

FROM SERVITUDE TO CITIZENSHIP

1 /// THE 18TH CENTURY

Activities 1-2

1.1 TOWARDS THE END OF THE MODERN AGE

Historical developments in Europe throughout the Modern Age created the right conditions for a radical change at the end of the 18th century. These are some of the key developments that had already been occurring since the 15th century.

- The development of two opposing **political models**: parliamentarism and absolutism.
- The growth and improvement of a finance and trade-based economy that extended to all continents. However, agriculture and livestock farming were still the most important activities, both in terms of number of workers and the wealth that they generated.
- The strength of **social classes not devoted to farming** but to commercial, financial and professional activities (wealthy artisans, lawyers, etc.).
- **Intellectual movements** based on humanism that proposed political, economic and social reforms that made a different type of society seem possible in the final period of the Modern Age.

1.2 ADVANCES IN SCIENCE

Advances in philosophy and empiricism during the 17th century laid the foundations of the **scientific method**. The discoveries of Isaac Newton, Galileo Galilei and Johannes Kepler led the way for new ones in the 18th century.



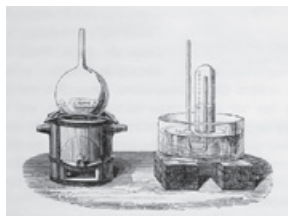
Daniel Fahrenheit invented the mercury thermometer.



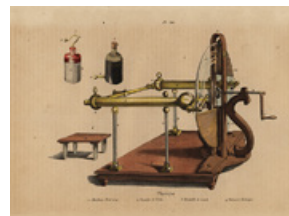
Anders Celsius created the centigrade temperature scale.



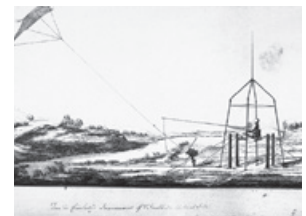
Carl Linnaeus classified plants using the Linnaean taxonomy.



Antoine Lavoisier analysed the composition of air.



Alessandro Volta made the first battery.



Benjamin Franklin invented the lightning rod.



2 /// ENLIGHTENMENT AND DESPOTISM

Activities 3-7

2.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF ENLIGHTENMENT

A new intellectual movement appeared among the educated elites of the 18th century: the **Enlightenment**. This was a European phenomenon with France as its main epicentre that also spread to America. Enlightenment thinkers were noblemen, the bourgeoisie and clergymen.

The Enlightenment brought together the ideas of the main cultural and philosophical movements of the previous centuries. Like humanism, empiricism and rationalism, the Enlightenment called on the individual, reason and experience as ways to overcome humanity's problems. It was an optimistic intellectual movement that expressed **hope in the future** through different ideas.

- **Reason** was understood as human rationality that could illuminate the darkness and society's errors. Reason was the way to overcome biased notions and religious dogmas which led some Enlightenment thinkers to challenge all religious beliefs.
- **Progress** was thought of as the development of knowledge so that civilisation could control nature and create well-being and wealth.
- **Happiness** was considered an individual right and a societal aspiration that leaders were obligated to provide.

The Enlightenment was mostly a **reformist movement**; it defended its aims through reforms of politics, society, the economy and culture. For example, most Enlightenment thinkers were monarchists, but they supported reforming monarchies to guarantee individual rights and moderate the power of absolute kings.

They placed a lot of importance on education and pedagogy, but from an **elitist** perspective. Enlightenment thinkers supported extending education to the people and ensuring that the Church did not monopolise it. But, in general, they wanted to limit it to basic knowledge, reserving the most important knowledge for the intellectual elites.



Gottfried Leibniz (1646–1716) is considered the forerunner of the Enlightenment. Immanuel Kant (1724–1804), a German philosopher, was one of the central Enlightenment thinkers.

The Meeting of the Accademia dei Pugni
by Antonio Peregó

2.2 THE SPREAD OF ENLIGHTENMENT IDEAS

The new Enlightenment ideas were printed in the press and in books. Above all, they were spread by the *Encyclopédie*, the most important book of the Age of Enlightenment, which had 25,000 subscribers. Edited by French thinkers Diderot and D'Alembert, it comprised 72,000 articles to summarise the knowledge of the era. Topics and ideas were organised alphabetically, a new development at the time.

Enlightenment ideas were not spread where social life had formerly taken place, in churches, families and guilds. They were spread by word of mouth in **gatherings** of the nobility and upper middle class, usually in salons, where guests enjoyed conversation with well-known philosophers and writers. These salons were usually known by the name of the people that organised them.

Reading societies were also established. These acted as the first public libraries from which books could be borrowed. Scientists and intellectuals gathered in **academies**, where lectures were given, scientific and literary works were read and practical work was carried out: agricultural and climate studies; dictionaries and statistics on population; scientific and archaeological expeditions; industrial projects, etc.

2.3 WOMEN IN THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Some eminent women, usually wealthy ones, protested about women's social situation and tried to improve it, based on Enlightenment ideas of progress and reasoning. As well as organising salons, like those of Marie-Thérèse Rodet, more and more women began to work in professions previously only worked in by men. Women made important scientific and cultural contributions during the Age of Enlightenment.



In the Salon of Madame Geoffrin in 1755, by Anicet Charles Gabriel Lemonnier. Marie-Thérèse Rodet Geoffrin (1699–1777) became famous for starting her own salon. Her guests included Diderot, D'Alembert, Benjamin Franklin, Montesquieu and Voltaire.



Émilie du Châtelet (1706–1749). Châtelet helped disseminate the theories of Newton by translating his works into French. Her translation was a very important step in the dissemination of Newton's work in France. Châtelet regularly met with important scientists of the period and worked with Voltaire.



María Gaetana Agnesi (1718–1799). María was an Italian linguist and mathematician who spoke several languages. She published a number of books on differential and integral calculus that were used in teaching for a long time. She also taught at the University of Bologna.



Mary Wollstonecraft (1759–1797). A British philosopher and writer, she wrote an important treatise on women's rights, entitled *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792). On the work, she argued that women's subordinate role in society was the result of unequal education.

2.4 THE EVOLUTION OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT: *STATU QUO* OR RADICALISATION

The Enlightenment led to a more **critical intellectual attitude**. Some progress was made in literacy within society, notably in Prussia, which established the world's first regulated primary education system for boys and girls. In England, the number of titles published increased from 21,000 in 1710 to 65,000 in 1790. Books on religion were replaced by books on science, the arts, philosophy and literature.

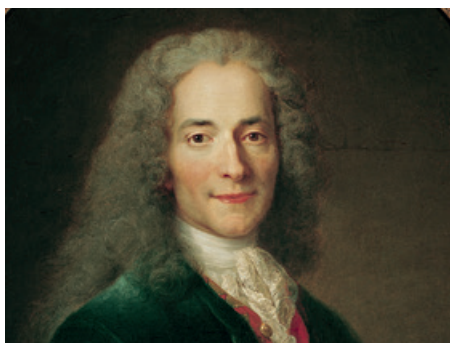
Although these were important achievements, some Enlightenment thinkers understood that they were insufficient, so a more radical critique of the political and social system emerged. Therefore, thinkers like Locke, Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau were the **intellectual link** that united the Enlightenment with the major changes that began to take place in the last third of the 18th century.



John Locke (1632–1704). British philosopher John Locke had a key influence on the most critical Enlightenment thinkers. He was the first to defend the existence of three individual rights common to all people: the right to life, liberty and property.



Montesquieu (1689–1755). Montesquieu came from a noble family and criticised absolute monarchies where the king held all fundamental powers. He proposed a moderate monarchy with separation of the executive, legislative and judicial powers.



Voltaire (1694–1778). Voltaire was a wealthy, middle-class property owner who criticised religious fanaticism and the structure of the Church. He was an advocate of freedom of religion. Although he was in favour of enlightened despotism, he fought for civil rights and judicial reform.



Rousseau (1712–1778). Rousseau was from a middle-class background. He proposed a model of society where sovereignty was in the hands of the people and not of the king. He also believed that society should submit to the general will, as expressed by the sovereign people. In short, he supported democracy.

//// SPEAK <<<<

Role-play an interview with a partner. Student A is an artist living in 18th-century Paris, who goes to salons to meet other artists and philosophers. Student B is a young journalist. Interview Student A to find information about these meetings.

KEY STRUCTURES

We discussed ideas like ...; Who else was at the meeting?

2.5 ENLIGHTENED DESPOTISM

Enlightened despotism, which emerged in the 18th century, was a variant of absolutism that incorporated reforms from the royal court, inspired by the Enlightenment. However, these reforms did not decrease the absolute power of the monarchs.

Absolute monarchs thought that Enlightenment ideas would help them govern more efficiently and legitimise their power. Their motto was **'everything for the people but without the people'**.

Important Enlightenment thinkers worked as government advisers or ministers under absolutist monarchs to improve the functioning of monarchies. They did this through a series of reforms.

- **Economic reforms.** Improvements in communication routes, agriculture, crafts and commerce were introduced to increase tax income.
- **Political reforms.** The authority of the kings was strengthened to the detriment of the powers of parliament.
- **Regalist reforms.** These reforms were designed to adopt the same privileges as the Church. For example, the appointment of high positions like bishops and abbots, and the tax exemptions enjoyed by the clergy.
- **Cultural and educational reforms.** The sciences and arts were promoted through the creation of academies specialising in different areas of knowledge, and manual workers were taught skills.

Some of the monarchs who represented enlightened despotism were Louis XV of France (1715–1774), Frederick II of Prussia (1740–1786), Maria Theresa I of Austria (1740–1780), Catherine II of Russia (1762–1796), Christian VII of Denmark (1766–1808), Gustav III of Sweden (1771–1792) and Joseph II of Austria (1780–1790). Carlos III of Spain (1759–1788) was also considered an enlightened despot.



Catherine II, empress of Russia between 1762 and 1796, was an example of an enlightened despot. She was in contact with Diderot, Voltaire and D'Alembert, but she only implemented the reformist ideas that strengthened her power.

Maria Theresa of Austria

Maria Theresa of Austria is one of the most well-known examples of an enlightened despot because of the extent of her political and financial reforms. Despite her power and the way in which she governed, she personified the differences between men and women, even kings and queens.

She was the legitimate heir to her father, Emperor Charles VI, becoming ruler of all the Habsburg dominions (the Duchy of Austria, kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, etc.). However, because she was a woman, she could not be elected Holy Roman Empress.

The death of Charles VI triggered the War of the Austrian Succession (1740–1748), an international conflict over Maria Theresa's succession to the throne. Although she lost some territories in the Holy Roman Empire and Italy, Maria Theresa kept most of her Austrian inheritance and obtained the imperial crown for her husband. Her authority was severely undermined.



Portrait of Maria Theresa of Austria by Jean-Étienne Liotard (1743)

2.6 THE PARLIAMENT OF GREAT BRITAIN

England and Scotland were a **composite monarchy**, in which both kingdoms had their own institutions. After the Glorious Revolution of the 17th century, they had a parliamentary regime. The English monarchs also ruled over Wales and Ireland.

The situation changed in the early 18th century when the **Parliament of Scotland** agreed to merge with that of England in exchange for financial assistance. The Scottish Treasury needed this assistance because of debts incurred through a costly and unsuccessful attempt to colonise Panama.

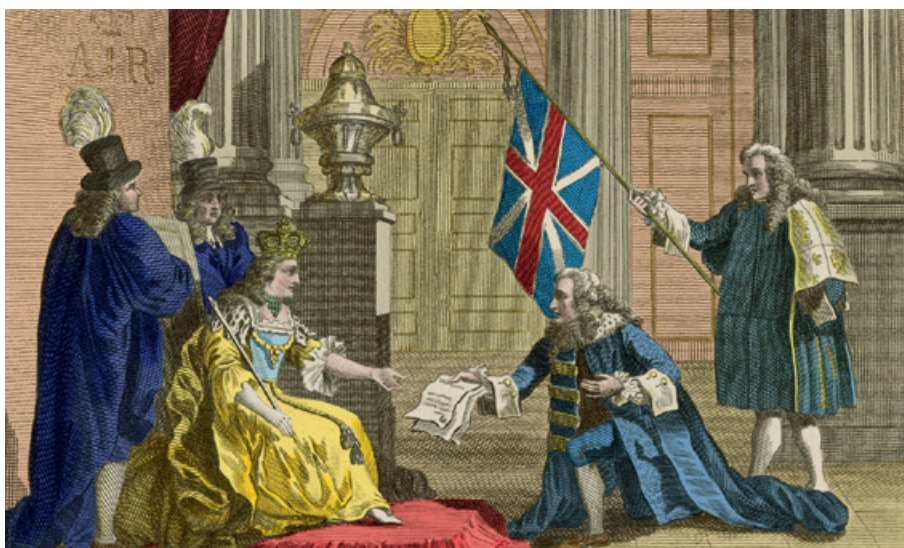
In 1707, the Act of Union was signed, by which the parliaments of both kingdoms agreed to the creation of the **Kingdom of Great Britain**, also known as the 'United Kingdom'. The Scottish and English parliaments united to form the Parliament of Great Britain, a two-House system based in London. However, England and Scotland each maintained their own legal systems.

The stability of the British parliament and its prosperous foreign trade contributed to the development of an aggressive **foreign policy** both in Europe and around the world. In this way, Great Britain and France fought for hegemony.

Great Britain and France fought for supremacy in Europe in the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–1715) and the War of the Austrian Succession (1740–1748). However, the bloodiest conflict between the two monarchies was the **Seven Years' War** (1756–1763), during which they extended the confrontation into their colonies.

After the British victory, by the terms of the **Treaty of Paris**, France ceded territories in North America, the Caribbean, India and Africa, and Britain became the world's greatest naval power.

There were many **British territorial discoveries** during the 18th century thanks to explorer James Cook, who sailed the Atlantic Ocean and explored Oceania. He discovered Hawaii, explored and mapped territories like Newfoundland and New Zealand, and claimed the eastern coast of Australia for the British Crown.



The Duke of Dover presenting the Act of Union to Queen Anne in 1707

Ireland in Great Britain

The Kingdom of Ireland was in personal union with the Kingdom of England and had its own Parliament. The Irish Parliament was abolished in 1800, when the Kingdom of Ireland and Kingdom of Great Britain merged to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.



3 /// LIBERALISM

Activities 8–13

3.1 CRITICISM OF THE OLD REGIME

Old Regime is the term used to describe the economic, social and political institutions and structures in Europe before the transformations that began in the late 18th century. It was characterised by political absolutism, the estate system and a mainly agricultural economy based on the primary sector.

In previous centuries, political theories developed that advocated reforms to guarantee individual rights and moderate the power of kings. This was one of the most important contributions of the **Enlightenment** and **parliamentarianism**. However, John Locke and enlightened thinkers such as Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau formulated more radical criticisms that led to liberalism. The **liberals** developed a radical opposition to the Old Regime, criticising different aspects.

- **The legal inequality of the estate system.** This is the absence of equality between all people before the law. Society was divided into privileged social groups (nobles and clerics) and the rest of the population, the commoners or third estate. Due to estate privileges and fiefdoms, and because sovereignty was concentrated in the hands of the kings, society in the Old Regime was made up of serfs and subjects.
 - **Serfs** were required to serve a lord. They were usually inhabitants of a fiefdom where they lived under manorialism.
 - **Subjects** were all the inhabitants of a kingdom, regardless of their class. They owed obedience and loyalty to their king.
- **The survival of a feudal economy.** Although there was great commercial and market growth during previous centuries, the liberals criticised obstacles to development of the free market, such as fiefdoms, privileged corporations such as guilds, and goods that could not be sold or bought.

The liberals also criticised trade restrictions and price controls established by the authorities during emergencies like poor harvests.
- **Limits on free thought and civil rights.** The power of absolute monarchies and the privileges of the Church and their ability to influence laws limited individual rights and freedom of expression. Monarchs and clerics censored criticism and the development of new ideas.
- **The survival of manorialism** in the fiefdoms of the nobility and the Church. Although the situation was not the same everywhere, inhabitants of fiefdoms had to work for their lords, pay taxes and be subject to their laws.

//// SPEAK <<<<

If you were a monarch in the 18th century, what type of monarch would you be? A parliamentary monarch or an enlightened absolute monarch? In pairs, discuss the pros and cons of both systems.

The bourgeoisie, a revolutionary agent of liberalism

The third estate was made up of peasants and the **bourgeoisie**, which included merchants, artisans, and professionals from different fields like finance, law and medicine. The bourgeoisie grew during the Modern Age, as did its wealth and social influence. It therefore saw that its legal and political marginalisation compared to privileged groups was not justified.



Satirical drawing representing the oppression of the third estate by the two privileged orders: the clergy and nobility

3.2 IDEAS OF POLITICAL LIBERALISM

Political liberalism sought an alternative social and political order to the existing one.

- **Equality of people before the law.** This meant the abolition of all privileges, fiefdoms, manorialism and the whole estate system. Everyone, including the royalty, should be subject to the same laws regardless of their social origin.
- **The existence of unalienable individual rights** (rights that cannot be taken away). This idea was inspired by the work of John Locke, and meant that human beings naturally possessed the right to life, liberty and property.
- **The establishment of freedoms** of the press, printing, education and assembly.
- **The division of powers.** Following Montesquieu's theories, the liberals argued that power had to be moderated by individual rights and by division into three powers: the executive, exercised by the government, the legislative, exercised by parliament, and the judicial, in the hands of the courts.
- **Separation between the Church and the state** to prevent religious interference in civil society.
- **Sovereignty resides in the nation.** The liberals advocated that the people should govern themselves through their representatives in Parliament. These should be elected by suffrage, or in other words, by voting. They proposed a representative political power.

The triumph of these principles would mean that people would no longer be serfs and subjects. Instead, they would become **citizens**, who are individuals who enjoy all the rights and duties established by law.

There were two different ideological tendencies amongst liberals.

- Moderate liberals supported **censitary suffrage**. This meant restricting the right to vote to the wealthiest only.
- Radical liberals advocated **universal manhood suffrage**.

3.3 IDEAS OF ECONOMIC LIBERALISM

Enlightened ideas also influenced the field of economics, particularly those that advocated individual property and greater freedom to trade. The British economist Adam Smith developed a theory called economic liberalism. It defended the freedom of the individual to produce and buy within a **free market and own private property**. His main work was *The Wealth of Nations* (1776).

Faced with obstacles to free trade imposed by feudalism, the liberals believed that the role of public power should be reduced to mediating in economic relationships. The state should not intervene as the **law of supply and demand** in a free market would determine what to produce, how much to produce and at what price. This approach is known as *laissez faire, laissez passer* ('let do, let pass').

Moderate and radical liberals

There were two different ideological tendencies amongst liberals. The **moderate** liberals wanted to keep the king and official religion, but believed their power should be subject to the law. In addition, they reserved part of the executive and legislative power from the king. By contrast, **radical** liberals understood that broad freedoms and the suppression of the role of religion in any area of public civil life (teaching, politics, laws, etc.) should be guaranteed. Some were Republicans.



Patriotic women's club. Early liberalism, both moderate and radical, did not contemplate women's suffrage.



Adam Smith (1723–1790)

4 /// THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Activities 14–18

4.1 THE THIRTEEN COLONIES: WAR AND INDEPENDENCE

Since the 17th century, **groups of European emigrants**, mainly from England, had settled on the east coast of North America. Some had fled political instability and religious persecution in their countries of origin.

The British monarchy organised the colonists into 13 demarcations or colonies, imposing a series of taxes on them.

A governor, as the king's representative, held the highest authority in each colony, but his power was almost exclusively military. For all other matters, the colonists ruled themselves through the **colonial assemblies**.

The Thirteen Colonies



The Pilgrim Fathers were one of the groups of emigrants who fled religious persecution. They were Puritan Protestants who arrived at the Bay of Massachusetts on board the *Mayflower* in December 1620.



After the Seven Years' War (1756–1763) between Great Britain and France, the British created a large **permanent army** in America. They forced the colonists to fund it through new taxes, but the colonists rebelled. Their slogan was 'no taxation without representation', because they had no representatives in the parliament in London.

A revolutionary process began. In 1776, delegates from the Thirteen Colonies met in Philadelphia and declared independence from Great Britain and George III's rule. The colonies became known as states, and the new country was called the **United States of America**.

George Washington (1732–1799), born in the former Colony of Virginia, was elected the first president of the United States.

The British were opposed to these changes, and the **American War of Independence** began. France and, to a lesser degree, Spain and the United Provinces supported the colonists to weaken Great Britain.

After the battles of Saratoga and Yorktown, which were won by the colonists led by George Washington, the Peace of Paris was signed in 1783. Great Britain formally recognised the new country's independence.

Extract from the United States Declaration of Independence (1776)

'We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.

- That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.
- That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it.'



Betsy Ross, often credited with designing the United States flag, presents the flag to George Washington.

4.2 THE POLITICAL REGIME OF THE UNITED STATES

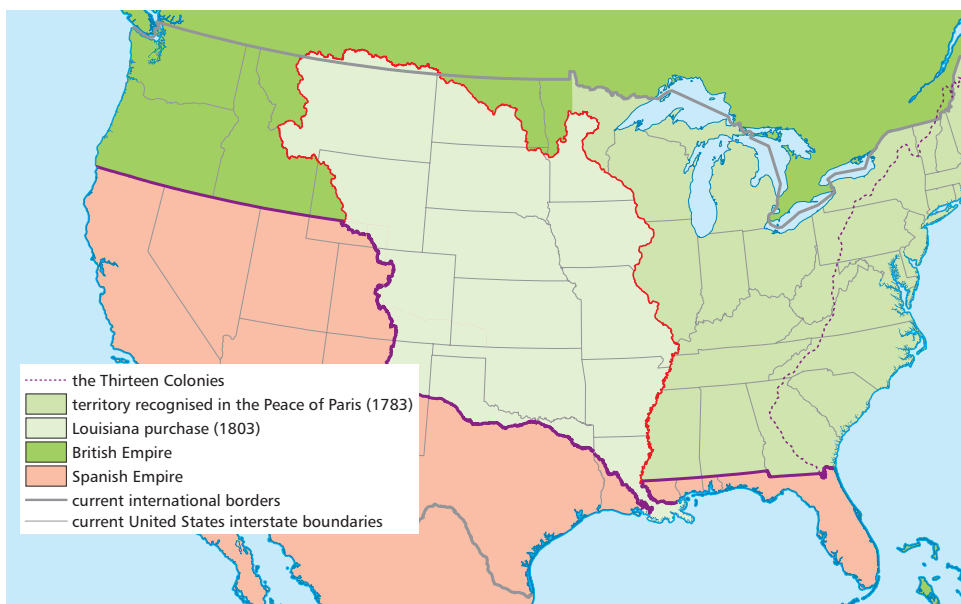
The delegates from the new states met again in Philadelphia and drafted a **Constitution**, which was approved in 1787. For the first time, political liberal principles as well as ideas of thinkers such as Locke, Rousseau and Montesquieu were incorporated into a country's fundamental law.

The key points of the Constitution of the United States of America are still in force today, and it has served as inspiration for many constitutions around the world.

- **Popular sovereignty.** The United States citizens hold the power.
- The United States is a **federal republic**, in which government functions are divided between the capital (Washington, D.C.) and the different federated states. These were mainly independent.
- The **separation of powers.** The executive consists of the president; the legislative consists of the Congress, made up of the House of Representatives and the Senate; and the judicial consists of the Supreme Court.
- The **head of state** is the president, chosen by the House of Representatives every four years.
- **Suffrage** is in place to elect members of the House of Representatives.
- The recognition of **basic rights** to life, liberty and property, and of **freedoms**, including religious, printing, assembly, etc.

A series of **amendments**, or articles added to the Constitution, led to the progressive expansion of the rights originally listed in it.

- **Slavery**, which had been maintained in states in the southern half of the country, was abolished in the Thirteenth Amendment in 1863.
- The Nineteenth Amendment (1920) granted women the right to vote.
- **Voting rights** for African Americans, indigenous and poor people were not guaranteed in all states until 1965.



Election Day in Philadelphia (1816)

//// SPEAK <<<<

Does the American culture have a lot of influence on your lifestyle? What aspects of American culture do you like? Which aspects are you not keen on? Discuss with a partner.

KEY STRUCTURES

I like American (*bands*) like ...; I love American (*fast-food*) and ...; I'm not keen on American (*series*) because ...

American expansion

The United States began its westward expansion very early, and quickly doubled its number of states. When a colonised territory had a certain number of inhabitants, it was proposed that it be constituted as a state. It then became part of the Union with the same rights as the rest.

5 /// THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Activities 19–33

5.1 DIFFICULT TIMES FOR THE MONARCHY

In the last third of the 18th century, under the reign of Louis XVI, France was a model of absolute monarchy ruled under the principles of **enlightened despotism**. However, large segments of the population had begun to criticise the situation and demand a change of regime.

In 1789, the combination of a series of factors triggered the revolution.

- The **liberal ideas** of the Enlightenment. They had become popular amongst large segments of the population, even amongst the nobility and clergy.

Criticism of absolutism and the division of society into estates of the realm became widespread, as people called for the separation of powers and equality before the law.

- The **example of the United States**. Some French people, such as the marquis de Lafayette, had fought on the side of the colonists in the American War of Independence.

Some of the delegates who had signed the Declaration of Independence, such as Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson, also visited France frequently.

- **Inequality before the law**. In line with feudal societies from the Old Regime, due to their estate privileges, noblemen and clerics did not pay direct taxes, even though they were the richest estates.

As part of the third estate, the bourgeoisie and the peasantry did pay taxes, so they agreed that neither the nobility nor the clergy provided any economic benefit to society.

- **Economic crisis**. After the Seven Years' War (1756–1763), France lost Canada and colonial possessions in India and Africa to Great Britain. This also affected the Royal Treasury, which was forced to pay the huge debts it had taken on to finance the war. Despite this, the court at Versailles did not reduce its spending on luxuries.

Furthermore, the population had grown a lot throughout the 18th century and farming production could no longer meet the demand for food during poor harvests. Under these conditions, in which existing **social inequalities** became more evident, many Parisians went hungry and had no resources.

There was an atmosphere of great **political unrest** in Paris and the rest of France. Many propaganda pamphlets criticising the Old Regime were printed and distributed. The king and queen were openly criticised and discredited.

A total of more than 25,000 **books of grievances** were compiled in France's towns and cities. Citizens and peasants described their complaints and demands in these books.

The absolute monarchy model was tested in the years that followed and was unable to adapt.



Fireworks celebrating the Peace of Paris (1763). The French defeat in the Seven Years' War had a devastating impact on French society and the monarchy.



Louis XVI reigned between 1774 and 1791, making him France's last absolute monarch.

5.2 PHASES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

THE ESTATES-GENERAL (1789)

The French Revolution was a long revolutionary process that began in 1789 and finished in 1804, when the Napoleonic Empire was founded. Its first phase began when King Louis XVI assembled a consultative Parliament, the **Estates-General**. This was typical of the Old Regime, where representation was based on class or estates (the nobility, the clergy and commoners) and not individuals.

The Estates-General was assembled because the Royal Treasury had problems paying its expenses. It proposed that the **rich pay taxes**. As it was an estate assembly, the voting system was one vote per estate. The third estate wanted it to be individual, with one vote per attendee, as this would win the majority vote. However, the nobility and clergy rejected this so the Estates-General were dissolved.

The third estate delegates then formed the **National Assembly**. They declared themselves the only representatives of the French people and swore not to depart until France had a Constitution.

NATIONAL CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY (1789–1791)

While the National Assembly was doing its work, the social situation got worse. In the countryside, nobles' homes were raided. The lower classes of Parisians, known as *sans-culottes* ('without breeches' in French), joined forces with the bourgeoisie and attacked the Bastille prison, which held political prisoners of the absolute monarchy. This was known as the **Storming of the Bastille**. The soldiers defending the prison opened the doors to let the people in.

The king could not dissolve the Assembly, which introduced reforms such as the abolition of feudal privileges, the establishment of censitary suffrage and the creation of a single direct and universal tax. He also drew up the **Constitution of 1791**, which established the division of powers, with the king holding the executive power, and incorporated the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen*.

Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen and *Declaration of the Rights of Woman and of the Female Citizen*

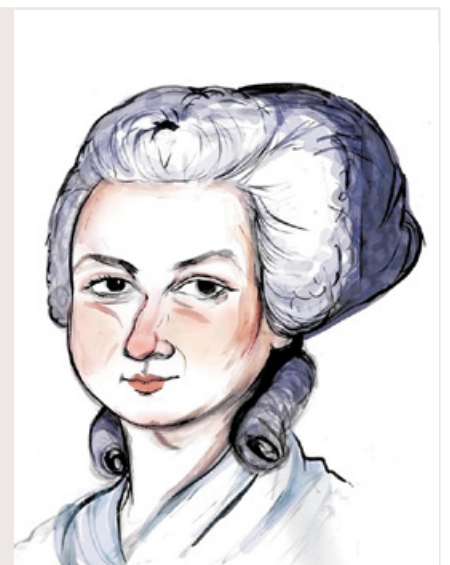
The *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen* was approved by France's National Constituent Assembly. It served as the basis for abolishing the Old Regime in France, and also inspired today's *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. However, the rights of women were completely omitted from the goals of the Revolution. This led French writer and philosopher Olympe de Gouges to write the *Declaration of the Rights of Woman and of the Female Citizen*, one of the first historical documents to propose equal rights for men and women.

De Gouges presented the text to the National Assembly, but it was not approved. Because she supported the Girondins, the Jacobins convicted her of treason. She was sentenced to execution by the guillotine.

Olympe de Gouges



Knitting women. Female *sans-culottes* played an active role in the Revolution in Paris.



LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY (1791–1792)

Although Louis XVI seemed to accept the situation, he contacted other absolute monarchies to **conspire** against the new regime. He wanted to take advantage of the alarm in European courts about what was happening in France, where they were fearful that the situation would spread. But he was discovered and detained in the Tuileries Palace.

Once the Constitution was approved, the Constituent Assembly was dissolved, and **elections** were held following censitary suffrage. The results determined the formation of the Legislative Assembly. According to the new constitutional order, it was in charge of preparing the laws. In addition, three new political tendencies appeared.

- **The Plain.** They were deputies who were in the majority and did not belong to any party.
- **The Girondins.** With the second highest number of representatives, they were moderates, federalists and supporters of the parliamentary monarchy.
- **The Jacobins.** They were radical liberals, centralists and supporters of the Republic, who were in the minority.

Meanwhile, the absolutist powers of Austria and Prussia attacked France and threatened Paris in 1792. The *sans-culottes* rose up, as they were suspicious of the loyalty of a king who had conspired with the invaders. The Legislative Assembly suspended the executive power of the king and called elections by universal manhood suffrage.

NATIONAL CONVENTION (1792–1795)

After the elections, the **Assembly assumed legislative and executive powers**, becoming a National Convention. A new Constitution was to be created, but because of the war, the priority was fighting the invaders, who were defeated at the decisive Battle of Valmy.

Although the Jacobins obtained more representatives than the Girondins in the elections, they did not win a majority. However, the Convention removed and imprisoned Louis XVI, and the **Republic was proclaimed** in September 1792.

Over the following months, the **Jacobins** took control of the Convention, which voted for more radical measures as the war abroad escalated. The king was tried for treason and executed by guillotine, committees were organised to carry out different tasks of government, slavery was abolished, and measures were approved to support the lower classes.



Liberty, equality, fraternity

This motto eventually represented the French Revolution, and later the French Republic itself. It was originally one of many slogans created during the revolutionary period that the French people experienced starting in 1789. Its simplicity and the force of its ideas made it popular. The Convention eventually adopted it as a motto on documents and monuments. It is still used today.



Marie Antoinette

Queen Marie Antoinette, the emperor of Austria's sister, married Louis XVI. The French people accused her of defending Austrian interests and spending money on whims while the people starved. She was convicted and executed by guillotine in 1793, a few months after her husband.

The National Convention drew up a Constitution that was never approved. Inspired by the Jacobins, it envisaged greater political **democratisation** by establishing universal manhood suffrage and distributing wealth, giving people the right to food, education and work.

However, the period known as '**the Terror**' began at the same time. Robespierre, the leader of the Jacobins, led the Public Health Committee which was responsible for defending the revolution. It ordered the execution of anti-revolutionaries and anyone suspected of being an anti-revolutionary.

This violence and constant instability led a moderate sector of the deputies to carry out a coup d'état in 1794. They seized power and sentenced Robespierre to death. This started what was called the '**White Terror**' against the Jacobins. The Convention began drafting a new Constitution.



The 'Conspiracy of the Equals' was an attempt to overthrow the Directory. It was organised by Gracchus Babeuf, whose ideas are considered precursors of communism. He was executed by guillotine.



Public execution by guillotine during 'the Terror'

THE DIRECTORY (1795-1799)

The **new Constitution** was approved in 1795. It was less open in rights and freedoms than the one from 1791, which was still in effect. The new legal text established an executive power called the 'Directory'.

The new government faced the constant threat of foreign warfare, as France was still the target of international counter-revolutionary coalitions. It also faced internal conspiracies and rebellions led by monarchists and revolutionaries. Internal **instability** and the lack of a definitive victory abroad led to a new coup d'état.

THE CONSULATE (1799-1804)

The most prestigious French general, **Napoleon Bonaparte**, led a coup d'état in 1799. He seized power and drew up another constitution that same year. The new constitutional text established a Congress and a Senate with very few powers, as the Consulate, which was the government, brought together executive and legislative powers. Napoleon could therefore rule in an authoritarian way as the first consul of the Republic.



The coup d'état of 18 Brumaire brought Napoleon Bonaparte to power as First Consul of France.

6 /// THE NAPOLEONIC EMPIRE

Activities 34–39

6.1 THE EMPIRE THAT EMERGED FROM THE REVOLUTION

Napoleon accumulated many government powers during the Consulate period. He established **hereditary power** to ensure his regime would continue, based on several reasons.

- The consolidation of his power and his successes abroad.
- Internal stability after a decade of chaos and fear of conspiracies against him.

Napoleon was crowned **emperor of the French** in 1804, after being asked by the Senate. He considered that he was not a sovereign by divine right like those of the Old Regime, but that he was a new type of emperor, as his legitimacy came from the French Revolution.

Based on this, Napoleon's Empire marked the reform of the inherited political framework and the starting point of the modern French State. Certain revolutionary triumphs were combined with a return to the monarchical order. Napoleon Bonaparte introduced many reforms during his reign.

- **He established an authoritarian government**, as he controlled the executive and legislative powers, and the appointment of judges.
- **He ended some revolutionary achievements**, such as the abolition of slavery and the separation of powers.
- **He created a repressive regime**, as he persecuted all opposition. This came both from supporters of the Bourbon dynasty who wanted to restore it, and from Jacobins and Republicans opposed to authoritarianism and the end of the Republic.
- In the **field of justice**, he created the French Civil Code, which was the model for subsequent legal codes. He ensured the equality of all citizens before the law, prohibited torture, and definitively separated aspects of civil life, such as marriage and divorce, from the control of the Church.
- **He boosted the economy**. During the Consulate, he founded the Central Bank of France to centralise the minting of money and finance his war campaigns. As emperor he promoted the opening of Chambers of Commerce, organisations to help with commercial exchanges.
- **He laid the foundations for modern educational models** by reforming the university and by creating secondary schools and high schools.
- **He improved the Public Administration** by creating a Court of Accounts to oversee public finances and drawing up a budget with forecasts of government expenses and income.

At first, many European liberals associated Napoleon with the ideals and conquests of the French Revolution, but over time, his authoritarianism caused many to identify him with tyranny.



Napoleon Crossing the Alps by Jacques-Louis David (1801)

Literary salons

Literary salons continued to be popular during the Revolution and Napoleonic era. These gatherings, which were mostly organised by women, brought together writers, artists and philosophers who could freely exchange ideas and contribute to the advancement of knowledge.

Intellectuals such as Madame Récamier, Madame Roland and Madame de Staël, who spent some of her life in exile because of her opposition to Napoleon, helped these spaces to survive.

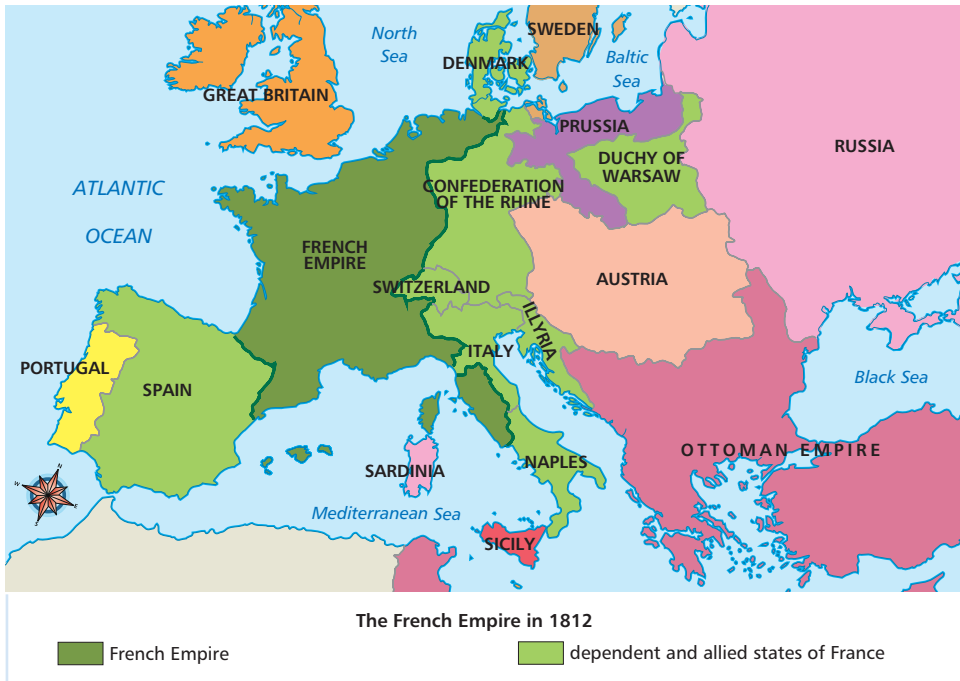


Madame de Staël

6.2 THE RISE AND FALL OF THE NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE

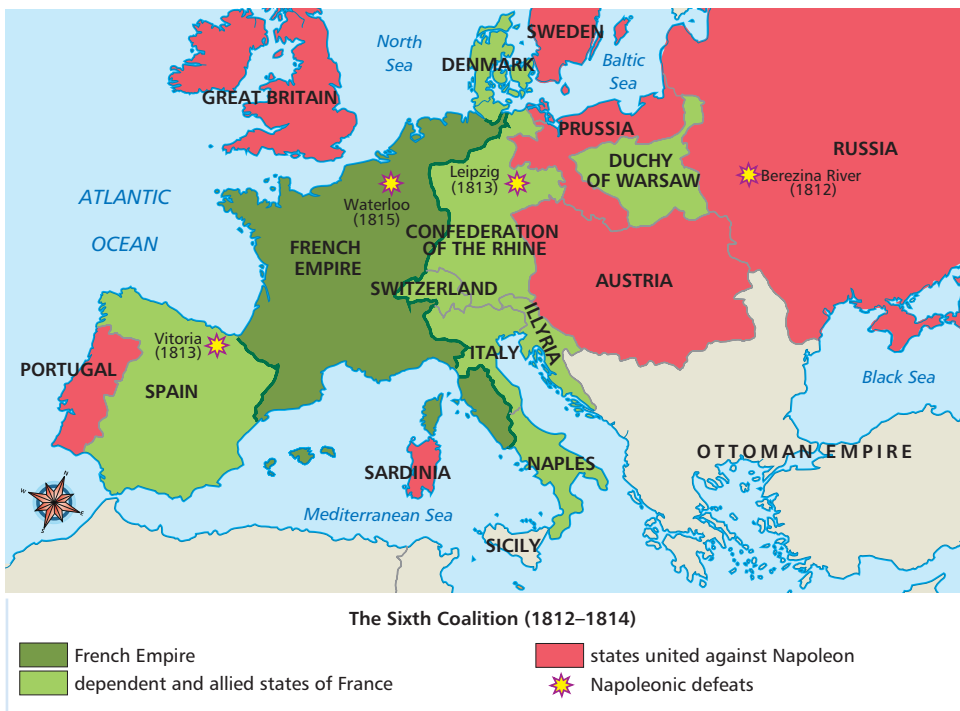
Napoleon achieved success and fame as a young military man defending the Republic against international counter-revolutionary coalitions that attacked France. This helps understand another essential characteristic of the Napoleonic Empire, its **expansive nature**.

Napoleon resurrected the idea of a European empire, justifying the need to extend revolutionary principles. In fact, he tried to create a **new world order** in Europe in which France enjoyed hegemonic power, bringing back concepts from the times of Louis XIV.



First phase (1804–1812)

Napoleon's repeated victories against the great absolutist powers, Austria, Prussia and Russia, led to control of Italy and Central Europe and to the dissolution of the Holy Empire (1806). However, his fleet, along with that of his Spanish allies, was defeated by the British at the Battle of Trafalgar (1805). Unable to take control of the seas, Napoleon proclaimed a continental blockade, meaning that no British ship could dock in European ports. He also invaded Portugal and Spain in 1808, leading to a long and costly war.

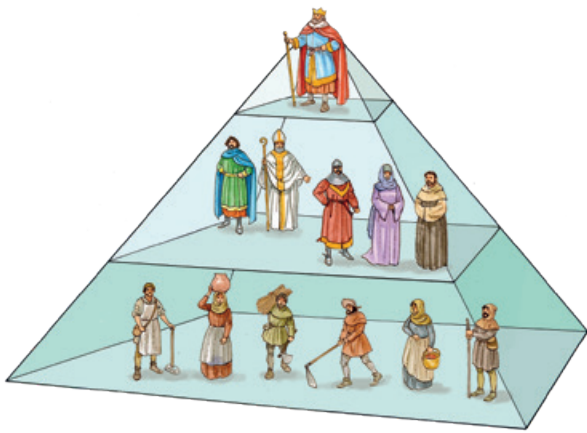


Second phase (1812–1815)

In 1812, Napoleon tried to conquer Russia, but his army was heavily defeated. The subsequent successes of the coalitions and the interminable war in Spain led to Napoleon's defeat (1814). Napoleon was exiled to the Italian island of Elba. He briefly regained power, but in 1815, the British and their allies finally defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo.

ACTIVITIES

- 1 What were the most important changes that took place during the Modern Age? Write them in your notebook.
- 2 Look at the social order in the pyramid. Which one is it? Describe its main characteristics. Which social classes had the most problematic position in that social order because of developments during the Modern Age?




- 3 Read the text. Give an oral presentation on the characteristics of enlightened despotism and the role played by the majority of Enlightenment thinkers.

Initially, enlightened despotism was a meeting of politics and philosophy. In 1781, Joseph II said: "I have made philosophy the lawmaker of my empire". With just a few exceptions like Rousseau, Enlightenment thinkers, who always lived in monarchical societies and firmly believed in the monarchy, thought that it was easier to convince a prince than a nation, and did not believe that the wellbeing of a people could rely on anything other than the crown.

The tactic of philosophers was to convince the princes and make them accept the reforms. In 1769, Voltaire wrote: "The goal is not to lead a revolution like that of the Lutheran period, but to work on the spirit of those who are destined to govern."

Bartolomé BENASSAR, *Modern History*, 1980
(translated and adapted)

- 4 In your notebook, write a report on the Enlightenment that includes the following concepts.
 - The key characteristics of the Enlightenment movement.
 - Its geographical scope and its influence on 18th-century political ideas.
 - Its development and the intellectual evolution of some of its key figures.
 - The role of female Enlightenment thinkers.
- 5 Organise an exhibition on the role of women in the Enlightenment. Compare the status of women during that period with that of women today. Include women of different social classes and with different levels of education. What changes have taken place over the last few centuries?
- 6 Look at the image at the bottom of page 15 to answer the questions in your notebook.
 - a. What event does the picture show?
 - b. What institutional and political changes in England and Scotland does it represent?
 - c. What changes happened in those kingdoms in the 17th century? What were the competing political models and which one prevailed?
 - d. What was the situation in Ireland at the time? How did it join the new union?Finally, in your notebook, write a short report on geopolitical changes in Great Britain in the 18th century.
- 7  Listen to a conversation between two students about their history projects. Decide if the sentences are true or false. Correct the false ones in your notebook.
 - a. Carl's project is on a German philosopher.
 - b. Kant thought war would be the result of democracy and international relations.
 - c. Kant published works on ethics, law, astrology and geography.
 - d. The works that Carl mentions were written in the later part of the 18th century.


8 In your notebook, describe the characteristics of the Old Regime.

9 Which school of thought began to question the Old Regime in the 18th century? Radical opposition to the Old Regime led to the development of a new ideology. Which one?

10 Define the characteristics of political liberalism.

- separation of powers
- national sovereignty
- equality before the law
- unalienable rights
- suffrage
- citizenship

11 What were the different ideological tendencies amongst liberals? Describe the differences between them.

12  Hold a parliamentary debate. Divide the class into three groups: one defending the Old Regime, one supporting moderate liberalism and one supporting radical liberalism.

Two members from each group will also join a team of reporters. The reporters will write the minutes of the debate and publish them in written or digital audiovisual format.

You can wear costumes to help you get into your roles.


13 In your notebook, answer the questions on liberalism.

- What were the ideas of economic liberalism?
- What does *laissez faire*, *laissez passer* mean?
- How did economic liberalism contradict the economic model of the Old Regime?

14 Find information about the Boston Tea Party. In your notebook, write a short description of what happened and why it is considered one of the precursors to the American Revolution.

Take into account the following questions.

- How long did the American War of Independence last?
- Which battles marked the victory of the colonists?
- Who was the first president of the new country that resulted?


15  Listen to a conversation about the American political system. In your notebook, copy and complete the sentences.

- The branch is responsible for daily government.
- The is responsible for making laws.
- The House of Representatives has a term of years.
- The Senate has a term of years.
- The House of Representatives has representatives.
- The Senate has senators.

16 Answer the questions to write a report in your notebook explaining how you think parliamentarianism during the Old Regime is linked to the development of political liberalism.

- Describe the origins of the Thirteen Colonies. Which country were they colonies of? Describe their relationship with that country.
- Why did a revolutionary process begin? What was the result of that process?
- Think about the principles of Old Regime parliamentarianism that you learnt about last year. How was the revolutionary process of the Thirteen Colonies related to those principles?
- Explain how the American Revolution led to political liberalism. Which institutions, laws and ideas reflect this?
- Would political liberalism have been possible with the parliamentarianism of the Old Regime? Explain your answer.

17 In which year was the Constitution of the United States of America approved? Why is it important? Explain your answer based on the principles of that Constitution.

18  First, reflect on these questions.

- What are amendments to a constitution?
- Which amendment to the Constitution of the United States of America abolished slavery? In which year?
- Then, look at the map below. Find information about triangular trade and describe what it is to your classmates. Do you think slavery no longer exists? Discuss with the rest of the class. Give reasons for your answers and use them to write a podcast about human rights.



19 In your notebook, create a concept map summarising the causes of the French Revolution.

20 Look at the image. What does it represent? How did you reach this conclusion?




21 What was the economic and political situation of the bourgeoisie during the Old Regime? In which estate was it? What was the role of the bourgeoisie in the French Revolution? And of the other estates?


22 What was the Estates-General? When and why did Louis XVI assemble it? Imagine you were present at its meetings. What arguments would the privileged estates use to justify not having to pay taxes? What changes did the third estate want?

23 Who were the *sans-culottes*? What was their social status in the Old Regime? What role did female *sans-culottes* play?


24 Explain the importance of the Storming of the Bastille on 14 July 1789.

25  Imagine you are a history journalist. Research one of the people who played a key role in the French Revolution. You can focus on anyone you like, but here are some ideas: a baker, a washerwoman, a shopkeeper, Olympe de Gouges, Robespierre or Napoleon. What would you ask them in an interview?

- Work in groups to find the necessary information.
- Write the interview questions and answers in HTML format to create your own online newspaper.

26  Listen to a museum guide talking about the guillotine. Choose the correct option.

- The guillotine was proposed as a **harsher / cheaper / gentler** method of execution.
- Before, people were executed in **rivers / by sword / by rope**.
- People were **afraid of / interested in / against** public executions.
- The guillotine was last used in the **1970s / 1870s / 1790s**.

27  Go to YouTube and search for 'Marie Antoinette Draw My Life'. Complete the following tasks in your notebook.

- Write a summary of Marie Antoinette's childhood.
- How does Marie Antoinette's biography reflect the social and political order of the Old Regime?
- Marie Antoinette was a victim of rumours and gossip, or what today we would call 'fakes'. Describe those rumours.
- The rumours about Marie Antoinette were not true, but they spread because of the French people's frustration with the Old Regime, which left them feeling marginalised and impoverished. Although she played an important part, Marie Antoinette cannot be held wholly responsible. This is an interesting subject for debate.
 - To what extent was Marie Antoinette victimised for being a woman, and for being foreign?
 - Give reasons for your answers and back up your statements with references.



Portrait of Marie Antoinette (aged 12)
by Martin van Meytens

28 Imagine that you could travel back in time to a heated political debate in a literary salon. Do the following tasks in your notebook.

- What do you think the attendees would be saying?
- Write short conversations, thinking about:
 - the changes the attendees wanted.
 - their discussions about the future of the royal family.

29 What were the main features of the French Constitution of 1791? What changes did it introduce to the monarchy?

30 Read the text and answer the questions below in your notebook.

The rights of men stem exclusively from the fact that they are sentient beings, capable of acquiring moral ideas and of reasoning concerning those ideas. Since women have the same qualities, they necessarily also have the same rights. Either no member of the human race has any true rights, or else they all have the same ones.

Nicolás de CONDORCET,
On the admission of women to the rights of citizenship, 1790
(adapted)

- What type of source is this? Write a commentary on the text.
- What was the role of women in the French Revolution?
- Do you think the marquis of Condorcet's support for women's rights was typical of men during that period?

31 In your notebook, make a table showing the phases of the French Revolution. Include the following:

- Phases: Estates-General, National Assembly, Constituent Assembly, Legislative Assembly, National Convention, Directory
- Key facts: chronology, laws and institutions, important measures and events, key people, most important events

32 What were the main political groups during the French Revolution? Describe the differences between them in your notebook.

33 Answer the questions in your notebook.

- What was Louis XVI's reaction to the events of the Revolution?
- What eventually happened to him and the rest of the royal family?

34 Do these tasks about Napoleon in your notebook.

- Answer these questions.
 - Who was Napoleon?
 - How did he take power?
 - What reforms did he introduce?
- Make a table like the one below, classifying several of Napoleon's reforms according to whether they incorporated revolutionary principles or marked a return to the monarchical order.

Reforms based on revolutionary principles	Reforms based on monarchical principles
.....

35 What were literary salons? What role did women play in them? Discuss in pairs or small groups.

36 Analyse the maps below to do these tasks in your notebook.

- Which countries were conquered and incorporated into the Napoleonic Empire?
- Which countries were created as a result of Napoleonic policy?
- Do the same with the countries and territories that were dependent on and allies of France.
- Which countries were Napoleon's main enemies?
- Napoleon was unable to take control of the seas. What did this lead to?



37 Answer the questions.

- Which conflicts undermined Napoleon's leadership the most?
- How do you think the people in the occupied territories felt about the invasion by Napoleon's troops?

38 Listen to two secondary school students playing a history game. Decide if the sentences are true or false. Correct the false ones in your notebook.

- The person was a well-known monarch.
- He wasn't born in mainland France.
- He avoided war and was peaceful to his neighbours.
- He conquered Moscow in the 19th century.

39 Imagine that you are Napoleon in the last years of his life. Research what happened to him after the Battle of Waterloo, write an essay in your notebook reflecting on your life, and share it with the rest of the class.