature: Pushkin, Lermontov, Gogol are working, the literary activity of Turgenev, Nekrasov and Dostoevsky begins. Belinsky was a famous literary criticist. Romanticism and "Slavophilism" awake interest to the popular Slavonic poetry and help to establish the Ukrainian and Belorussian literature, understood as a part of common Russian literature, together with Great Russian. 1834 Maximovich edits a collection of Ukrainian folk songs, 1840 "Kobzar" of Shevchenko is published. P.Kulish creates the Ukrainian alphabet. In Belorussia the activity of poet and dramatist Dunin-Marcinkevich begins. At the end of the 40-s revolutionary societies (Kirill-Mefodij, Petrashevcy etc.) are destroyed, Shevchenko has to serve as a soldier in the army, Dostoevski imprisoned and condemned to hard works (katorga), Herten and Bakunin emigrate to the west. In the revoltion of 1848-49 in the Austrian Empire the living there Western Ukrainians – "rusiny" take part, creating "Main Russian council" and "Russian council". In painting, as in literature, realism strengthens, famous painters were Venetsianov, Bryullov, Ivanov, Fedotov. Operas are created by Glinka, Shchepkin was a famous actor. Church music is written by Turchaninov (1779-1856). Russian science achieves successes too, 1826-29 Litke makes an expedition around the world. Lobachevsky creates non-Euclides geometry, Petrov and Yacobi make discoveries in the realm of electricity, Zinin - in the organic chemistry, Pirogov was a famous doctor. The technical backwardness of Russia from the west becomes noticeable in this epoch, but it is still already a long time till the end of autocracy. Despite it, to the end of period the crisis of autocracy is evident, Russia loses its influence in Europe, the country moves from Europe to Asia.

20 (6) period – 1855-1881 (ca. 1850-1880) is an epoch of rule of the great reformer Czar Alexander II the Liberator. It is a begin of transition of Russia into the epoch of New time and development of capitalism (with retardation from France ca. 150 years). The defeat of Russia in the Crimea war has convincingly shown the necessity of reforms. In the first years of rule the discussion of projects of liberation of peasants takes place, censure becomes milder. In that time the words "glasnost" and "perestroika" appear, but in difference to Gorbachev, Alexander II managed both to modernize the state and be helpful to the people. Radical intelligentsia stays at more and more non-constructive position, already in this time Herten calls Russia "to the axe". In Russia he is supported by Chernyshevsky and Dobrolyubov. 1862 Chernyshevsky is judged and exiled to Siberia. Despite the opposition of conservators of revolutionaries, reforms took place. 1861 the serfdom was abolished, 1864 the local self-government – "zemstva" and new, open court with elected judges (prisyazhnye zasedateli) were created. 1874 the military reform took place, instead of recruit system the general military duty with the service time of six years was introduced. The education system also became better, the schools and colleges for women appeared. All these reforms helped to establish capitalism, but they were unacceptable to the radical democrats, among them were now more and more "raznochincy" (people of un noble origin). The secret organizations appeared, among them "Land and will", which was splitten 1879 into the "Black redistribution" and "People's will". Most revolutionaries were "narodniki" (people's friends), but "going into the people" ended with fiasco. Revolt in Poland and Lithuania (1863-1864), led under the same reactionary slogans, as previous one, also was unsuccessful. Revolutionaries hoped more and more for the individual terror, 1866 Karakozov shoots at the Czar, finally 1881 Czar –liberator, preparing the Russian constitution, was killed by the conspirators.

In the foreign policy new successes were achieved, first of all in the Asiatic direction. According to the treaties with China (1858 and 1860) Russia has got the Amur region and the Sea coast, according to the treaty with Japan of 1875 – North Sakhalin. In Central Asia 1868 Kokand Khanate and Bukhara emirate, 1873 – Khiva khanate were subjugated. Khiva and

Bukhara remained vassals of Russia, Kokand khanate was liquidated 1876, on its base Terkestan general-governorship was created. 1871-81 Russia has also the Ili region, later returned to China. The selling of Alaska to the USA in 1867 was a mistake, in result of which Russia lost all its possessions in North America. The politics of Russia in Europe, upon Balkans, was not so successful. After the war with Turkey 1877-78, which was led under the slogans of Pan Slavism, Russia managed to abolish the treaty of 1856, has got the Southern Bessarabia and the Western Armenia. But the Balkan states, organized and strengthened with the help of Russia, - Montenegro, Serbia, Rumania and Bulgaria – soon appeared under the big western influence.

The flourishing of Russian culture continues. Russians make mission in China from 1858 (Bishop Simeon Du) and Japan (Nicolay Kasatkin, from 1870), in Korea and Persia (Urmia). Famous saints were Amvrosy from Optina pustyn (died 1891), bishops Ignaty Bryanchaninov (1807-1867) and Feofan Govorov (1815-94), church historians – Gorsky, Bolotov, Golubinsky and Glubokovsky. 1858 the Isaac cathedral in St.Petersburg (architect Monferran) was finished. In the literature Ostrovsky, Turgenev, Goncharov, Dostoevsky, Saltykov-Shchedrin were famous, Leo Tolstoy creates novels “War and society” and “Anna Karenina”. In painting the academic tradition was broken, the epoch of “moving” (peredvizhnichestvo: Kramskoy, Perov, Repin, Surikov, Vasnetsov), in music – “mighty group” (Balakirev, Musorgsky, Rimsky-Korsakov, Borodin), Kyui and Chaikovsky. The epoch is difficult for the Ukrainian (“Small Russian”) literature, 1861 Shevchenko died, 1863 and 1876 books and dramatic pieces in the Ukrainian were prohibited. Despite it, the women writers Marko Vovchok and Lesya Ukrainka appeared, in Belorussia – poets Bogushevich and Yanka Luchina. The late epoch certainly stimulates historical and philosophical investigations. Famous historians were S.Solovyev and Klyuchevsky, among Pan Slavists one can stress Danilevsky with his work “Russia and Europe”. Famous travelers were Semenov-Tyanshansky, Przhevalsky and Miklukho-Maklay, chemists – Mendeleev and Butlerov, physic – Stoletov, mathematicians – Chebyshev, Lyapunov and Sofya Kovalevskaya, working in the west. Mozhaysky invents the flying apparatus, revolutionary Kibalchich – reactive missile, Yablochkov and Lodygin – electric lamp. But already in that time native inventers had not the trust of government, which preferred the western technics. Period is very fruitful, what is typical for the late epoch.

In Greece after the murder of Kapodistrias a national assembly in Nauplia elects Otto I von Wittelsbach to the king (“Bavarocracy”). But he cannot integrate the anarchist forces, the national Greek opposition and the Orthodox conservative circles. 1837 the Athens University is opened; other cultural institutions, a modern administrative system, a reform of law system, the new constitution (1844) are the main results of his government. 1862 Otto is caused to abdicate through a military revolt. Greece becomes a constitutional monarchy under the son of Danish king Christian IX prince William, who rules as George I (1863-1913) of family Glücksburg. After the Ionian isles were given by UK (1863), the Enosis movement strives to unite all Greeks; this has a prerogative before the economic exploration. But a revolt in Crete (1866) is not successful.

Serbs receive their first constitution 1835, which is changed with the introduced by Sultan one 1838. Serbs build a state and society according to their ideas: in Belgrad a national library and a national museum are founded, a law code is created after the Austrian example. A chauvinist striving to be a great power appears, like in the secret writing of the Serbian foreign minister Ilija Gerashanin (1844). It develops a vision of the Great Serbia, remembering the empire of Stephan Dushan. The increase of population without emigration possibilities causes the partition of ground. As result, peasants become poor, the great family is destroyed. Michael Obrenovich (1860-68) is supported by the Great Serbian Omladina movement to unite all the Southern Slavs, represented in Croatia by a bishop of Djakovo Strossmayer (1815-1905). 1862 the last Turkish troops go out. His successor is Milan Obrenovich (14 years, 1868-1889), who rules autocratically despite the introduction of a liberal constitution 1869.

In Montenegro from 1860 prince Nikola I rules. 1857 in Bosnia-Herzegovina there are revolts of the Christian peasants against their Muslim landlords; but the majority of the Muslim population remains connected with the Ottoman empire.

1828-1834 the Danube princedoms are under the Russian occupation administration. 1851 the Russian and Ottoman troops leave the princedoms. 1856, according to the Paris peace, a Russian protectorate is abolished. At the initiative of France and Russia the layer parliaments of Moldavia and Rumania elect a Boyar Alexandru Joan Cuza (1820-73) to the common prince 1858. 1861 a state of Rumania is proclaimed. 1862 the common meeting of layers is approved in Bucharest and confirmed by the Porta 1864. The church possession is nationalized, peasants are liberated, law are reformed. 1866 a coup d'état overthrows Cuza; Karl von Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen is elected as Carol I (1866-1914), recommended by Napoleon III.

In difference to the former periods, now there are many orthodox states in Balkans, supported by Russia and other European powers. They get constitution after the Western example and liberate the peasants.

Questions:

1. Describe the 19 and 20 (5 and 6) periods of Russian history.
2. Describe the Balkan states in this period.

28. Jews in 1830-1870.

A. Jews in West Europe.

1831: Gabriel Riesser (1806-1863), a Jewish notary from Hamburg and a champion of emancipation, begins publishing his journal *Der Jude* ("The Jew"). Publication of the journal ceased in 1833, but Riesser continued his struggle to attain equal rights to German Jews.

1831-1896: Lifespan of financier and philanthropist Baron Maurice de Hirsch, descended from a family of Jewish court bankers.

1833: Quinet's *Ahasuerus*, Beranger's *Lament of the Wandering Jew*, later to be put to music by Gounod.

1834: "Le Juif errant, journal, revue mensuelle du progress" (three issues): "[the Wandering Jew] is humanity on the road, it is progress on the march".

1836: Samson Rahael Hirsch (1808-188) publishes "Nineteen Letters on Judaism"; Hirsch defends traditional Judaism against the Reform movement and the modernists, yet his neo-orthodoxy takes certain modern norms of behavior into account.

1837: Danish Jews become eligible for municipal election.

1837: Moses Hess publishes the first communist work in Germany: the *Sacred History of Humanity by a Disciple of Spinoza*.

1844-45: Eugène Sue publishes a feuilleton, "The Wandering Jew" in "Le Constitutionnel".

1845: Alphonse Toussenel publishes a two-volume anti-Semitic entitled *Les Juifs, rois de l'époque, histoire de la féodalité financière*, a tirade provoked by the economic success of Jews in Paris. Reform Society formed in Berlin.

1846: the oath more Judaico, considered as particularly humiliating, is abolished.

1847: Hans Christian Andersen's drama "Ahasuerus" staged in Danish.

1848: Demolition of the Ghetto walls in Rome. The German National Assembly proclaims the emancipation of the Jews. Adolphe Cremieux is appointed French Minister of Justice.

Numerous Jews participate in the revolution: in Vienna, Adolf Fischhoff heads the revolutionary Security Council, and five Jewish deputies – two from Vienna, including Fischhoff himself, one from Stanislawow, one from Cracow and one from Brody – are elected to the revolutionary parliament of Kromeriz. In Hungary, about 20,000 Jews serve in the national army; the Jews support the Hungarian national cause represented by Lajos Kossuth, who comes to the synagogue to ask the Jewish people for forgiveness for past persecutions. Marx and Engels publish the "Communist manifesto".

1849, March 4: The imperial government introduces a constitution guaranteeing in equal rights to the Jews in Austria: suppressed in 1851, emancipation will be re-introduced in 1867 and henceforth maintained.

June 5: Adoption of a liberal constitution in Denmark: article 84 implies emancipation of the Jews.

1850: Richard Wagner, *Das Judentum in der Musik* ("Judaism in music"), a virtually anti-Semitic pamphlet.

1852: "The Wandering Jew" – an opera by Eugène Scribe to music by Halevy.

1853: Founding of the Darmstaedter Bank; the Oppenheims of Cologne play a leading role in the established of this first joint stock bank in Germany.

1853-55: Arthur de Gobineau, *Essai sur l'inegalité des races humaines* ("Essay on the inequality of the human races").

1854: Zacharias Frankel becomes director of the newly founded Jewish theological seminary Breslau.

1860: Founding of the Alliance Israelite Universelle, an organization based on the French ideal of "regeneration" and one the Jewish notion of solidarity, dedicated to the modernization of Jewish communities in North Africa and the Near East.

1862: Moses Hess, "Rome and Jerusalem" – a Zionist works inspired by the unification of Italy.

1863: Wilhelm Marr, *der Judenspiegel* ("The Jew's Mirror"). Ferdinand Lassale founds the General German Workers Association.

1864: The First International led by Karl Marx.

1865: The Jews of Sweden are accorded the right to vote.
 1866: Deletion by law of the Christian portion of the oath of loyalty enables Jews in England to be elected to public office.
 1867: Franz-Joseph I accords Jews full equal rights; but the emperor's good will cannot stem the tide of rising anti-Semitism.
 1869: Zadoc Kahn is appointed Grand Rabbin of France. Mark Twain in his "Innocents Abroad" summarizes a version of the legend told in Jerusalem by his guide in the Via Dolorosa. Henri Gougenot des Mousseaux, "Le Juif, le judaisme et la judaïsation des peuples Chrétiens". This pamphlet by a "soldier of Christ", obsessed with Jews and demons, influenced the world of Edouard Drumont.
 In the whole, the situation of Jews in Western Europe became better, which brought the development of anti-Semitism.

B. Jews in East Europe.

1835: The "Constitution of 1835" limits the settlement of Jews to villages in certain regions and to some larger cities, prohibiting their residence near the western borders.
 1838: The Hasidic leadership, Israel Ruzhin, is arrested by the Russian authorities following a denunciation; released after two years, he eventually settles in Austrian Bukovina.
 1840: Nicolas I founds a "Committee for establishing means to reform the Jews of Russia", which is inspired by western models.
 1841-45: Uvarov, Russia's minister of education, invites a young maskil from Riga, Max Lilienthal, to create a network of Jewish state schools; his project encounters strong opposition among the Jews, including modernists. Lilienthal eventually emigrates to the US.
 1843: Rabbi Isaac, head of the Volozhin Yeshiva, and Rabbi Menahem Mendel of Lyubavitchi, leader of Habad, participate in a congress convened by the Russian authorities for the purpose of reforming Jewish education; faced with the dangers of government reforms and of modernity in general, Hasidim and Mitnagedim forget their differences.
 1844: Abolition of the Kahal, the Jewish self-government institution in Eastern Europe, and its replacement by government-appointed officials.
 1845: The Russian government opens two rabbinical seminaries in Vilna and in Zhitomir, designed to produce rabbis educated in the Russian and European cultures.
 1846: Sir Moses Montefiore, the British Jewish philanthropist, is received in St. Petersburg by Nicolas I; this visit was meant to improve the situation of Russian Jewry, but it is mainly used for czarist propaganda.
 1849-1857: From Kovno in Lithuania, Rabbi Israel Salanter disseminates the ideas of the Musar movement.
 1850s-1860s: Jewish periodicals in Hebrew, Russian, and Polish began to appear in St. Petersburg, Odessa, Kiev, Warsaw and Lvov.
 1853-1863: Alexander II's reforms: "useful" Jews are granted special privileges; admission of Jews to public office; encouragement of cultural assimilation and of economic activity outside the Pale of Settlement. Although intended only for the upper stratum of Jewish society, Alexander's reforms attract tens of thousands of Jews to towns in Russia's interior.
 1856: Ha-Maggid ("The Declarer"), the first Hebrew newspaper, founded by Elezer Lipmann Silberman, appears in Lyck. His intention was to distribute it in Russia (where censorship prevented its publication), offering readers news from Europe, and disseminate moderate Haskalah ideas.
 1860: Edited by Alexander Zederbaum, the first Hebrew weekly in Russia, appears in Odessa: Ha-Melitz ("The Advocate"). The same year saw the publication of the weekly Russian periodical Rassvet ("Dawn") in Odessa, propagating the ideas and ideals of the Haskalah.
 1862: The Jewish journal "Kol mevasser" ("Announcing Voice"), founded as a supplement to Ha-Melitz, disseminates scientific information in Western style.
 1863: The Polish Revolt persuades the czar to moderate his reforms, but strengthens his resolve to use the Jews as a russifying element against Polish nationalism.
 1863: Judah Leb Gordon (1831-1892) publishes the poem Hakitsa Ammi ("Awake, my people") which becomes the credo of the Hebrew Haskalah. In the same year a group of

affluent Jews in St. Petersburg found the Society for the Promotion of Culture Among the Jews; the Society finances the translation of Russia into Hebrew, distributes foreign books to the Jewish public, and offer scholarships; in 1867 it opens a branch in Odessa.

1865: Alliance school set up in Volos, Greece.

1867 Sir Moses Montefiore visits Bucharest and demands that Prince Carol put a stop to the persecution of Jews.

1869: Jacob Brafman, an apostate from Minsk, publishes “The Book of the Kahal” – a Russian translation of the protocols of the Minsk community; the book provides ammunition for anti-Semitic accusations to the effect that the Jews are maintaining a “state within a state”. In the whole, in the Eastern Europe the Jewish life became better. The economic and social upheavals liquidated the traditional way of life and caused the displacement of hundreds of thousands of Jews. The reforms of Alexander II caused emergence of a prosperous Jewish bourgeoisie and a new Jewish intelligentsia.

C. Jews of the Near East.

1830: Ishak Effendi, a Greek Jew from Yannina who converted to Islam, becomes chief instructor in the military college of engineering; through his teaching, and still more through his translations into Turkish of European scientific works, he becomes one of the pioneers of modern science in Turkey.

In the same year the French conquest of Algeria takes place; the Jewish population numbers about 17,000; many emigrate to Palestine.

1835: Mahmud II, reforming sultan, nominates officially the Hakham Bashi – chief rabbi – with jurisdiction over the entire Jewish population in the Empire.

1838: After the British conquest of Aden, Captain Haines annuls the discriminatory laws against the Jews.

1839: The conversion of Meshed: Jews of this Iranian town are forced to embrace Islam. Thirty Jews are assassinated and hundreds wounded. Aden becomes a British protectorate; Yemenite Jewry is exposed to the outside world.

1840: The Damascus ritual-murder libel, inspired by the example of Greece and Serbia: the leaders of the Jewish community accused of murdering an Italian Capuchin friar and his Muslim servant in order to use their blood for Passover. Judah Alkalai, a rabbi from Bosnia, proposes a novel solution to the Jewish question: restoration of Jewish sovereignty in the Land of Israel in the Land of Israel by human efforts alone. Sir Moses Montefiore and Adolphe Crémieux, Salomon Munk as well as the brothers Jacob and Solomon Rothschild visit the Middle East.

1841: Abolition of the rabbinical courts in Algeria.

1842: In Izmir, publication of Buena Esperanza, the first weekly in Ladino, to be followed by about 300 other newspapers and journals in the following century.

1845, November 5: Abolition of the traditional organization of the Algerian communities and their replacement by consistories according to the French model.

1854: A new regulation in Alexandria separates religious affairs, reserved for rabbinical jurisdiction, from general administrative matters for an elected committee.

1856: The Batto Sfez affair in Tunisia.

1857: The ‘Pacte Fondamental’ in Tunisia grants equal rights in Jews. Doctor Lumbroso, in charge of the health service of the Tunisian army, helps many Jews attain important positions in the country’s economy. During the 1860s when Tunisia finds itself on the verge of bankruptcy, Lumbroso is elected to the commission responsible for regulating its public debt. Another Jew, Jacob Guttieres, is one of the main creditors of the bey. Approximately, 70% of Tunisia’s public debt is in the hands of Jewish businessmen.

1859: The French-Moroccan War: several hundred Jews from Tetuan leave for Algeiras, Gibraltar, and Oran; many of them then continue to London and Manchester. Rabbi Jacob Saphir of Jerusalem makes an extended visit to Yemen; his book, Hadrei Teiman (The interior of Yemen) is a captivating testimony to the life of Yemenite Jewry in this period.

1862-1867: Alliance Israelite Universelle (Paris) schools are opened in Tetuan (Morocco), Istanbul, Baghdad, Edirne.

1864: Montefiore's visit to Morocco. Suspension of the "Pacte Fondamental" in Tunisia. Reorganization of the Jewish courts in the Ottoman Empire (Hakham Khane).

1865: massacre of Jews in Barforush.

1868: Jacopo Castelnovo, a Jew originating from Livorno, represents the Tunisian authorities in negotiations with Italy concerning Tunisia's debt.

1869: Opening of the Suez Canal: thousands of Jewish immigrants from the Near East, the Balkans, and Eastern Europe flock to Egypt. In the same year, the Alliance begins its activities in Aleppo and Beirut.

1869-70: The first modern road from Jaffa to Jerusalem.

1870: Castelnovo founds the Societa anonima commercial, industrial e Agricola per Tunisia, an immense investment company which includes certain Florentine bankers among its main shareholders. October 24: The Cremieux Decree confers French nationality on Algerian Jews. In the whole, despite the anti-Semitic allegations, the situation of Jews in the Near East becomes better in this time, which causes a new wave of immigration.

Questions:

1. Describe the situation of Jews in Western Europe.
2. What changes were in the situation of Russian Jews in this time?
3. What was the situation of Jews in the Near East?

29. Islamic world in 1830-1870.

A. The Ottoman Empire in 1830-1870.

Till 1839 Mahmud II rules. 1831 the timar-system is abolished. 1832 the first Ottoman state newspaper after the European example appeared. 1836/38 a foreign ministry and a minister presidium is established. Shortly before his death a sultan, who was a son of the French woman, calls a young Prussian officer Helmuth von Moltke as an adviser of the army reform. Sultan Abdulmejid (Abd al-Majid) I (1839-61) continues the reforms. 1839 The Hatt-i-Sherif of Gülhane is proclaimed. The main rights are secured, fief and tax lease is abolished. It proclaims the equal rights of non-Muslims; at the same time it limits the autonomy of the communities by reinforcing state control over their institutions. 1840 the first official newsletter appears, a French bank is opened. 1843 the recruit system is reformed, 1846 the first Ottoman university is founded, 1854 a council as a legislative organ is built. 1856 the second reform declaration in the Ottoman Empire – the Hatt-i Humayun is proclaimed. It documents the reform epoch of ‘Tanzimat-i Hayriye’ (the healing new order). It promises religious freedom to all communities, the right to build new houses of prayer, open schools and charity institutions; it also omits the omission of all humiliating references in official documents, and, most importantly, the abolition of Jizya – the special poll tax on non-Muslims; the latter, however, was immediately replaced by a special tax in lieu of conscription. 1861 a council is established, whose members are called by a minister council, which can prove the administration in the cause of law keeping. 1856 a first Ottoman bank is founded. 1859 the attempts of Conservatives to stop the reforms (kuleli vakasi). Sultan Abdulaziz (1861-76) continues the reforms, first of all law procedure and education. 1867 he as the first Sultan visits Europe. 1868 a state council is established, who has to control the ministries and works as the Supreme Court.

1833 in Hunkar Iskelesi Russia concludes a help treaty with the Ottoman treaty; 1849 in Balta Liman it concludes anew an anti-revolutionary convention over a common policy in the Danube principedoms. 1841 according to the Dardanelles treaty of London the sea straits are closed for the non-Turkish war ships. 1853-56 Russia is defeated by the west powers in the Crimea war. In the peace of Paris (1856) the territorial independence of the Ottoman Empire is secured, the Black Sea neutralized. The Ottoman Empire becomes dependent from the European powers. 1838 in the treaty of Balta Liman UK gets preference tolls for English wares and 1854 the empire borrows at UK and France.

In Egypt 1831-33 Ibrahim conquers Syria and invades Anatolia (1832 victory at Konya); in the treaty of Kütahija (1833) the Sultan gives Syria to Egypt. 1836 Muhammad Ali invades Arabia and Sudan, but UK conquers Aden 1839. The troops of Sultan are defeated at Nisibin (Zip) 1839 at the attempt to reconquer Syria. 1841 Muhammad Ali becomes a hereditary vice-king of Egypt, formally under the Ottoman supremacy, de facto independent. But already 1840 his modernization attempt does not have success, firstly because of the English pressure – Egypt has to recognize the treaty of Balta Liman, secondly because a modernization is a strict revolution from over. After the death of Muhammad Ali and his son Ibrahim (1848) the reform attempts under the vice-king Ismail (1863-79) are made again. The increase of cotton trade in the time of the American Civil War improves the state income. But the expensive measures of Europeisation and further expeditions at the Red Sea and in Sudan causes financial difficulties and high foreign debts. Egypt has to sell his Suez shares to the UK (opening of the Suez channel 1869). 1866 the notables’ assembly is summoned.

In the whole, the Ottoman Empire is modernized in this time. A row of territories in the Balkan Peninsula became autonomous, as well as Egypt. The empire becomes dependent from the Western powers.

B. Iran, Afghanistan and Central Asia in 1830-1870.

Muhammad Shah, the grandson of Fath Ali Shah (1834-48) besieges Herat 1837-38.

Nasiraddin Shah rules 1848-96. The great emir Mirza Taqi Khan (1848-51) makes a centralistic modernization of Persian army, finances and education. 1852 he is murdered.

1839 Aga Khan, a head of Ismailites, revolts in Kerman, but has to flee to India (1842). 1842 revolts in the sect of "Bab" Saiyid Ali Muhammad Shirazi (1819-1850), who represents himself as the receiver of divine revelation, take place. After a pilgrimage to Najaf and Kerbela 1843 he declares himself as a connection man to the hidden Imam under the influence of Shaihiya in Shiraz. 1847 in Bushirek he is proclaimed to Imam, to "bab" (door to the knowledge of divine wisdom). He demands the abolition of Islam law, because the final time began, a new divine order instead of Koran, social righteousness, equality of women, private property, tax lowering etc. Because Bab fought openly against the corrupt secular and spiritual power, at the demand of ulama he is executed in Tebriz 1850. 1848-52 the Bab revolts in South Iran take place. When 1852 an attempt to kill Shah follows, the mass executions take place. The British military mission leaves Persia 1834. 1837-38 Herat is besieged by Persia, which is supported by Russia; on the other side, Persia secures good relation to the UK with other privileges (1838-41). Russia and the UK try to extend their influence in Afghanistan in the same time (1838-42). 1842 Dost Muhammad from the Barakzai dynasty becomes an only ruler of Afghanistan and resides in Kabul. He defends Afghanistan against Englishmen, Persians and Russians. 1856-57 the UK has war against Persia because of the conquest of Herat through Persian troops; because of the Sepoy revolt in India the UK is ready for peace. But Persia has to evacuate Afghanistan and recognize its independence. Senir Ali Khan (1863-79) has treaty with Persia about the border 1863. Afghanistan remains a buffer state between Russian and British interests. 1864 the UK gets concession for the building of Persian telegraph system. The Bahai movement, founded by Mirza Husain Ali Nuri (Bahaallah = "Glance of God"; 1817-92) becomes a continuation of the Bab teaching. 1863 Bahaallah declares in Baghdad that he is prophet, proclaimed by Bab, the manifestation of God's will. At the order of the Ottoman government he lives in 1868-92 in Akka (Iraq) and is active in Iran subversively. 1848 the region of Big Horde is incorporated into the Russian empire. Till 1870 there are Kazakh revolts. 1839-42 the attacks of Bukhara at Kokand follow. 1855 the Russian invasion begins. In stages (1865, 1868 and 1876) Russia conquers the Kokand Khanate. Already 1867 a Russian general-government Turkestan with a center in Tashkent is founded. 1868 Bukhara becomes a Russian protectorate. The eastern region came to China.

C. Culture of the Near East in 1830-1870.

1831 the "Ottoman Monitor" is published.

1845 the University of Istanbul is founded.

1850 the Academy of Sciences is founded in Istanbul.

1866 College in Beirut is founded by the protestant missionaries, later the American university. The Christians Butrus al-Bustani (1819-1883), Nasif al-Yaziji (1800-1871) and Faris ash-Shidyah (1804-1887) are the so called "three of Beirut". Initially (Catholic) Maronite, then Protestant, al-Bustani as teacher at the Beirut College writes essays about Arabic language and literature and composes an Arabic dictionary. His encyclopedia in Arabic is the most important and was continued by his sons (Vol. 1-9 in Beirut, Vol. 10-11 in Cairo). It is modern standard work, appreciated also outside the Islamic world.

In the whole, there are many reforms in the Near East, which becomes more and more dependent from the West.

Questions:

1. Describe the reform movement in the Ottoman Empire.
2. What were the main events of Iranian history?
3. Describe the culture of this time.

30. Africa in 1830-1870.

In the North African Berber states the Ottoman governors, yeniceri, corsairs and European consuls fight for power. France reclaims itself as the “fighter for European culture and civilization”. The colored elite is assimilated in the colonies (Senegambia and Réunion). From 1830 Algeria is occupied, secured by the founded 1831 foreign legion from political emigrants, deserters and adventurers. The French movement is fought by the Berber tribes under Emir Abd el Kader (1807-1883) at the foundation of Qadiriya. The Egyptian prestige policy (Thiers) confronts with the Oriental crisis: a British-Russian-Prussian convention causes France to leave support of Egypt, Syria is returned to the Ottoman empire. France makes planless conquests in Africa (Gabon 1843/44). General-governor Bugeaud (1784-1849) rules in Algeria despotically 1840-47. 1844 victory at Isle River over the Sultan of Morocco; Abd al Kader capitulates 1847. General Faidherbe (1818-89) reorganizes Senegal 1854-65, founds Dakar 1857 and builds African troops (Senegales) for expeditions inside the country. The relations to Egypt are promoted, which is seen as the French protectorate after the building of Suez channel.

In Tunis the constitution of 1855/59 is accepted.

In Sudan the feudal buildings dominate the local tribe unions. In the West Sudan (Timbuktu) El Hadj Omar Tall (1797-1864) of Tijaniya order founds a theocracy. 1854 conflict with the French expansion at the upper Niger; 1861 conquest of Segu. Mohammed Bello (died 1837), lord of Sokoto, wins supremacy over the Ful states. Under the British protectorate the power of emirs is not damaged.

The order of Sanusiya is founded 1837 by Muhammad ibn Ali as-Sanusi (1787-1859), a pupil of Ibn Idris. He has to leave Mecca (1843) and lives in Jaghbub in the Libyan Desert from 1856. The “Sufi loges” from Timbuktu till Cyrenaica are built. Sanusiya is the beginning of the independent Libyan state.

In Ethiopia many emperors rule for a short time. Under the Emperor [Tewodros II](#) (1855–1868) the empire began to emerge from its isolation. Emperor Tewodros (or Theodore) II was born *Lij* Kassa in Qwara, in 1818. His father was a small local chief, and his relative (possible uncle) *Dejazmach* [Kinfu](#) was governor of the provinces of [Dembiya](#), Qwara and [Chelga](#) between Lake Tana and the northwestern frontier. Kassa lost his inheritance upon the death of Kinfu while he was still a young boy. After receiving a traditional education in a local monastery, he went off to lead a band of bandits that roved the country in a Robin Hood-like existence. His exploits became widely known, and his band of followers grew steadily until he led a formidable army. He came to the notice of the ruling Regent, Ras Ali, and his mother Empress [Menen Liben Amede](#) (wife of the puppet Emperor [Yohannes III](#)). In order to bind him to them, Ras Ali and the Empress arranged for Kassa to marry Ali's daughter, and upon the death of his uncle Kinfu, he was made chief of Kwara and all Dembea with the title of Dejazmatch. He turned his attention to conquering the remaining [chief divisions of the country](#), Gojjam, Tigray and Shewa, which still remained unsubdued. His relations with his father-in-law and grandmother-in-law deteriorated however, and he soon took up arms against them and their vassals, and was successful.

On February 11, 1855, Kassa deposed the last of the Gondarine puppet Emperors, and was crowned *negusa nagast* of Ethiopia under the name of Tewodros II. He soon after advanced against Shewa with a large army. Chief of the notables opposing him was its king [Haile Melekot](#), a descendant of [MeridazmachAsfa Wossen](#). Dissensions broke out among the Shewans, and after a desperate and futile attack on Tewodros at [Dabra Berhan](#), Haile Melekot died of illness, nominating with his last breath his eleven-year-old son as successor (November 1855) under the name Negus Sahle Maryam (the future emperor [Menelek II](#)). [Darge](#), Haile Melekot's brother, and Ato Bezabih, a Shewan noble, took charge of the young prince, but after a hard fight with Angeda,

the Shewans were obliged to capitulate. Sahle Maryam was handed over to the Emperor, taken to Gondar, and there trained in Tewodros's service, and then placed in comfortable detention at the fortress of Magdala. Tewodros afterwards devoted himself to modernizing and centralizing the legal and [administrative structure of his kingdom](#), against the resistance of his governors. Sahle Maryam of Shewa was married to Tewodros II's daughter Alitash.

In 1865, Sahle Maryam escaped from [Maqdala](#), abandoning his wife, and arrived in Shewa, and was there acclaimed as [Negus](#). Tewodros forged an alliance between Britain and Ethiopia, but as explained in the next section, he committed suicide after a military defeat by the British. On the death of Tewodros, many Shewans, including Ras Darge, were released, and the young Negus of Shewa began to feel himself strong enough, after a few preliminary minor campaigns, to undertake offensive operations against the northern princes. But these projects were of little avail, for Ras Kassai of Tigray, had by this time (1872) risen to supreme power in the north. Proclaiming himself *negusa nagast* under the name of Yohannes (or John) IV, he forced Sahle Maryam to acknowledge his overlordship.

When Tewodros (emperor from 1855 to 1868) died in 1868, three men emerged hoping to become the next emperor: Wagshum Gobaze Gebre Medhen of Lasta, King Menelik II of Shewa, and Dajazmach Kassa Mercha of Tigray. Wagshum Gobaze was the ruler of Amhara, Wag, and Lasta. When Tewodros was killed, Gobaze occupied Gondar and crowned himself Emperor Tekle Giyorgis II. No one took his coronation seriously because there was no *abun*. The second aspiring man, Menelik, became prominent once he escaped from Tewodros' imprisonment in 1865. After his escape, with the support of family and friends, he became the ruler of the province of Shewa. But it was the third man, the one who wanted the title the least, who became the next true leader of Ethiopia.

In early 1868, the British force seeking Tewodros' surrender, after he refused to release imprisoned British subjects, arrived on the coast of Massawa. The British and Dajazmach Kassa came to an agreement in which Kassa would let the British pass through Tigray (the British were going to Magdala which Tewodros had made his capital) in exchange for money and weapons. Surely enough, when the British completed their mission and were leaving the country, they rewarded Kassa for his cooperation with artillery, muskets, rifles, and munitions, all in all worth approximately £500,000. This formidable gift came in handy when in July 1871 the current emperor, Emperor Tekle Giyorgis II, attacked Kassa at his capital in Adwa, for Kassa had refused to be named a ras or pay tribute (Marcus, H. 2002, 72). Although Kassa's army was outnumbered 12,000 to the emperor's 60,000, Kassa's army was equipped with more modern weapons and better trained. At battle's end, forty percent of the emperor's men had been captured. The emperor was imprisoned and would die a year later. Six months later on 21 January 1872, Kassa became the new emperor under the name Yohannes IV.

Ethiopia was not colonized by a European power until 1936; however, several colonial powers had interests and designs on Ethiopia in the context of the 19th century "[Scramble for Africa](#)."

When [Victoria](#), Queen of the United Kingdom, in 1867 failed to answer a letter Tewodros II of Ethiopia had sent her, he took it as an insult and imprisoned several British residents, including the [consul](#). An army of 12,000 was sent from Bombay to Ethiopia [to rescue the captured nationals](#), under the command of Sir [Robert Napier](#). The Ethiopians were defeated, and the British stormed the fortress of Magdala (now known as [Amba Mariam](#)) on April 13, 1868. When the Emperor heard that the gate

had fallen, he fired a pistol into his mouth and killed himself. Sir Robert Napier was raised to the peerage, and given the title of Lord Napier of Magdala.

In the East Africa the center of slave trade is a sultanate of Sansibar. Against Arabic slave hunters the African chieftains conclude the protective treaties with the UK (Jackson) and Germans (Peters). Feudal despoties (Ashanties) use African tribes for the slave trade. King Geso of Dagomey (1818-58) organizes women's regiments and attacks Yoruba, the "land of cities". The bronze art and administration are at the high level also in Benin. From the settlement of liberated and returned from America slaves, founded 1822, the independent republics of Liberia is built 1847. British abolitions of the slave trade (1833) and of the slave export (1841) hinder the trade. Danish and Dutch factories are liquidated. Only France builds its colonial empire from Algeria, Senegambia, Gabon from the middle of the XIXth century. Christian missions found stations, hospitals, schools. The inside contradictions and slave liberation in the British Cape colony (from 1806/14) cause about 10,000 conservative Boers to the "Great Trek" inside the country (1836-44). After the fights with Ndebele and Zulus and British annexion of Natal they found the Orange free state (1842, becomes British till 1854) and Transvaal (1853, the South African Republic). The gold finds attracts immigrants (uitlanders). Englishmen under Sir Harry Smith (1846-52) annexes the region between the Orange and the Vaal rivers as the Orange River sovereignty.

In the whole, Africa becomes more and more an object of European colonial expansion. France begins to create its own colonial empire. But the most territories remain unoccupied and even unexplored. The most important of them is Ethiopia, ruled by an Oriental Christian emperor.

Questions:

1. What are the main events in the North Africa?
2. Describe the history of Ethiopia in this time.
3. What was the main conflict in South Africa?

31. India and neighbor countries in 1830-1870.

In this time the UK conquers the whole India. 1831 the holy war against Sikhs and British in the North-West ends, but the revolt in Bengal takes place. Sind is conquered 1843, Punjab – 1846-49. In the next years the frontiers are secured. Russian expansion in the Central Asia causes the British involvement in the Afghanian throne succession (the first Afghan war 1839-42). After the attack at the British garrison in Kabul the British soldiers leave the land. In the second Burma war the Lower Burma is annexed (1852). 1835 the British high school system is introduced, the tradition Indian education system decays. 1848-56 Lord Dalhousie was Governor-General of India. As reaction to the British colonial exploitation the Sepoy revolt (“mutiny”, 1857-58) takes place. The main causes of it are: 1. The defeats of British troops in Afghanistan destroyed their reputation to be invincible. 2. Heavy taxes brought damage to peasants and landlords, British creditors bought land for low prices. 3. Tilling of monocultures in the Ganges valley causes the deficit of alimentary wares. 4. The propaganda of Christian missionaries causes the reaction of Hindus and Muslims. The mutiny of Indian soldier troops begins in a garrison near Delhi and extends between Barrackpore near Calcutta and Meerut near Delhi over the whole North India. Centers of fight are Delhi, Lucknow, Cawnpore and Gwalior. The small British troops could not suppress the revolt. Fights are fought mercilessly by both sides, women and children are victims. The British government receives the additional forces, among them the unities, returned from the Crimea/ Sikhs and Gurkhas. Indians defend under the leadership of Marathi Rani of Jhansi. She is murdered in the battle of Gwalior (1859), other leaders of revolt are executed. The last Mogul emperor Bahadur Shah II is dethroned and dies in Burma in exile. 1858 the East Indian company is dissolved; India becomes a British vicekingdom. The forms and symbols of Moghul domination are taken over, the old culture, religion and property relations are recognized. 1865 the puffer state of Bhutan is organized.

1832 a Hebrew grammar book in Marathi is appeared. 1840 a Cochin Jew establishes the first Hebrew printing press in India. 1846 translation of the Haggadah into Marathi.

After Shariatulla’s death under his son Dulhu Mijan (1819-60), a weaver from the Faridpur region in Bengaly, a military brotherhood against British and Hindu landlords. Ahl al-Hadith movement, whose main representative is Nawwab Siddiq Hasan Khan of Bhopal (1832-90), mulla from Kanauj, postulates the strict following to the prophetic tradition and is an enemy of Sir Saiyid S. Nadwi, who refutes the parts of Hadith and is condemned as “najcharis” (prophet of nature worshippers). Hasan Ali Shah (1800-1881), head of the Persian Nizarites in Mahallat (south-west Qom); he becomes the title Aga Khan from the Shah; after the revolt of 1842 he flees over Afghanistan to Bombay (1845); further centers are Poona and Bangalore. Maulana Imdallah (died 1899), exiled in Mecca, founds from there the fundamentalist, theological high school in Deoband; the works of Rumi are obligatory. Bahadur Shah Zafar (1775-1862), the last Moghul emperor, is a writer. His collected works were published 1845 and 1861. 1857 he formulates the idea of a Islamic cooperation in India. Dayânand Sarasvati (1824-1883) is a founder of “Ârya-samâj” (The community of Arians), which pleads for the return to the Vedic traditions and is propagated in the whole North India. The first Hindu drama is a “Nahuṣ -nâtak” of Giridhardâs, composed in 1857. Another famous Hindi drama is a “Jânakîmangal” of Śîtalprasâd Tivârî, which was staged in Benares 1868. Some Rajas wrote poetry, like Maharaja Mân Singh from Audh (died 1873). A contemporary of Zafar was a Shiite Asadullah Khan, called Mirza Noshah from Akbarabad, known under his poetic name Ghâlib (died 1869), who stays at the ground of Persian poetry. The last independent ruler of

Avadh (Lucknow), Wajid Ali Shah, whose poetic name was Akhtar (star), was dethroned by Englishmen 1856 and lived many years in Calcutta. His poems were edited 1861. The most popular poet of Lucknow was Shite Sayyid Agha Hasan, whose poetic name was Amānat (1816-58). His work “Indarsabhā” is a first drama in Urdu. The lithography was used in Delhi from 1837. From the Kashmir writers Mahmud Gami is the most famous (died 1855). The biggest master of the Gujarati literature is Brahman Dayârām (1767-1852). The famous prose writers were Brahman Narmadâsankar (1833-1886) from Surat and Dalpatrām (1820-98). Ranchorbhâi Udayarām is a creator of an independent Gujarati theatre. The historic novel “Karan Ghelo” (1868) is written by Nandsankar Tuljâsankar. Bhoġlânâth Sârâbhâi (1823-1886) is a founder of a reformatory Prârthanâ-samâj and composes religious hymns. In Marathi Vishnupant Bhâve with his theatre troop makes the first plays in the European style 1853. In Bengali plays were written by Râmnârâyaṇ Tarkaratna (1856) and Dînabandhu Mitra (1829-1873). Michael Madhusûdan Datta was a famous poet, Bankimcandra Cattopâdhyâya (1838-1894) became a “father of Bengalian novel”. In Tamil Catholic Vêdanâyagam Pillai wrote novels; the Evangelic Vêdanâyagam Śâstrî (died 1864) composed many Christian songs, the Tamil Gospel harmony in poetry and many works about the history of South Indian states.

In the whole, India was colonized fully in this time. Despite it, the Indian culture continues to develop (mostly in the new languages); the religious reformers try to renew old religions, the English influence becomes more and more evident.

In Thailand Rama III (1824-1851), Rama IV (1851-1868) and Rama V (1868-1910) rule.

Rama III Jessalabodindra succeeded his father, [Buddha Loetla Nabhalai](#), as the [King of Siam](#). His succession was unusual according to the traditions because Jessadabodindra was a son of a concubine rather than a queen. He surpassed Prince [Mongkut](#), who was a legitimate son of Buddha Loetla Nabhalai born to Queen [Srisuriyendra](#). During Jessadabodindra's reign, military hegemony of Siam could be observed through a series of massive wars in [Laos](#), [Cambodia](#), and [Vietnam](#). Jessadabodindra was known for his affection of [Chinese culture](#). As a young prince, he was also known as a great businessman who conducted profitable trades with China and enriched the royal treasury.

During the reign of Rama IV Mongkut, the pressure of [Western expansionism](#) was felt for the first time in Siam. Mongkut embraced Western innovations and initiated the modernization of Siam, both in technology and culture—earning him the nickname "The Father of Science and Technology" in Siam. Mongkut was also known for his appointment of his brother, [Prince Chutamani](#), as vice-king. Prince Chutamani was crowned in 1851 as King [Pinklao](#). Mongkut himself assured the country that Pinklao should be respected with equal honor to himself. Mongkut's reign was also the time when the power of the [House of Bunnag](#) reached its zenith and became the most powerful noble family of Siam.

Siam and Annam fight for the remnant of the Khmer state. To defend against Siam Norodon (1859-1904) asks for the French protection (1863).

1841 in Borneo the line between the influence spheres of Netherlands and the UK is made. In Malacca 1857-63 the civil war in Pahang because of the throne struggle; 1866-1873 the civil war against the central power and the chieftains because of partition of profits from the tin export and against the Chinese domination. In Sumatra 1839 the Padri wars of Wahhabites with forced conversion end with the help of colonial power (began 1803). In Borneo 1853-61

rebellions against the colonial power in Sarawak, Brunei and North Borneo take place. In the whole, Indonesia becomes more and more the Dutch colony.

In the 1840-s many workers from the English industry cities migrate into the former punishment colony Australia. After the gold was found in the New South Wales 1851, the current increased. Immigrants expel the natives (aborigines) of Australoid race, who came there from the north ca. 40,000 years ago. Many died from the infection illnesses, brought by the white men or are murdered. The settler saw Australia as nobody's land that could be exploited according to their wish. Whole tribes, who tried to oppose the European settlement, were murdered or deported. Because of these "ethnic purges" ca. 1835 in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania from 1855) there were almost no aborigines. The British colonies in Australia (New South Wales, founded in 1788, South Australia, founded on novel lines by Edward Gibbon Wakefield in 1836, and Victoria, separated from it in 1850) have got an autonomy? In difference to backward Western Australia, founded 1829 and Van Diemen's Land, which was still too full of convicts or ex-convicts, which had been shipped there in enormous numbers after New South Wales ceased to receive them in 1840.

In the 1830-s the settlement projects brought a permanent current of migrants to New Zealand. The treaty of Waitangi (1840) brought these islands under the British supremacy, but in this case the Englishmen recognized the land rights of the native Maoris (of Polynesian origin). But the White settlers did not respect their right from the beginning, and in the next forty years there were bloody conflicts up and to. New Zealand received a constitution in 1852.

Questions:

1. Describe the Indian history in this time.
2. Describe the Indian culture in this time.
3. Why could Thailand preserve independence in this time?
4. What were the main events in the Indonesian history in this period?
5. What was the settlement of Australia and New Zealand by the Englishmen?

32. China and neighbor countries in 1830-1870.

A. China and neighbor countries in 1830-70.

Till 1850 emperor Daoguang continues to rule. He issued many [edicts](#) against [opium](#) in the 1820s and 1830s, which were carried out by Commissioner [Lin Zexu](#). Lin Zexu's effort to halt the spread of opium in China led directly to the First Opium War. With the development of the [Opium War](#), Lin was made a scapegoat and the Daoguang emperor removed Lin's authority and banished him to [Yili](#). Meanwhile in the [Himalayas](#), the [Sikh Empire](#) attempted an occupation of [Tibet](#) but were defeated in the [Sino-Sikh war](#) (1841-1842). But on the coasts, technologically and militarily inferior to the European powers, China lost the war and surrendered [Hong Kong](#) by way of the [Treaty of Nanking](#) in August 1842. In 1831 Daoguang killed his own 23 year old son after striking him. In 1831 an attempt was made to usurp the throne and oust Daoguang by someone else. In 1850 this happened again, though it did not succeed.

In 1811 a clause sentencing Europeans to death for spreading [Catholicism](#) had been added to the statute called "Prohibitions Concerning Sorcerers and Sorceresses" in the [Great Qing Code](#). Protestants hoped that the Chinese government would discriminate between [Protestantism](#) and Catholicism, since the law mentioned the latter by name, but after Protestant [missionaries](#) gave Christian books to Chinese in 1835 and 1836, the Daoguang Emperor demanded to know who were the "traitorous natives" in [Canton](#) who had supplied them with books. The foreign missionaries were strangled or expelled by the Chinese.

Then emperor Xianfeng rules (1850-1861). He succeeded the throne in 1850, at age 19, and was a relatively young Emperor. He inherited a dynasty that faced challenges not only internally but also foreign. The situation was not reflected at all by his [reign title](#), [Xianfeng](#), which means "Universal Prosperity." In 1850 began the first of a series of popular rebellions that brought the Dynasty close to its demise. The [Taiping Rebellion](#) began in December of 1850, when [Hong Xiuquan](#) a [Hakka](#) leader of a syncretistic Christian sect defeated local forces sent to disperse his followers and proclaimed the beginning of the establishment of the [Taiping Heavenly Kingdom](#), the rebellion spread to several provinces with amazing speed. The next year the [Nien Rebellion](#) started in [North China](#). The Nien movement, unlike the Christian Taipings', lacked a clear political program, but they became a serious threat to [Beijing](#) with the mobility of their cavalry based armies. Fixed between two powerful forces the Qing suffered defeat after defeat.

In 1853 the Taiping [captured Nanjing](#) and for a while it seemed that Beijing would fall next but the Taiping northern expedition was defeated and the situation stabilized. Xianfeng dispatched several prominent mandarins, like [Zeng Guofan](#), and Imperial relatives, like the Mongol general [Senggelingin](#), to crush the rebellions, with limited success. In 1854 started the biggest [revolt](#) of the [Miao people](#) against Chinese rule in history, rebellion which ravaged the region until finally put down in 1873. In 1856 an attempt to regain Nanjing was [was defeated](#) and the [Panthay Rebellion](#) broke out in [Yunnan](#).

The Russian-Chinese frontier is delimited in the Aigun treaty 1858. The Primorye (Sea land) is given to Russia 1860.

While in the Chinese interior rebel armies were raised everywhere, in the coasts an initially minor incident (the misuse of the British flag in a junk (lorcha) triggered the [Second Opium War](#). Anglo-French forces, after inciting a few battles on the coast near [Tianjin](#), of which not all were victories, attempted "negotiation" with the Qing

Government. Xian Feng, under the influence of the Concubine Yi (later the [Empress Dowager Cixi](#)), believed in Chinese superiority and would not agree to any colonial demands. He delegated [Prince Gong](#) for several negotiations but relations broke down completely when a British diplomatic envoy, Sir Harry Parkes, was arrested during negotiations on 18 September.

The Anglo-French invasion clashed with Sengge Rinchen's Mongolian cavalry on 18 September near Zhangjiawan before proceeding toward the outskirts of Beijing for a decisive battle in Tongzhou District, Beijing. On 21 September, at the [Battle of Palikao](#), Sengge Rinchen's 10,000 troops including elite Mongolian cavalry were completely annihilated after several doomed frontal charges against concentrated firepower of the Anglo-French forces, which entered Beijing on 6 October.

On 18 October 1860, the western forces went on to loot and burn the Imperial Summer Palaces of [Qīngyī Yuán](#) and [Yuánmíng Yuán](#). Upon learning about this news, Xianfeng's health quickly turned for the worst.

While negotiations with the European powers were in deliberation, Emperor Xianfeng and his Imperial entourage fled to the northern palace in [Jehol](#) in the name of annual Imperial hunt. Becoming more ill physically, Xian Feng's ability to govern also deteriorated, leading to competing ideologies in court that eventually formed two distinct factions — those under the rich Manchu [Sushun](#), Princes [Yi](#) and [Zheng](#); and those under the [Concubine Yi](#), supported by Gen. [Ronglu](#) and Yehenala [Bannermen](#). Xian Feng died on 22 August 1861, at the imperial summer resort in [Jehol](#), 230 kilometers northeast of [Beijing](#). Being succeeded by his one surviving son, [Zaichun](#), who was barely 6 years old, Xianfeng had summoned Sushun and his group to his bedside a day before, giving them an Imperial Edict dictating the power structure during the young Emperor's minority. The edict appointed four members of the Imperial line, namely, [Zaiyuan](#), the Prince Yi; Duanhua, the Prince Zheng; Duke Jingshou; and [Sushun](#), and four Ministers, Muyin, Kuangyuan, Du Han, and Jiao Youying, as the eight members of a new regency council to aid the young Emperor. By tradition, after the death of an Emperor, the body was to be accompanied to the Capital by the regents. Concubine Yi and the Empress, who were now both given titles of [Empress Dowager](#), traveled to Beijing ahead of time, and planned a coup that ousted Sushun from the regency. The Concubine Yi would subsequently rule China for the next 47 years, as the [Empress Dowager Cixi](#).

Emperor Xianfeng was interred in the [Eastern Qing Tombs](#), 125 kilometers/75 miles east of [Beijing](#), in the Dingling ("Tomb of Quietude") mausoleum complex.

Xian Feng's reign saw the continued decline of the Qing dynasty. Mired by the rise of rebellions in the country, coincidentally starting the year of his reign - which would not be quelled until well entered the reign of the [Tongzhi Emperor](#), resulting in millions of death. Xian Feng also had to deal with the English and French closer to home and their ever growing appetite to expand trade further into China. Xian Feng, who was not unlike his predecessor and father, the Daoguang Emperor, understood very little about the Europeans and their mindset. While westerners saw different nations as equals deserving mutual respect as an international norm, Xian Feng viewed non-Chinese Europeans as inferior and regarded the Europeans repeated requests to be treated as equal as an offence. When the Europeans introduced the long held concept of an exchanged consular relationship, Xianfeng quickly rebuffed the idea.

During the Second Opium War, repeated requests by Europeans to meet with Xian Feng were also denied. At the time of Xian Feng's death, he had not even once met any foreign dignitaries.

The **Tongzhi Emperor** (27 April 1856 – 12 January 1875), born **Aisin-Gioro Dzai Šun**, was the tenth [emperor](#) of the [Manchu](#)-led [Qing Dynasty](#), and the eighth Qing emperor to rule over [China](#), from 1861 to 1875. His reign, which effectively lasted through his adolescence, was largely overshadowed by the rule of his mother, the [Empress Dowager Cixi](#). Although he had little influence over court affairs, the events of his reign gave rise to what historians call the "[Tongzhi Restoration](#)", an unsuccessful attempt to stabilize and modernize China.

The only surviving son of the [Xianfeng Emperor](#) and the [Empress Dowager Cixi](#), Tongzhi attempted political reform in the period of the [Tongzhi Restoration](#). His first [reign name](#) was Qixiang (Manchu: *Fengšengge Sabingga*), but this name was later abandoned by Cixi in favour of Tongzhi, a contraction of the classical phrase *tóngguī yǔ zhì*), which means "restoring order together". An alternate interpretation reads it as "mother and son co-emperors", which fits the state of affairs, as the Empress Dowager wielded the real power and ruled behind the scenes. The traditional Chinese political phrase "attending audiences behind a curtain" ([pinyin](#): *chuí lián tīng zhèng*) was readopted to describe Cixi's rule through her son. The phrase can still be heard in contemporary Chinese politics. Tongzhi became emperor at the age of five when his father, the [Xianfeng Emperor](#) died. His father's choice of regent, [Sushun](#), was removed in favour of a partnership between his mother (the [Empress Dowager Cixi](#)), the empress (the [Empress Dowager Ci'an](#)), and his uncle ([Prince Gong](#)).

Tongzhi married [Lady Alute](#) from a [Mongol](#) clan and died of [smallpox](#) at the age of 18. He was buried in the [Eastern Qing Tombs](#) in [Hebei](#) province. He had no sons to succeed him. Folklore says that Tongzhi died from a [sexually transmitted disease](#) (specifically [syphilis](#)), due to his alleged affairs with prostitutes outside of the palace, and that the smallpox diagnosis was given only because the mere discussion of sexually transmitted diseases in China was taboo. However, no credible evidence exists to substantiate the rumours.

His mothers, the two dowagers, resumed regency after appointing [Guangxu](#), the son of the [1st Prince Chun](#), as the new emperor. A few months after Tongzhi's death, [Empress Alute](#) died. Popular stories suggest that she either committed suicide or that Dowager Empress Cixi starved her to death by cutting off her food supply.

1867 a Jew called Liberman arrives in Kaifeng and discovers the community's descendants.

1834-40 and 1855-73 there are revolts in Yunnan. Causes are rivalities between Chinese and Muslim pit workers in the silver and plumbum mines. A Muslim sultanate is built (1856-73), which is liquidated cruelly. In the revolts more than million people lose their lives.

1862 from the conflict between the Uigurian and Chinese soldier a fight begins, which causes the mass revolt. It expands like a wood fire and encompasses the provinces of Gansu and Shensi (1862); besides it, the Islamic garrisons in Hami and Urumchi are taken by the revolt, finally the whole Jungary (1862). In this time in the course of revolt a kind of Muslim renovation movement is built: on the one side, with the Wahhabite features, on the other side, corresponding to the modern thinking. The revolts are suppressed only in 1878. 1864 in the East Turkestan the new revolt begins. Yakub Beg from Kokand conquers the fortresses Kashgar and Yarkand and rules the

whole Turkestan for a time. He is recognized by Russia, the United Kingdom and the Ottomans as a king of Kashgar and rules till 1877.

1870 the revolt in Tientsin takes place: the murder of the French consul and European “sin mission” takes place.

In the whole, Chinese empire continues to decay in this time. Two opium wars, Taiping revolt and the revolts of Muslims weaken the country. It loses some territories and becomes more and more dependent from the West.

In Korea emperors Heonjong (1834-1849), Cheoljong (1849-1863) and Gojong (1863-1897) rule.

In Vietnam emperor Minh Mang rules till 1847. **Nguyễn Phúc Miên Tông** (6 June 1807 – 4 November 1847) was the third emperor of the [Vietnamese Nguyễn Dynasty](#) taking the [era name](#) of **Thiệu Trị**. He was the eldest son of emperor [Minh Mạng](#), and reigned from 14 February 1841 until his death on 4 November 1847.

Emperor Thiệu Trị was much like his father Minh Mạng and carried on his conservative policies of isolationism and the entrenchment of [Confucianism](#). Highly educated in the Confucian tradition, Thiệu Trị had some curiosity about the West, but like his father was very suspicious of all non-[Chinese](#) outsiders.

At this same time, the French were in a colonial race with Great Britain and were pushing hard for stronger relations with [Indochina](#). This, just as in the reign of Minh Mạng, brought up [Christian](#) missionaries, most of whom were [Spanish](#) and French, were banned from operation in the country, but they ignored this. When Emperor Thiệu Trị began to imprison the [missionaries](#), it prompted an immediate response from France. In 1843, the French government sent a military expedition to Indochina with orders to protect and defend French interests, free the illegal missionaries, if possible without causing an international incident.

Thiệu Trị was not, however, personally cruel, but his determination to eliminate all [Roman Catholic](#) missionaries from his country could not be reconciled with a peaceful relationship with France. In 1845, this almost prompted a clash between Vietnam and the American warship [USS Constitution](#) who attempted to force Thiệu Trị to free the missionary [Dominique Lefèbvre](#), who had repeatedly come to Vietnam illegally multiple times.

The French task force reached [Tourane](#) on 23 March 1847, and demanded that the safety of French nationals be assured and for Thiệu Trị to cease the persecution of missionaries. For reasons of pride, the imperial [mandarins](#) put off delivering the emperor's reply and fighting broke out. Thiệu Trị had fortified the coast, but the French forces easily defeated the Vietnamese due to the Nguyễn Dynasty's inferior equipment. All of the Vietnamese coastal forts were destroyed and three Nguyễn [junks](#) were sunk before the French squadron sailed away.

In response, Emperor Thiệu Trị called all missionaries enemy spies and demanded that all Christians should be executed on the spot. The mandarins did not put this order into effect and Emperor Thiệu Trị died shortly afterwards. No missionaries were actually ever executed during Thiệu Trị's reign.

Emperor **Tự Đức** (22 September 1829 – 17 July 1883) (full name: **Nguyễn Phúc Hồng Nhậm**, also **Nguyễn Phúc Thì**) was the fourth emperor of the [Nguyễn Dynasty](#) of [Vietnam](#) and reigned from 1847–1883.

The son of Emperor [Thiệu Trị](#), Prince Nguyễn Phúc Hồng Nhậm was born on 22 September 1829, and succeeded his father on the throne, with the reigning title of **Tự Đức**, but family troubles caused his era to have a violent start. Thiệu Trị had passed over his more moderate eldest son, Hồng Bảo, to give the throne to Tự Đức, known

for his staunch [Confucianism](#) and opposition to foreigners and innovation. As a result, and due to the repressive policies of the previous Nguyễn Dynasty emperor, there was now a great deal of dissatisfaction with Nguyễn rule and a legitimate royal figure to rally this opposition.

Crown Prince Hồng Bảo became the leader of a rebellion against Tự Đức, consisting of Confucian scholars who were angered that the family hierarchy had been dishonored (by passing over the eldest son) some remaining supporters of the [Lê Dynasty](#) (who many still considered the legitimate dynasty of Vietnam) as well as the usual peasants angry over Nguyễn taxation and the usual corrupt [mandarins](#) as well as the [Roman Catholic](#) missionaries and [Christian](#) converts who had been so persecuted by [Minh Mạng](#) and Thiệu Trị. With swift military force, Tự Đức suppressed the rebellion and was set to execute his brother, but was dissuaded by his mother, [Dowager queen](#) Từ Dũ, and Hồng Bảo killed himself in prison.

Emperor Tự Đức continued the policies of his predecessors, shutting Vietnam off from the outside world and refusing all efforts to modernize the country. Accounts of his personal life show a gentle and educated man, but his policies brought on conflict with Europe that Vietnam could not win. He oppressed all foreigners in Vietnam, especially the Christian community, who had frequently tried to overthrow his ancestors, such as in the [Le Van Khoi revolt](#), calling their religion a "perverse doctrine". The Christian mandarin [Nguyen Truong To](#), tried to convince Tự Đức that this was a suicidal policy, but he did not listen, confident that France was too involved with the chaos in Europe in 1848 to respond, but he was mistaken.

France responded with a large military expeditionary force and attacked up from southern Vietnam. The Nguyễn army fought bravely for some time, but their antiquated weapons and tactics were no match for the French, who suffered more from the climate and disease than from enemy resistance. With French forces moving closer against him, Tự Đức called upon his Chinese over-lord, the [Qing](#) Emperor, for help and so ensued the [Sino-French War](#). The fighting around [Hanoi](#) against China and the Black Flag pirates ended with France victorious and China gave up their position as feudal master of Vietnam and recognized France as the ruling power over the region.

To make matters worse, Emperor Tự Đức had to deal with renewed internal rebellions which had become commonplace for the Nguyễn Dynasty. There were literally hundreds of small rebellions and uprisings against Nguyễn rule. Ineffective attempts to enforce the ban on Christian missionaries was also the biggest source of trouble, including the execution of a Spanish bishop which was used to justify the French and Spanish invasion that led to the fall of [Saigon](#). By an order of 1848 Tự Đức commanded all Vietnamese Catholic converts to renounce their religion, otherwise they would be branded on the face with the mark of a heretic and surrender all of their rights and privileges. This rallied most of the European powers against Vietnam, and Tự Đức by doing this had given up any hope of Vietnam gaining help as a victim from the outside world.

When further rebellions broke out as the French were advancing on the capital, Tự Đức feared that his authority was crumbling. He preferred to make a deal with the French so that he could crush the rebellion since while France may demand humiliating concessions, the rebels would most likely depose and/or kill him. He signed away the southern most of Vietnam, [Cochinchina](#), to be a French colony and accepted the status of a French protectorate for his country. This caused a huge uproar, and many, such as the famous mandarin [Truong Dinh](#), refused to recognize the treaty

and fought on in defense of their country, denouncing TỰ ĐỨC for surrendering any part of their homeland.

Emperor TỰ ĐỨC did not live to see the worst effects of colonialism on his country, but he is often regarded as the last Emperor of Vietnam, since he was the last to rule independently. A case of [smallpox](#) left him [impotent](#) so he had no children despite a huge [harem](#) of wives he kept in his palace. According to legend, he died in 1883, cursing the French with his dying breath.

In the whole, Vietnam also decays and loses its independence. Besides of the Christians' persecutions the fleet demonstration and taking of Tourane and Saigon takes place 1858/59. 1862 the eastern, 1867 the western province of Cochinchina is annexed.

C. Japan in 1830-70.

Till 1846 emperor Ninkō rules.

Emperor Kōmei (*Kōmei-[tennō](#)*, 22 July 1831 – 30 January 1867) was the 121st [emperor of Japan](#), according to the traditional [order of succession](#). Kōmei's reign spanned the years from 1846 through 1867. Before Kōmei's accession to the [Chrysanthemum Throne](#), his personal name (*imina*) was Osahito, his title was *Hirono-miya*. Emperor Kōmei was the fourth son of [Emperor Ninkō](#) and Empress Sukulito Sakayamas. Kōmei's Imperial family lived with him in the [Dairi](#) of the [Heian Palace](#). The family included six children, four daughters and two sons; but the future Emperor Meiji was the only one to survive childhood.

Kōmei principal consort was Asako Kujō. After Kōmei's death in 1867, Asako was given the title [Empress Eishō](#) by [Emperor Meiji](#). Osahito-*shinnō* became emperor following the death of his emperor-father. The succession (the *senso*) was considered to have been received by the new monarch; and shortly thereafter, Emperor Kōmei is said to have acceded (the *sokui*). The events during his lifetime shed some light on his reign. The years of Kōmei's reign correspond with a period in which [Tokugawa Ieyoshi](#), [Tokugawa Iesada](#), [Tokugawa Iemochi](#), and [Tokugawa Yoshinobu](#) were leaders at the pinnacle of the [Tokugawa shogunate](#).

With the arrival of US Commodore [Matthew Perry](#) and his famous "Black Ships" on 8 July 1853, Japan began its transformation into a modern industrial power. The Tokugawa Shogunate, which had controlled military and civil affairs in Japan's feudal provinces for some three centuries, proved unable to meet the new challenge of open trade with the West.

At the time, Emperor Kōmei still retained only symbolic power at his court in Kyoto. As the Shogunate, divided by internal disputes, gradually surrendered sovereignty to the foreign powers, under threat of military force, Emperor Kōmei began to assert himself and regain many of the powers his ancestors had conceded to the Tokugawa clan at the close of the Sengoku (warring states) period.

The Emperor's younger sister, Imperial princess [Kazu-no-Miya Chikako](#) was married to the [Tokugawa shogun Tokugawa Iemochi](#) as part of the [Movement to Unite Court and Bakufu](#). Both the Emperor and his sister were against the marriage, even though he realized the gains to be had from such familial connections with the true ruler of Japan. Emperor Kōmei did not care much for anything foreign, and he opposed opening Japan to Western powers, even as the shogun continued to accept foreign demands.

- [Ansei 4](#), on the 28th day of the 12th month (22 January 1858): [Daigaku-no-kami Hayashi Akira](#) headed the bakufu delegation which sought advice from

Emperor Kōmei in deciding how to deal with newly assertive foreign powers. This would have been the first time the Emperor's counsel was actively sought since the establishment of the Tokugawa shogunate. The most easily identified consequence of this transitional overture would be the increased numbers of messengers streaming back and forth between Edo and Kyoto during the next decade. Concerning these difficult Imperial audiences in Kyoto, there is no small irony in the fact that the shogun and his bakufu were represented by a 19th century [neo-Confucian](#) scholar/bureaucrat who would have been somewhat surprised to find himself at a crucial nexus of managing political change—moving arguably "by the book" through uncharted waters with well-settled theories and history as the only reliable guide.

- **October 1858** (*Ansei 4*): Hayashi Akira is dispatched from Edo to Kyoto to explain the terms of the [Treaty of Amity and Commerce](#) (*Nichibei Shūkō Tsūshō Jōyaku*), also known as the [Harris Treaty](#). Hayashi's twofold task was to both explain the terms to a sceptical Emperor and gain the sovereign's assent to it. Kōmei did ultimately acquiesce in February 1859 when he came to understand that there was no alternative.

The pilgrimage of the 14th shogun Tokugawa Iemochi to Kyoto in 1863 was a defining moment not only in 19th century relations between the military bakufu and the Imperial Court, but also in what history would come to call the Meiji Restoration. The reception by Emperor Kōmei of the shogun in the Kyoto palace can be seen as a moment at which the political realm was thoroughly redefined, becoming a transitional imperial realm. This impression was enforced by the ensuing pilgrimage by Emperor Kōmei to the Kamo shrine, with the shogun in tow. This public demonstration showed that a new order had now emerged in the realm. By the time of Emperor Kōmei's death in 1867, the government was faced with bankruptcy and near collapse. In addition, Japan was surrounded by colonial powers, with substantial investments in Japanese trade, who stood poised to gain considerable influence. Precipitated by the signing of the unequal trade treaties with the Western powers, such as the Treaty of Kanagawa and the Harris Treaty, which were signed without Imperial sanction and in spite of the Emperor's refusal to approve it, he twice expressed his will to resign from his position in protest.

Emperor Kōmei was infuriated with nearly every development during his reign as emperor. In his lifetime he never saw any foreigners and he knew little about them. During his reign he started to gain more power as the [Tokugawa Shogunate](#) declined, though this was limited to consultation and other forms of deference according to protocol.

Emperor Kōmei generally agreed with [anti-Western sentiments](#), and, breaking with centuries of imperial tradition, began to take an active role in matters of state: as opportunities arose, he fulminated against the treaties and attempted to interfere in the shogunal succession. His efforts culminated in 1863 with his "[Order to expel barbarians](#)". Although the Shogunate had no intention of enforcing the order, it nevertheless inspired attacks against the [Shogunate](#) itself and against foreigners in Japan: the most famous incident was that of the English trader [Charles Lennox Richardson](#), for whose death the Tokugawa government had to pay an indemnity of one hundred thousand [British pounds](#). Other attacks included the shelling of Shimonoseki and Kagoshima, and the destruction of Japanese warships, coastal guns and assorted military infrastructure throughout the country. These incidents showed that Japan could not match the military might of the Westerners, and that confrontation could not be the solution.

In January 1867 the emperor was diagnosed with smallpox. This caused surprise because it was said that Kōmei had never been ill before. On 30 January 1867 he suffered a fatally violent bout of vomiting and diarrhea. He had purple spots on his face caused by [smallpox](#). It is widely thought that he was assassinated, probably by radicals from Choshu, as he drew closer to the Shogun in mutually seeking to define a way forward for Japan under increasingly challenging circumstances. There are no indications that anyone that he came into contact with before contracting the disease had been infected, so it is thought that a handkerchief or the like contaminated with the virus was transferred to him through some conduit in the court (see footnote on p. 282 of Marius Jansen's "Sakamoto Ryoma and the Meiji Ishin", for example). After Kōmei's death in 1867, his *kami* was enshrined in the Imperial mausoleum, *Nochi no Tsukinowa no Higashiyama no misasagi*, which is at [Sennyū-ji in Higashiyama-ku, Kyoto](#). Also enshrined in this mausoleum complex are Kōmei's immediate predecessors since [Emperor Go-Mizunoo](#) -- [Meishō](#), [Go-Kōmyō](#), [Go-Sai](#), [Reigen](#), [Higashiyama](#), [Nakamikado](#), [Sakuramachi](#), [Momozono](#), [Go-Sakuramachi](#), [Go-Momozono](#), [Kōkaku](#) and [Ninkō](#). [Empress Dowager Eishō](#) is also entombed at this Imperial mausoleum complex. Emperor Kōmei was the last emperor to be given a posthumous name chosen after his death. Beginning with Emperor Meiji, posthumous names were chosen in advance, being the same as their reign names.

By the early 1860s, the shogunate was under several threats. Representatives of foreign powers sought to increase their influence in Japan. Many daimyo were increasingly dissatisfied with *bakufu* handling foreign affairs. Large numbers of young [samurai](#), known as *shishi* or "men of high purpose" began to meet and speak against the shogunate. The *shishi* revered the Emperor Kōmei and favored direct violent action to cure societal ills. While they initially desired the death or expulsion of all foreigners, the *shishi* would later prove more pragmatic, and begin to advocate the modernization of the country. The *bakufu* enacted several measures to appease the various groups, and hoped to drive a wedge between the *shishi* and *daimyo*. Kyoto was a major center for the *shishi*, who had influence over the Emperor Kōmei. In 1863, they persuaded him to issue an "[Order to expel barbarians](#)". The Order placed the shogunate in a difficult position, since it knew it lacked the power to carry it out. Several attacks were made on foreigners or their ships, and foreign forces retaliated. *Bakufu* forces were able to drive most of the *shishi* out of Kyoto, and an attempt by them to return in 1864 was driven back. Nevertheless, unrest continued throughout Japan.

The prince's awareness of the political turmoil is uncertain. During this time, he studied [tanka](#) poetry, first with his father, then with the court poets. As the prince continued his classical education in 1866, a new shogun, [Tokugawa Yoshinobu](#) took office, a reformer who desired to transform Japan into a Western-style state. Yoshinobu, who would prove to be the final shogun, met with resistance from among the *bakufu*, even as unrest and military actions continued. In mid-1866, a *bakufu* army set forth to punish rebels in southern Japan. The army was defeated.

The Emperor Kōmei had always enjoyed excellent health, and was only 36 years old in January 1867. In that month, however, he fell seriously ill. Though he appeared to make some recovery, he suddenly worsened and died on 30 January. Many historians believe the Emperor Kōmei was poisoned, a view not unknown at the time: British diplomat Sir [Ernest Satow](#) wrote, "it is impossible to deny that [the Emperor Kōmei's]

disappearance from the political scene, leaving as his successor a boy of fifteen or sixteen [actually fourteen], was most opportune".

The crown prince formally ascended to the throne on 3 February 1867, in a brief ceremony in Kyoto. The new Emperor continued his classical education, which did not include matters of politics. In the meantime, the shogun, Yoshinobu, struggled to maintain power. He repeatedly asked for the Emperor's confirmation of his actions, which he eventually received, but there is no indication that the young Emperor was himself involved in the decisions. The *shishi* and other rebels continued to shape their vision of the new Japan, and while they revered the Emperor, they had no thought of having him play an active part in the political process.

The political struggle reached its climax in late 1867. In November, an agreement was reached by which Yoshinobu would maintain his title and some of his power, but the lawmaking power would be vested in a bicameral legislature on the British model. The following month, the agreement fell apart as the rebels marched on Kyoto, taking control of the Imperial Palace. On 4 January 1868, the Emperor ceremoniously read out a document before the court proclaiming the "restoration" of Imperial rule, and the following month, documents were sent to foreign powers:

The Emperor of Japan announces to the sovereigns of all foreign countries and to their subjects that permission has been granted to the Shogun Tokugawa Yoshinobu to return the governing power in accordance with his own request. We shall henceforward exercise supreme authority in all the internal and external affairs of the country. Consequently the title of Emperor must be substituted for that of [Tycoon](#), in which the treaties have been made. Officers are being appointed by us to the conduct of foreign affairs. It is desirable that the representatives of the treaty powers recognize this announcement.

Mutsuhito

Yoshinobu [resisted only briefly](#), but it was not until late 1869 that the final *bakufu* holdouts [were finally defeated](#). In the ninth month of the following year, the [era](#) was changed to Meiji, or "enlightened rule", which was later used for the emperor's posthumous name. This marked the beginning of the custom of an era coinciding with an emperor's reign, and posthumously naming the emperor after the era during which he ruled.

Soon after his accession, the Emperor's officials presented [Ichijō Haruko](#) to him as a possible bride. The future Empress was the daughter of an Imperial official, and was three years older than the groom, who would have to wait to wed until after his [gembuku](#) (manhood ceremony). The two married on 11 January 1869. Known posthumously as [Empress Shōken](#), she was the first Imperial Consort to receive the title of *kōgō* (literally, the Emperor's wife, translated as Empress [Consort](#)), in several hundred years. Although she was the first Japanese Empress Consort to play a public role, she bore no children. However, the Meiji emperor had fifteen children by five official ladies-in-waiting. Only five of his children, a prince born to Lady Naruko (1855–1943), the daughter of Yanagiwara Mitsunaru, and four princesses born to Lady Sachiko (1867–1947), the eldest daughter of [Count](#) Sono Motosachi, lived to adulthood.

In the whole, Japan also had confrontation with the west. But in difference to China and Vietnam, there was a Meiji revolution in Japan, which made the country independent and progressing in the direction of big imperialist power.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of China in this period.

2. What is new in the Vietnam history of this time?
3. What are the main differences between China and Japan in this period?

Results of the 22 (2) period.

This period is also called “period of liberalism and nationalism”. Already July revolution of 1830 in France shows the features of new epoch, power is taken by bankers (Rothschilds etc.), tradesmen, capitalists, not by idealists. Creation of this epoch is nationally mixed state Belgium, at the end of period Germany and Italy are united. Revolutions of 1848 still have remnants of earlier Romanticism, but Napoleon III, Bismarck and Victor Emmanuel I are pragmatics. Romantic persons exist still (Garibaldi, Bakunin, Blanqui etc.), but not they make history. Poetry is succeeded with prose both in the life and in the literature (big realistic novels of Balzac, Dickens, change to realism by Pushkin also takes place in 1830). Socialist dreamers are succeeded by dry economist Marx, who creates fully real organization - First International (already Owen was practical enough). In Great Britain instead of revolutions the reforms of election law, increasing the number of electors, take place. But in colonial India the romanticists – fighters for liberations (“Brahma Samaj”, “Arya samaj” etc.) and renewal of Hinduism appear. China decays in the result of Opium wars and Taipin revolt, but Japan makes “revolution from over” (Meiji, 1867) under the slogan of restauration of emperor’s power, but imitating the Western examples. Russia in the situation of stagnation, extends in Central Asia, but sells Alaska, reforms of Alexander I cause the growth of terrorism and favor the developing of capitalism. On the Balkans the fight for liberation continues, USA occupy big territories at the west, but are disturbed with the civil war of North and South (confederation under Davies). But Lincoln is also not a romantic, he liberates the slaves only under the pressure of events; in the result of the Civil war not revolutionary idealists, but capitalist and former slave-owners rule, two-party system is created. In industry the energy of steam is used, railways are built, telegraph appears. The supporters of technical progress are opposed by the conservators, who see in it the danger for nature and people’s morality in a very true and prophetic way. Many sects are created in this time, especially in the USA – Mormons, Adventists, spiritists, a bit later (1875) – theosophy. They have already few of vivid religious feeling, being creations of rational and moderate bourgeois epoch.

Questions:

1. What are the main results of the 22nd period?

Main results of the first period of the third cycle.

The first period of the third cycle lasted from 1450 till 1870. In this time the people of the North and South America, later Australia came into the orbit of civilization. In the first period the discovery of America (1450-1700) brought the accumulation of capital in Europe. The colonialist countries – Spain and Portugal were important in the first part of period. Then they were succeeded by the Netherlands and England, where the early bourgeois revolutions took place. The Reformation in Europe caused the splitting of the church, the religious wars, especially the Thirty Years War (1618-1648). The countries of Asia and Africa continued to go the old way. In the XVIIth century the laws of nature (Kepler, Newton) are discovered. The humankind reaches the causal plan of thinking.

The second period lasted from 1700-1790. In the European countries the absolute monarchy was established. England becomes more and more important in this time, but they American colonies proclaim independence. They begin to live in republican way. The countries of Asia and Africa decay in this time. The industrial revolution causes the development of new classes – bourgeoisie and hired workers (proletariat) and the change of life conditions of most peoples.

Then the agrarian society is succeeded by an industrial one, the course of history accelerates. The first period of industrial society is 1790-1830. It is a period of Romanticism. The Great French revolution caused the aggression of revolutionary France in Europe and the dictatorship of Napoleon I. After the liquidation of this threat for the European security the period of Restoration (1815-1830) begins. England is the most developed industrial country of the world, which continues to create its colonial empire. The position of backward feudal Russia becomes strong after 1815. This period brings the new successes of science and scholarship, among them the discovery of ancient Oriental and Egyptian texts and their deciphering, discoveries in biology and physics.

The second period of industrial society last from 1830 till 1870. It is a period of liberalism and nationalism. Belgium gets independence, to the end of the period Germany and Italy are united. The revolutions in France brought the new monarchy, then the second republic and the dictatorship (empire) of Napoleon III. The liberal reforms are made in many countries of Europe. The socialist teachings are developed. Asia is more and more divided among the European countries. The Civil War in the USA accelerates the development of this country. The new discoveries in thermodynamics, electrodynamics, biology, chemistry close the causal period. The materialism, positivism and belief in progress develop rapidly.

Questions:

1. What are the main results of the first period of the third cycle (a new time)?

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