

Unit 9



THE AGE OF REVOLUTIONS 1750s TO 1815

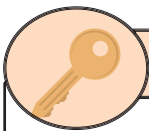
Unit Introduction

This unit intends to acquaint you with the Age of Revolutions, the 1750s to 1815. The lessons in this unit cover Industrial Capitalism in Europe, the French Revolution, the Napoleonic Era and the American war of Independence. Major points and arguments are illustrated with examples and images to facilitate your learning and make it interesting to you. The unit closes with a summary of the main points of each lesson, followed by review questions that enable you to measure your achievements all through the unit.

Unit learning outcomes

At the end of this unit, learners will be able to:

- evaluate the major changes that took place during the Modern Europe.
- describe the causes and consequences of the French Revolution and American War of Independence.
- discuss the contribution of the Industrial Revolution to humankind.



Key Terms

- Enlightenment
- Revolution
- Napoleonic Era
- Capitalism

9.1 Industrial Capitalism in Europe

Lesson learning outcomes

At the end of this lesson, learners will be able to:

- identify factors that led to the consolidation of capitalism in Modern Europe.
- describe the main political, economic and social consequences of the industrial revolution.
- appreciate political, economic, and social effects of the Industrial Revolution.

Brainstorming

- What does capitalism mean?

9.1.1 Political, Economic and Social Effects of Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the late 1700s but slowly spread across the globe. The Industrial Revolution was new manufacturing processes in Europe and the United States that took place between the 18th and the 19th centuries. Before the Industrial Revolution, the economic needs of the society were met through the farming and production of simple handmade articles.

During the Industrial Revolution, manufacturing rapidly changed from mainly hand production to the use of machinery. This transition from old modes of production to new technologically driven production brought drastic changes in the European way of life. Making cloth moved from homes to large factories. Britain also had plenty of coal and iron, which was essential to power and produced machine for the factories.

The consolidation of capitalism in Europe was an outcome of change in producing cloth, iron, steel, and other manufactured goods. It was essentially the replacement of manual works by the new machine that made the large-scale production of goods possible.

Capitalism emerged in the 16th to 17th centuries in Northwestern Europe, especially in Great Britain. Industrial capitalism is a mode of production consisting of large, centrally controlled accumulations of capital that is used to finance production of commodities. One of the biggest factors contributing to the rise of industrial capitalism was technology. Characteristics of capitalism include capital accumulation, competitive markets, a price system, private property and the recognition of property rights, voluntary exchange and wage labour. In addition, there were new technologies that helped business: the telephone to coordinate transactions over long distances, the typewriter to speed up record-keeping,

and electricity which made it possible to work safely after dark.

The ethos of industrial capitalism also began to challenge mercantilist doctrines of trade barriers and protective monopolies, and by the mid-19th century, Britain had fully embraced laissez-faire economy. Liberalism and competition in trade and the development of a free-market economy are now capitalism's main political and economic philosophies. By the 19th century, Britain was seen (and saw herself) as the world's workshop. However, the driving forces of industrial capitalism, comparable to those experienced in the Britain, also impacted landscapes in other parts of Europe and North America.

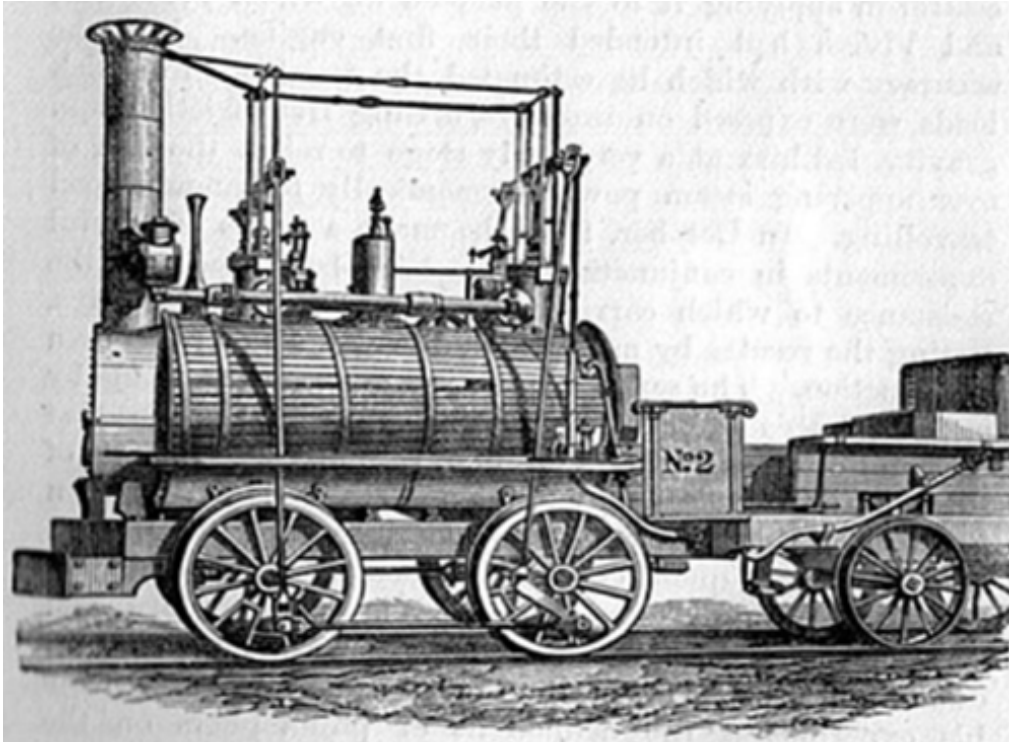


Figure 9.1 The first steam locomotive

Steam engine technology underpinned the invention in the early 19th century of steam-powered locomotive engines and the development of railways. Railways made possible the integration of vast continental spaces politically, culturally, and economically. For example, the British began to build railways in India in the 1850s. In North America, the first transcontinental railroad opened in 1869. As a result, the transport costs of raw materials and finished products were significantly reduced, new sources of supply became accessible, and new markets were opened.

Politically, industrialization had effects on the political structure due to the increase of power of the industries that would later become monopolies. The mechanization of

labour caused the displacement of thousands of labourers. The rise of industrial capitalism throughout the nineteenth century went hand in hand with the rise of strikes and other forms of labour protests.

Socially, Industrial Revolution drastically changed the social life of Europe and the world. This change was evident in the growth of cities and the emergence of two new social classes: the bourgeoisie and proletariat. The bourgeoisie owned the factory, machine in its raw materials and the finished goods. The proletariats sold their labour for money wages. They were poorly paid under strict work discipline and faced unemployment. Living conditions were changed along with the emergence of class differences. Children represented a cheap supply of labour.

Economically, the Industrial Revolution transformed agriculture and handicrafts economies to large-scale industry, mechanized manufacturing, and the factory system. This transformation resulted in increase in wealth, production of goods and standard of living. In addition, people had access to healthier diets, better housing, better education, and cheaper goods.

Industrial Revolution had also many negative effects. Among those were:

- environmental degradation,
- poor sanitation,
- spread of diseases,
- pollution,
- poor working conditions and low wage,
- child labor.

Activity 9.1



1. Write about the effects of the industrial capitalism.

9.2 French Revolution

Lesson learning outcomes

At the end of this lesson, learners will be able to:

- point out and explain the causes, course, and consequences of the French Revolution.
- examine the causes, course, and consequences of the French revolution.

Brainstorming

- What do you know about the French revolution?

The French Revolution was a period of major social upheaval that began in 1787 and ended in 1799. The Revolution lasted for ten years. It began on July 14, 1789, when revolutionaries stormed a prison called the Bastille. The Revolution ended in 1799 when a general named Napoleon overthrew the revolutionary government and established the French Consulate (with Napoleon as leader).



Figure 9.2 The storming of the Bastille on July 14, 1789,
(source: Encyclopaedia Britannica)

Before the 18th century, France was a feudal nation whose society was highly oppressed. This feudal oppression created revolutionary situations in the late eighteenth century. As a result, the French Revolution broke out in 1789. There were three main reasons for the outbreak of the Revolution.

- The French monarchy was bankrupt, and the autocratic kings were inefficient.
- The influence of the French philosophers stimulated the French society against feudal oppression and its political, economic and social injustices.
- The French people were highly influenced than any other societies in Europe by the English bourgeois Revolution and the American War of Independence.

Before the Revolution, the French society was divided into three Estates.

- The First Estate included the royal family and the clergy.
- The Second Estate consisted of the French nobility.
- The Third Estate formed the largest section of French society.

Both the First and the Second Estates owned vast lands. They also had special socio-economic and political privileges. They were free from government taxation. The peasants and the bourgeoisie made up the Third Estate. This Estate owned little land and enjoyed no social, economic and political rights. It paid heavy taxes and was highly exploited by the French government.

The French rulers did not call the Estates General (the gathering of the three Estates) for an extended period. Since 1614, it had been ignored and was not assembled for the next one hundred and seventy-five years. During this period, France remained an absolute monarchy. This meant power was concentrated in the hands of individual monarchs. Finally, on May 5, 1789, the French king, Louis XVI, faced financial bankruptcy and called for the meeting of the Estates General. At this time the French people got an opportunity to express their discontent. When the Estates General met on May 5, 1789, conflict broke out between the three Estates. This was because the Third Estate tried to control the Assembly. There was a power conflict between the first two estates, on the one hand, and the third on the other.

Louis XVI now prepared for struggle and gathered his troops from various French provinces. However, the revolt spread rapidly throughout France. The immediate action that led to the French Revolution came from the poor of Paris, who found it difficult to overcome the high price of bread and other daily needs. On June 17, 1789, the Estates-General was transformed into the National Assembly (also later called the constituent Assembly). On July 14, 1789, they stormed the Royal Castle and Prison of Bastille. The event is often called “the Storming of the Bastille”. It left Louis XVI helpless. He could not use his army because he was unsure about their loyalty.

Moreover, many of the aristocracies were now fleeing France. In June 1791, Louis XVI and his family tried to escape France in disguise. However, they were recognized in a small town called Varenis and taken back as prisoners to the capital. This episode is remembered as the Varnis crisis.

The French Assembly kept the king as a symbol until he signed the new constitution in September 1791. As soon as the Estates-General had transformed itself into the National Assembly, it began to undertake several reforms. The greatest political achievements of

the French Revolution were affected from 1789 to 1791.

The first achievement began with the "August Days of 1789" when the old feudal privileges were abolished. Second, the National Assembly declared the rights of man and all citizens in August 1789. Third, a constitution was written in 1791. It established a limited monarchy instead of an autocracy. By this constitution, voting was not extended to all French citizens. It was allowed only to what was called active citizens, which means those who paid taxes. Those who could not fulfil the necessary financial qualifications were called passive citizens.

The third achievement of the National Assembly was the law against the Catholic Church. It confiscated church lands and suppressed monasteries.

In the Revolution, new political forces emerged in Paris and other French cities. These political groups started to play the role of political parties since their emergence in 1789-90. The leadership of the French Revolution belonged to these political groups.

There was disagreement between the leaders of the Revolution, as some were moderate, while others were radical. These revolutionary leaders were under siege in 1792. The king could still serve as a center of plot for the royalist counterattack and damage the Revolution. Meanwhile, Austria and Prussia waged war against France, supporting the French monarchy. In April 1792, France declared war on Austria and Prussia.

The French people heroically fought against these external forces. The people marched into Paris, singing the song known as La Marsellaise that would become the French National Anthem. They demanded that the French Republic should be proclaimed. The French army defeated the enemy forces at the battle of Valmy on September 20, 1792. Two days later, France was proclaimed a republic. Louis XVI was put on trial in December 1792, found guilty and executed on January 21 1793. In February 1793, France again faced the joint military forces of Britain, Austria, Prussia, Holland, Spain, Sardinia and other Italian states. This anti-French coalition continued the earlier Austro-Prussian attempt to restore the French monarchy.

The first years of the French Republic were very stormy and bloody. As already indicated above, the leaders of the French Revolution differed among themselves. Girondists represented the big and middle bourgeoisie. They were called Girondists which was the name of the province they came from. The Girondists represented the extreme right political wing. The left-wing of the Revolution was led by a group called Jacobins. The Jacobins got their name from St. Jacob Church in southern France, where they made their first meeting. They defeated the Girondists and formed the Jacobin revolutionary

dictatorship in June 1793.

The Jacobins also adopted a new constitution on June 24, 1793. To protect the Revolution against internal enemies, they instituted the Reign of Terror against counter revolutionaries. The Reign of Terror reached its highest stage when Robespierre took over the Jacobin leadership. During this time guillotine became a famous machine in executing people.

The revolutionary Jacobins and their leader Robespierre executed members of the Girondins group or any other led by Danton. In addition, the Jacobins made several reforms under Robespierre. Many of these reforms encouraged merchants and free trade.

Nevertheless, the Jacobins harshly suppressed their opponents. Because of this, they gradually lost support. Finally, Robespierre and his Jacobin followers were themselves guillotined in July 1794. This brought the period of Jacobin Revolutionary Dictatorship to an end. Hence, the authority of the French republic passed to the board of five men known as the Directory. Nevertheless, its power also came to an end with the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte.

Results of the French Revolution: The French Revolution destroyed the old feudal order in France and led to the capitalist system's development. It further led to the growth of industrial capitalism, a process started earlier by the English Bourgeoisie revolution. Although the forces of the Revolution were the poor peasants and other lower sections of the French people, its final leadership came into the hand of the bourgeoisie. It did not extend political rights to the broad mass or improve the life of the working people.

The French Revolution had a tremendous and far-reaching impact that probably transformed the world more than any other revolution. Its repercussions include lessening the importance of religion, the rise of Modern Nationalism, the spread of Liberalism and igniting the Age of Revolutions.

Activity 9.2



1. Explore the internet and write the consequences of the French Revolution.

9.3 Napoleonic Era

Lesson learning outcomes

At the end of this lesson, learners will be able to:

- explain the major reforms introduced by Napoleon Bonaparte.
- state the contribution of the Napoleonic era to the contemporary society.

Brainstorming

- Who was Napoleon Bonaparte?

The French Revolution ended when a French general named Napoleon Bonaparte took power and established a dictatorship over France and most of Europe. The period of the rule of Napoleon in France and Europe is known as the Napoleonic Era (1799 - 1815).

Napoleon Bonaparte was born in 1769 on the Mediterranean Island of Corsica. At the age of twenty-six, he became an officer in the French army. He was a supporter and a friend of the French revolution. He used to call himself "the son of the revolution". Since 1795, Napoleon started to become famous as a defender of the revolution from the reactionary forces of the European monarchical states. He saved France from foreign danger and reversed the invasion.

Napoleon Bonaparte commanded the French army that fought in Italy and got victory over Austria in 1796. From 1798 to 1799, he was in Egypt and managed a short-lived conquest of that country. On his return from Egypt, he was given a warm national welcome in France in 1799. He took over government power by a coup d'état in 1799. Since that year, he ruled as 'The first consul' and from 1802 onwards as 'Consul for Life'. Napoleon finally made himself 'Emperor' of France on 2 December 1804. As the ruler of France, he introduced many reforms in the political, economic, social, and cultural fields. Some of the reforms and changes introduced by Napoleon are stated as follows: He made himself an imperial dictator. He introduced press censorship and used the police and the army to strengthen his dictatorship. His administration was highly centralized. He introduced the Napoleonic Code of Laws in 1804. His laws guaranteed civil equality to all persons regardless of birth, wealth, and rank.

Activity 9.3



Read the case study below and answer the questions that follow.

1. How were the ancient Roman laws and the Napoleonic code interrelated? Discuss in pairs.
2. How did the Napoleonic Code affect Europe?

A Case study: Unifying the Law

In 1799, a French general named Napoleon Bonaparte set out to build an empire even larger than Rome's. To rule this empire, Napoleon followed the Roman example. He appointed a commission to write a uniform code of laws. This code, known as the Napoleonic Code, was completed in 1804. Although Napoleon ruled as emperor, he drew upon many of the legal precedents first introduced by the Romans. This included the principle that the same laws should be used to govern all people. Under Napoleon, this code was adopted in areas across the globe, such as present-day Belgium, Spain, and Latin America. (Jackson J. Spielvogel, 2005, Glencio World History (Glencio /McGraw-Hill SchoolCompany), p.14.

Employment and promotion in government offices were made based on ability. In 1802 a Legion of Honour was introduced to reward great deeds.

Collection of revenues from the provinces, called departments of the Empire, became efficient. In 1800, he established the National Bank of France. Public works, such as roads, bridges, monuments, and palaces, were carried out. He settled differences between his state and the Church. This was done by an agreement with the Roman Catholic Pope in 1801. The Pope finally accepted the confiscation of Church properties, and Napoleon promised to pay the salaries of the clergy of France. Steps were taken to expand

education. State secondary schools and universities were opened. The Church was allowed to keep its schools. In his colonial policy, Napoleon regained Louisiana for France. However, it was sold for \$ 11,000,000 to the U.S.A. in 1803.

Napoleon's Government in France was a military dictatorship. The Bonapartist dictatorship, however, had its good sides. In France, the reforms of Napoleon kept the fruits of the French Revolution, like civil equality and achieved a great deal of constructive work. Nevertheless, his rule did not allow political democracy to the people. Napoleon Bonaparte was ambitious for glory. By 1799, at the age of 30, he had become master of France. He conquered the nations of Europe, built a European Empire, and ruled it until 1814. He claimed that he fought the wars of conquest to spread the democratic ideals of the French Revolution, i.e., "liberty, equality and fraternity," and for the glory of France.



Figure 9.3 Napoleon in His Imperial Robes, oil on canvas by Francois Gerard, 1805, (source: Encyclopaedia, Britannica)

Napoleon was a great political and military leader. He built a Grand Army that had 600,000 troops by 1812. His army was made up of horsemen and foot soldiers, which used weapons like cannons, firearms and swords. He had capable generals. Emperor Napoleon fought European coalition forces.

At one time or another, he fought against Britain, Prussia, Russia, Austria, Italy, Southern and Western Germany, Spain, Belgium, Holland, Poland, Sweden and Switzerland. Between 1805 and 1808, he built a large European Empire. In 1808, the Napoleonic Empire included Belgium, Spain, Holland, Switzerland, Italy, the Southern and Western German States on the Rhine River, Poland, and France. At this time, Russia, Prussia, Denmark and Norway were Napoleon's allies. Most of Europe was under his control, and he was at the highest of his power.

Napoleon and his troops spread the democratic ideals of the French Revolution (civil equality) wherever they went in the different corners of Europe. They attacked the old reactionary, conservative and feudal orders and privileges. They spread the new ideas of liberty and equality. Napoleon's troops took to Europe the ideas of individualism and secularism. They made reforms such as religious toleration, abolition of serfdom and civil equality. They planted the ideas of equality and the rule of law. Strong European forces challenged the Napoleonic Empire. Old established national states and new arising national forces resisted French rule. Together with the resistance of the forces of reaction and conservatism, they destroyed the Napoleonic Empire.



Map 9.1 Europe during Napoleonic Era, (source: Encyclopaedia, Britannica)

The first of these resistances came from the direction of Britain. Napoleon had plans to conquer Britain. Nevertheless, this plan never succeeded. Indeed, the British navy under Admiral Horatio Nelson defeated the allied French and Spanish naval forces at the sea Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. Napoleon imposed a blockade on British trade with mainland Europe. This was known as the Continental System. The system was in force from 1806 to 1810, but it failed to force Britain into submission. British resistance against the Napoleonic Empire was strong.

National resistance to French rule also appeared within the conquered territories of the Napoleonic Empire. This was because the French looted and economically exploited the conquered territories. They collected taxes. They even introduced French-like departmental (provincial) administration units in some conquered territories. Such measures led to strong nationalist feelings among the conquered peoples.

In Spain, a nationalist revolt took place between 1808 and 1812. With the help of Britain, Spain fought against France and became free from French rule in 1812. Prussia and other German states started to strengthen themselves between 1807 and 1813. Austria declared war on France in 1809.

In Russia, Napoleon met the strongest and the most successful resistance. The 1812 campaign to conquer Russia became the beginning of the end of the Napoleonic Empire. Napoleon began the war to conquer Russia with a giant army of 600 000 soldiers. The Russians mobilized a force of 400,000 troops. However, they chose to use the strategy of withdrawal and scorched-earth tactics rather than fight a major battle. Moreover, the Russian winter was unbearable to Napoleon's force.

Nevertheless, it contributed much to defeating Napoleon's Grand Army- Hunger, cold and disease defeated the French Army. When Napoleon occupied Moscow on September 14, 1812, he got it burned down and left it five weeks later. Napoleon was defeated and withdrew from Russia. At the Battle of Leipzig in Northern Germany, also known as the Battle of the Nations, European coalition forces of Russia, Britain, Sweden, Prussia, and Austria defeated Napoleon's retreating, tired and demoralized troops. Napoleon fled from Germany and went to France.

The European coalition forces occupied Paris and forced Napoleon to abdicate on March 31, 1814. He was exiled to the Island of Elba. King Louis XVIII was put on the throne of France. However, Napoleon escaped from Elba and returned to France on March 20, 1815. He ruled France for one hundred more days. On June 18, 1815, at the Battle of Waterloo in Belgium, the English commander Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington)

and the Prussian general Blucher defeated him. This was his end. The forces of reaction and conservatism and the rising nationalism of European states and peoples won. He was exiled to the Island of St. Helena in the southern Atlantic Ocean, where he stayed until his death in 1821.

Activity 9.4



1. By referring to the internet, write a report on the consequences of Napoleonic era. Then, discuss your report in pairs.

9.4 American War of Independence

Lesson learning outcomes

At the end of this lesson, learners will be able to:

- explain the causes, course and consequences of the American Revolutions.
- examine the causes, course and consequences of the American Revolution.
- recognise the consequences of the American war of Independence on later democratic and nationalist movements all over the world.

Brainstorming

- What do you know about American War of Independence?

The American Revolution was also called the U.S. War of Independence. The war was the insurrection fought between 1775 and 1783, through which 13(thirteen) of Great Britain's North American colonies threw off British rule to establish the sovereign United States of America.

Since Columbus's discovery of the "New World" in 1492, people from Europe began to inhabit, searching for a better life there. Nevertheless, these people gradually developed settled life as colonists and began to claim colonial territories in the "New World". Among Europeans, between 1607 and 1682, the British have succeeded in establishing thirteen colonies in North America. The struggle of these European settlers (thirteen colonists) against British colonial rule for independence was coined in world history as the American War of Independence.

As the British began to impose heavy taxations, the thirteen colonists gathered at Philadelphia - the First Continental Congress. They adopted a non-importation, non-consumption agreement, which virtually cut off imports from Britain. Again, they met in Philadelphia on May 10, 1775. The Congress set the Army of the United Colonies and Colonel George Washington to be Commander-in-Chief of the Army.

The fighting started in the largest cities and trading ports. Finally, in 1776, representatives from 13 colonies met in Philadelphia to declare themselves independent. Thomas Jefferson drafted a document called the Declaration of Independence (July 14, 1776). It justified the act of rebellion and announced the birth of a new nation called the USA. The document also set forth the philosophy of human freedom, which later became a dynamic force in the rest of the western world. In 1783, the British government accepted defeat. The majority of delegates signed a constitution on September 17, 1787.

Activity 9.5



Case Study: Constitutional Government laid ground for Peace

The founders of the United States knew about and admired the Romans and their belief in limiting government power. When it came time to draw up a government plan, the founding fathers of America wrote a constitution that balanced the powers of government among three branches. To ensure that elected leaders did not place themselves above the law, the founding fathers included a provision that made the Constitution “the supreme law of the land.” The Constitution was adopted on September 17, 1787, which laid the ground for peaceful power transfer.

Answer the following questions based on the case study given above

1. How did ancient Roman law influence the American constitution?
Discuss in pairs.
2. How did the United States ensure that leaders would not place themselves above the law?

The constitutional convention of 1787 faced severe challenges in 1788 when a gulf was created between federalists and anti-federalists. Nevertheless, finally, anti-federalists joined the federalists to ratify the constitution on June 25. The war of independence brought about the liberation of the American people from British rule. It also created independent American nations, which were formerly the British colonies. These nations finally created the United States of America. The American War of Independence highly influenced many countries like the French and Latin Americans. It was one of the immediate causes for the French Revolution outbreak in 1789. In the case of the Latin American countries, they started to raise arms against their colonial masters, Spain and Portugal. In March 1889, elections were held for the Presidency of the new federal government, and George Washington became the first President of the USA.

The American War of Independence did not abolish slavery. At the same time, it did not consider the Red Indians as citizens. Nevertheless, it was an essential step towards creating the United States of America, which has shown a more rapid industrial development since then.

Activity 9.6



1. By exploring the internet, write a paragraph about the consequences of American Revolution.

9.5 The Congress of Vienna

Lesson learning outcomes

At the end of this lesson, learners will be able to:

- point out the aims and consequences of the Congress of Vienna (1815).

Brainstorming

- What comes to your mind when you hear or read about the congress of Vienna?

Congress of Vienna began in September 1814, five months after Napoleon I's first abdication and completed its "Final Act" in June 1815, shortly before the Waterloo campaign and Napoleon's final defeat. The settlement was the most comprehensive treaty that Europe had ever seen. The objective of the Congress of Vienna was to provide a long-term peace plan for Europe by settling critical issues arising from the French Revolutionary Wars and the Napoleonic Wars. As a result, virtually every state in Europe had a delegation in Vienna.

The four powers (Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain) that were chiefly instrumental in the overthrow of Napoleon had concluded a special alliance among themselves with the Treaty of Chaumont on March 9, 1814, a month before Napoleon's first abdication. The subsequent peace treaties with France, signed on May 30 not only by the "four" but also by Sweden and Portugal and on July 20 by Spain, stipulated that all former belligerents should send plenipotentiaries to a congress in Vienna. Nevertheless, the "four" still intended to reserve their real decision-making.



Map 9.1 Delegates states during the congress of Vienna,
(source: Encyclopaedia, Britannica)

All of Europe sent its most important statesmen. The delegates began to arrive in Vienna towards the end of September 1814. Klemen, principal minister of Austria, represented his emperor, Francis II. Tsar Alexander I of Russia directed his diplomacy. King Frederick William III of Prussia had Karl, Prince von Hardenberg, as his principal minister. Great Britain was represented by its foreign minister, Viscount Castlereagh. However, when Castlereagh had to return to his parliamentary duties, the duke of Wellington replaced him, and Lord Clancarty was principal representative after the duke's departure.

The restored Louis XVIII of France sent Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand. Spain, Portugal, and Sweden had only men of moderate ability to represent them. Many of the rulers of the minor states of Europe put in an appearance. With them came a host of courtiers, secretaries, and ladies to enjoy the magnificent social life of the Austrian court. Assisting Metternich as host, Friedrich Gentz played a vital role in the management of protocol and the secretarial organisation of the congress. The social side of the congress was, in fact, one of the causes of the long and unexpected delay in producing a result, for Metternich at least sometimes subordinated business to pleasure.

The major points of friction occurred over the disposition of Poland and Saxony, the conflicting claims of Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, and the adjustment of the borders of the German states. In general, Russia and Prussia were opposed by Austria, France and England, which at one point (January 3, 1815), went so far as to conclude a secret treaty of defensive alliance. The major final agreements and decisions of the congress were as follows.

In return for acquiring Poland, Alexander gave back Galicia to Austria and gave Thorn and a region around it to Prussia; Kraków was made a free town. The rest of the Duchy of Warsaw was incorporated as a separate kingdom under the Russian emperor's sovereignty. Prussia got two-fifths of Saxony and was compensated by extensive additions in Westphalia and on the left bank of the Rhine River. It was Castlereagh who insisted on Prussian acceptance of the latter territory, with which it had been suggested the king of Saxony should be compensated.

Castlereagh wanted Prussia to guard the territories of the Rhine region against France and act as a buttress to the new Kingdom of the Netherlands, which comprised both the former United Provinces and Belgium. Austria was compensated by Lombardy and Venice and got back most of Tirol, Bavaria, Wurttemberg, and Baden, on the whole, did well. Hanover was also enlarged. The outline of a constitution, a loose confederation, was drawn up for Germany- a triumph for Metternich. Denmark lost Norway to Sweden but got Lauenburg,

while Swedish Pomerania went to Prussia. Switzerland was given a new constitution.

In Italy, Piedmont absorbed Genoa; Tuscany and Modena went to an Austrian archduke; and the Duchy of Parma and Piacenza was given to Marie-Louise, consort of the deposed Napoleon. The Papal States were restored to the pope, and Naples went to the Sicilian Bourbons. Valuable articles were agreed to on the free navigation of international rivers and diplomatic precedence. Castlereagh's outstanding efforts to abolish the slave trade were rewarded only by a pious declaration.

The Final Act of the Congress of Vienna comprised all the agreements in one great instrument. It was signed on June 9, 1815, by the "eight" (except Spain, which refused as a protest against the Italian settlement). All the other powers subsequently acceded to it. As a result, the political boundaries laid down by the Congress of Vienna lasted, except for one or two changes, for more than 40 years. The statesmen had successfully worked out the principle of a balance of power.

However, the idea of nationality had been almost entirely ignored, necessarily so because it was not yet ready for expression. Territories had been bartered about without much reference to the wishes of their inhabitants. Until an even greater settlement took place at Versailles after World War I, it was customary for historians to condemn the statesmen of Vienna. It was later realized how difficult their task was, as was the fact that they secured for Europe a period of peace, which was its cardinal need. However, the statesmen failed to give to international relations any organ by which their work could be adapted to the new forces of the 19th century, and it was ultimately doomed to destruction.

Activity 9.7



1. Explore the internet and discuss briefly the consequences of the congress of Vienna.

Unit Summary

A fully developed capitalist system in the present western world emerged only after the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century. Nevertheless, the industrial revolution was not the only factor for the emergence of modern capitalist society.

A series of events occurred before the industrial revolution and contributed to the growth and consolidation of capitalism. The earliest of these events was the English Revolution of the seventeenth century. The English revolution was a bourgeois revolution. It destroyed feudal autocracy and cleared the way for the rapid growth of capitalism in England.

Similar revolutions also took place in North America and France. In North America, the revolution took the form of a war of Independence which was fought to liberate the 13 colonies of North America from British rule. However, the war had results that were far beyond this objective. It created a new nation called the USA and facilitated the growth of capitalism in that new nation.

The American war of Independence also provided an immediate cause for the French revolution of 1789. In fact, before the American war of Independence, the intellectual movement called *Enlightenment* had created a revolutionary situation in France. Thus, the two events inspired the French Revolution's outbreak, which destroyed the old feudal system and stimulated rapid capitalist growth in France.

The French Revolution was important not only to France but also to the world. It became a source for new ideas and principles like liberty and equality. Napoleon's conquests spread these new ideas and principles to various corners of his European empire. However, his rule awakened nationalist feelings among the conquered peoples and states of Europe and finally brought about the downfall of the Napoleonic Empire.

Unit Review Questionns**Part I: Part I: Multiple Choice Item. Choose the best answer.**

1. The two privileged classes in France before the revolution were:
 - A. nobility and peasants
 - B. nobility and bourgeoisie
 - C. nobility and clergy
 - D. clergy and bourgeoisie
2. What was the fundamental cause of the French Revolution of 1789?
 - A. The American war of Independence
 - B. Food shortage caused by poor harvest
 - C. The Enlightenment
 - D. Injustices under the old feudal order
3. The battle that marked Napoleon's final defeat was
 - A. Leipzig
 - B. Jena
 - C. Waterloo
 - D. Trafalgar
4. Which of the following was not the effect of the American War of Independence?
 - A. It liberated the American people from British rule
 - B. It influenced the French and Latin Americans
 - C. It abolished slavery
 - D. It created the USA
5. The action which marked the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789 was related to the
 - A. French bourgeoisie
 - B. poor people in Paris
 - C. peasantry
 - D. merchants of Paris
6. Napoleon Bonaparte met the strongest and most challenging resistance of all in
 - A. Prussia
 - B. Austria
 - C. Russia
 - D. Egypt

Part II: Short Answer

1. Browse the internet and find the consequences of the French Revolution. Then, discuss your findings in groups.
2. Discuss some of the reforms and changes introduced by Napoleon.

GLOSSARY

Abbaa: father, master of a ceremony/ religion.

Abbaa Gadaa: Prime Councilor, Master of Gadaa period, Gadaa leader.

Abbaa Muudaa: father of anointing.

Abba Duulaa: commander in chief .

Balabbat: hereditary owner of rist land; or is an appointee at district level by the state to serve as subordinate land administrator or local land lord.

Balambaras: head of the amba' a low-level administrative title.

Butta Ceremony: the ceremony occurred every eight years by the Oromo, when power transferred from one *Gadaa* grade to the next.

Chaffe: the Oromo Gada assembly.

Dajäzmäčh: a higher warrior title of the Amhara.

Etege: equivalent to Queen.

Fitäwräri: a warrior title literally means “leader of the vanguard army.”

Gäbbar: tribute paying peasants either in kind or money.

Gadaa: an Oromo indigenous, traditional socio-political system through which the Oromo society exercise self-governance.

Geber: agrarian tribute, invariably paid in kind, tax.

Gult: is a right given to an official to share in the produce of the peasantry.

Guddifacha: a form of parent adopting a child Oromo family.

Grazmach: a warrior title of the Amhara, literally means “left leader”.

Jabarti: the Ethiopian Muslim merchants of the 19th and early 20 centuries.

Janissaries: a member of the Turkish infantry forming the Sultan's guard between the 14th and 19th centuries.

Kawo: Title for King of Wolayta, Gamo and other Omotic people.

Luwa: is an age grade system of Sidama where each grade rotates every 8 years.

Mannor: Villages during the medieval European.

Moggasa: was a system of adopting non-Oromo community into Oromo clan.

Odaa: a sycamore tree chosen for the performance of religious rituals as well as political actions.

Nagadras: head of merchant, later chief government official in charge of the collection of customs.

Negus: King.

Qaalluu: Oromo religious leader. He leads ritual performances and prayers, anoint the participants as a religious piety. His gosa and he are believed to be the ‘eldest’.

He is seen as a custodian of the waqeffanna and the guardian of the harmonious functioning of the gada system.

Qannazmach: an Amharic warrior title literally means “right leader”, or commander of the right.

Ras: ‘head’, the highest traditional title next to negus.

Rist: a lineage system of land ownership, giving usufruct right to the claimant; in the 20th century, and rist assumes the meaning of absolute private property.

Tato: tittle for King of Kafa and Yem People.

Sera: a set of cultural norms regulating the social structure of the society among Cushitic peoples (Law).

Woma: Tittle for King among Kambata, Sidama, Tambaro, Halaba and others.